



**SUCCESSION PLANNING: CURRENT PRACTICES, INTERNAL
SUCCESSION BARRIERS AND THE RELATIONSHIP WITH
INTENTIONS TO LEAVE WITHIN A PUBLIC SERVICE IN A
DEVELOPING COUNTRY**

by

NOMALINGE AMELIA PITA

Student number: 20302291

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SUPERVISOR: PROF. M. DHURUP

CO-SUPERVISOR: DR. P. A. JOUBERT

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DECLARATION

This work has not previously been accepted in substance for any degree and is not being concurrently submitted in candidature for any degree.

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This dissertation is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Magister Technologiae: Human Resource Management.

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The dissertation is the result of my own independent work/ investigation, except otherwise stated. Other sources are acknowledged by giving explicit references. A bibliography is appended.

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to the memory of my late parents

Mr Mosokoli Tsokolo Pita and Mrs Mathato Alina Pita

and

My late sister Ms Boneswa Mary Pita

and

Generations of Pita family who are striving to further their studies.

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ABSTRACT

In today's globally competitive and modern environments, organisational plans often fail due to the lack of succession planning. However, numerous organisations often fail to prepare for the inevitable departure of employees, especially in strategically high-level positions. Succession planning is a means of identifying critical management positions starting at lower level management and extending up to the highest position in an organisation. Unlike workforce planning, succession planning focuses more on advancing the employees' skills in order to achieve the organisational objectives.

There is no organisation that can exist forever in its present composition as there must be some form of succession or else the organisation will become obsolete. Succession planning plays an imperative role in today's competitive world. There are many factors that influence the stability of an organisational workforce, among which are illness and attrition. Another essential factor, which has taken the world by storm, is the retirement of the baby boomer generation in both in the private and the public sector. This is presenting a challenge within organisations, as they are going to lose talented and experienced employees and makes succession planning more needed more than ever before.

Succession planning is an ongoing process that assists the organisation to align its goals with its workforce, as well as preserving the best talent for the future. It makes the organisation ready to face the challenges presented by the vacant key and critical positions. Succession planning is one of those human resource planning strategies utilised to forecast the talent demand that the organisation will require for achieving its future goals.

The main purpose of this study was to examine the succession planning current practices and internal succession barriers, and determine their relationship with intentions to leave within the public service of a developing country.

The research methodology used to conduct the study is a combination of a literature review and an empirical study. The probability sampling technique, which involves using simple random sampling, was utilised to select the sample for the study. The primary data were collected using a structured questionnaire. The measuring

instrument contained 25 items. The instrument was pilot-tested with 87 respondents one month prior to the main survey. The questionnaire was hand delivered to all the participants. For the main survey, data from 250 respondents were collected and analysed. Participants in the study involve officers, managers and directors in the public service of a developing country.

Data were analysed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients of the various sections of the measuring instrument were computed to establish construct validity. Content validity of the scale was ascertained by pre-testing the questionnaire with employees in the public service. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted for variables in Section B of the research instrument. Convergent validity was assessed through correlation analysis using Pearson's correlation coefficient in order to establish relationships between succession planning current practices and intentions to leave, as well as between internal succession barriers and intentions to leave the public service.

Analysis was done using descriptive statistics on the demographics information of respondents. The results were also interpreted through the exploratory factor analysis, correlation and regression analysis. The results showed that two major factors of succession planning, namely replacement planning and grooming, correlate negatively with intentions to leave. The internal succession barriers also have a negative correlation with intentions to leave. Subsequent to these findings, it is recommended that the public service implement succession planning appropriately and eliminate the barriers thereof in order to retain its workforce.

Based on the findings emanating from the empirical survey it was revealed that if succession planning is implemented appropriately and factors such as replacement planning and grooming are taken into consideration, employees holding key positions may be likely to be retained. Therefore, it was recommended that prior to undertaking succession planning a mission, vision and values that accommodate the contributions of employees should be developed. It was recommended also that when implementing succession planning, clear, transparent and objective criteria should be followed to achieve the optimal results.

It is further recommended that the following succession planning best practices should be adopted by the public service to ensure that succession planning is implemented and practised successfully:

Facilitation of an outside private consultant – for succession planning to be effective and rewarding in the public service it should be facilitated by an outside private consultant.

Understanding of factors that influence succession planning – the public service should understand the necessity to know and address factors that influence willingness to share knowledge by employees.

The study concludes by recommending that barriers that hinder succession planning should be avoided by adhering to the following suggestions:

Longer terms of appointment should be provided for top public service employees

Succession planning should be listed as one of the priorities in the public service strategic plan in order to be included in the budget

Young vibrant and competent employees be motivated, groomed and prepared to apply for leadership or key positions in the public service.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
CEO	Chief executive officer
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
HR	Human resource
HRM	Human resource management
ITL	Intention to leave
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
SP	Succession planning
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION

In today's globally-competitive and modern environments, organisational future plans often fail due to the lack of succession planning (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011a:371). However, numerous organisations often fail to prepare for the inevitable departure of employees, especially in strategically high-level positions (Garg & Weele 2012:96). According to Rothwell (2001:6), succession planning is a means of identifying critical management positions starting at lower level management and extending up to the highest position in an organisation. Reeves (2010:61) is of a view that unlike workforce planning, succession planning focuses more on advancing the employees' skills in order to achieve the organisational objectives.

The lack of succession planning and the turnover of employees causes strain and unstable situations within an organisation, which often lead to decreased productivity (Cao, Maruping & Takeuchi 2006:563). Turnover is described as the parting of an employee from the organisation (Noor & Maad 2008:95). Employee turnover is attributed to various demographic factors such as age, gender, marital status and duration in a position (Parker & Stinkmore 2005:3), and there are various other causes of turnover such as skills mismatch, and lack of development and clear career paths (Branham 2005:4-5).

The public service is no exception to the dilemma of the brain drain faced by most organisations, and one of the evident solutions to preserve the intellectual capital would be to introduce and enhance effective policies and mechanisms for succession planning (Perlman 2010:48).

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Succession planning originated from workforce planning in the 17th century when the concept of division of labour was brought to the fore (Lacerda, Caul Liroux, Spiege, Luis & Neto 2013:789). It became the subject of study since the 1950s, with most

studies focusing on succession, management development and chief executive officer (CEO) succession rather than succession planning at all levels within an organisation (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011a:371).

From the 1970s to the 1990s, research on succession planning increased rapidly with more attention given to CEO succession planning than in the previous years (Kesner & Sabora 1994:327). It was during these years when studies on succession planning expanded to various sectors such as educational, governmental, health care and non-profit organisations (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011a:373).

Succession planning is related to and located within the framework of the theory of planned behaviour. This theory is an expansion of reasoned action and it includes the components of belief and control. It indicates that the desirability of the expected outcome to the initiator, coupled with curiosity and the view that the behaviour will provide desired outcomes, which may affect the intention and future behaviour of employees (Armitage & Conner 2001:471). Therefore, for succession planning to be a planned behaviour, there should be an initiator, which are usually the chief executives who believe that engaging in such behaviour will bring positive outcomes in the organisation (Chrisman, Chua, & Sharma 2003:1). Mejbri and Affes (2012:120) state that in accordance with this theory the possibility that a behaviour will succeed, which in this case is purposeful engagement in succession planning, depends on the sense of belief and control on the part of the initiator. Succession planning as a planned behaviour provides the assurance that the succession process will be successful because of the positive attitudes of the management of the organisation (Gakure, Ngugi, Waititu & Keraro 2013:929).

As research on succession planning intensified, the issue of internal and external succession planning emerged and some researchers argue that internal successors are better than external successors. However, Garg and Weele (2012:104) are of the view that both concepts complement each other as promoting from within improves and increases employees career development options, while introducing new talent brings fresh and objective ideas in an organisation. Moreover, Helfat and Bailey (2005:78) posit that external succession can either have both negative and positive outcomes, depending on the approach used to implement it. In addition, Rahman,

Naqvi and Ramay (2008:47) state that an external successor is opted for when there is a crisis and rapid changes need to be made in an organisation.

There is consensus in the literature that succession planning is not a once-off activity, but a long-term proactive process, which ensures continuity in key positions within an organisation (Rothwell & Poduch 2004:405; Boateng & Ganu 2012:70). In addition, an organisational analysis in order to identify the gap between what is available and what is needed is required for succession planning to be effective (Schall 1997:5).

Effective organisations do not wait for the future to come, but rather create it by devoting their time in identifying, developing and retaining future leaders and managers (Ibarra 2005:19). Succession planning is crucial for continuity of every organisation's leadership and it assists in instances of disaster where executives or leaders are lost in moments such as the attack on the World Trade Centre in New York City (Dingman & Stone 2007:135). Organisations need succession planning in order to identify a pool of imminent candidates when a leadership position becomes vacant (Zepeda, Bengtson & Parylo 2012:140).

Research has shown that succession planning comprises four crucial elements, namely the assessment of key positions within the organisation, identification of candidates, development of their talent and the actual evaluation and selection of a successor or suitable candidates (Schall, 1997:5). Reid (2005:36) posits that succession planning is fruitful because it boosts the organisation's leadership and productivity. However, research has shown that most leaders fail to find a suitable successor to take care of the legacy and successes they leave behind (Porkiani, Beheshtifar & Moghadam 2010:736). Furthermore, it serves as a strategy that saves talent and makes people readily available for the future (Hills 2009:8; Beheshtifar & Moghadam 2011:118). It also assists in building a multitalented workforce within an organisation (Hewitt 2009:183). Organisations can also use it as a tool to compete in challenging labour markets (Zepeda *et al.* 2012:139). Most importantly, succession planning assists during economic recession whereby organisations need to prioritise in order to survive (Goodman, French & Battaglio 2013:3).

Succession planning is needed as much in the public sector as it is in the private sector because every organisation requires leaders who can initiate and drive change (Schall

1997:4). Grooming successors is of utmost importance in the public sector because it serves as a tool to fulfil the public's mandate of improved service delivery (Goodman *et al.* 2013:13).

Zepeda *et al.* (2012:140) are of the view that public sector performance in the area of succession planning lags behind, compared to the private sector because of the organisational culture, uncommitted leaders, lack of implementation resources, lack of role models and restricted promotions. Similarly, Goodman *et al.* (2013:2) affirms that the perception that succession in the public sector is hindered by the focus on short-term activities and limited prioritisation by executives. Moreover, constraints in the public service's succession planning are financial shortages and budgetary cuts due to tough economic times (Reeves 2010:64). Schall (1997:5) points out that changing political administration is one of the obstacles in the implementation of successful succession planning in the public sector.

Turnover intentions, on the other hand, refer to a conscious effort by employees to look for work elsewhere (Ucho & Mkavga 2012:378). Turnover intentions are described sometimes as the direct antecedent of the actual turnover because people have intent before actually making the decision to quit (Craig, Allen, Reid, Riemenschneider & Armstrong (2012:7).

Previous research findings have indicated different relationships between succession planning and turnover. A study on school principal succession has shown that rapid turnover leads to an increased need for succession events (Zepeda *et al.* 2012:138). Succession planning decisions are in most cases influenced by the type of turnover, whether it is forced or voluntary (Rahman *et al.* 2008:54). According to Garg and Weele (2012:99), a lack of succession planning leads to high turnover. Craig *et al.* (2012:7) notes that public service employees' turnover, amongst other things, is influenced by political inclination and lack of empowerment. Since succession planning has a training component, employees who receive training seem to express lower intentions of leaving an organisation (Cho & Lewis 2012:6).

For the purposes of this study, a developing country is the focus of the study, and hence reference will be made to a developing country for ethical reasons.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

Very few organisations survive without proper succession planning (Chima 2013:271). In most public sectors, very little is done to transfer employee skills before they leave the organisation, which largely is attributed to the lack of proper succession planning (Perlman 2010:48). However, there is no documented evidence of succession planning initiatives, the barriers and turnover intentions of employees in the public sector in the developing country in question.

Currently, organisations of various sizes face a range of leadership challenges (Groves 2007:239), one of which is the lack of adequate succession planning. The prevalence of high levels of management attrition at different levels and turnover makes succession planning an important area of research (Taylor & McGraw 2004:742). Froelich, McKee and Rathge (2011:4) posit that the retirement of the vast number of the baby boomers is fast approaching, which creates a huge skills gap that needs to be filled in strategic positions within organisations. Moreover, Schall (1997:5) affirms that until recently, the literature on public sector succession planning has been scarce, especially for positions lower than those of executives.

Furthermore, Reeves (2010:62) affirms that the brain drain of key employees cannot be replaced easily, unless there is a pool of replacements ready to execute duties upon employee retirement. Most research on succession planning focuses on the relationship with performance and organisational commitment, but there is paucity of research that has examined the relationship of succession planning with turnover intentions as an independent variable, especially in the public service (Lee & Jimenez 2011:169; Garg & Weele 2012:99;).

This study is necessitated by the above gap and it aims at determining the relationship between the current practices, barriers in succession planning and the relationship with turnover intentions.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Primary objective

The primary objective of this study is to examine the succession planning; current practices, internal succession barriers, and the relationship with intentions of employees to leave the public service in a developing country.

Theoretical objectives

The under-mentioned theoretical objectives are formulated in order to achieve the primary objective of the study:

To conduct a literature review on succession planning

To conduct a review of the literature on the barriers to succession planning

To conduct a literature review on barriers to succession planning experienced in the public service

To conduct a literature review on the reasons for employees' intentions to leave organisations

To review the literature on the relationship between current practices of succession planning, barriers to succession planning and intentions to leave organisations.

Empirical objectives

The following empirical objectives were formulated for the study:

To examine the employee perception of the current practices of succession planning in the public service of a developing country

To identify the internal barriers in the implementation of succession planning within the public service of a developing country

To determine the nature of the relationship between the current practices, internal succession barriers and intentions of employees to leave the public service of a developing country

To examine whether there are significant relationships between positions held in the organisation, age, and length of service in the organisation, with intention to leave.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Based on the empirical objectives set for the study, a conceptual framework and hypotheses are formulated.

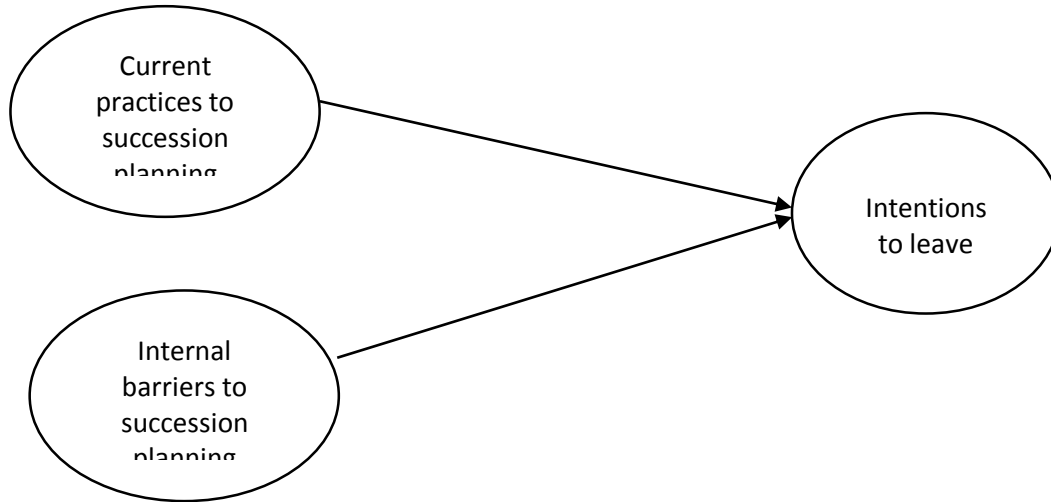


Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework of the relationships

RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is a plan according to which research participants (subjects) are selected and how information is collected from them (Welman & Kruger 2001:46). Two methods of research will be undertaken in this study, namely a literature review and an empirical study.

Literature review

In the literature review section, the theory relating to succession planning in the public service is discussed. Available literature on succession planning and turnover intentions from textbooks, journal articles, conference papers, and the Internet and documented government publications is consulted to develop the theoretical framework on succession planning.

The empirical design process

The empirical design for this study follows a quantitative paradigm. This approach provides a deeper understanding of succession planning in the public service, because it includes descriptive statistical analysis, which provide a clear, yet thorough

way of organising data and presenting findings, thus enhancing accuracy and reducing potential errors (Denscombe 2007:253).

Target population

A target population refers to a group of people from which the researcher wants to generalise (Vogt 2007:59). For the purposes of the study, the target population was restricted to public service ministries based in the capital city of a developing country. The group comprised male and female employees. It comprised all officers holding the positions of director, manager and officer. This was done because these are the people involved in decision making in their various ministries and they deal with issues of recruitment, training, and terminations within the public service. There are 25 ministries within the public service comprising 75 directors, 425 managers and 575 officers. This information was obtained from the ministry of public service human resource division.

Sampling frame

Sampling refers to using a target population, which is considered to be representative of such a population (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport 2005:193), whilst a sampling frame is a complete list on which each unit of analysis is mentioned only once (Welman & Kruger 2001:47). In this study, directors, managers and officers from various ministries formed part of the sample frame. The researcher drew a list of all ministries within the public service and listed directors, managers and officers from various ministries in the public service. Positions above the director position are political in nature and they are usually on a five-year contract, and hence left out from the sample frame.

Sampling technique

Probability sampling method was used. With probability, sampling each individual in the population has a similar chance to be included in the sample (Bernard 2013:130). Simple random sampling was utilised to select the sample for this study. In simple random sampling, a certain process is used to select the sample (Vogt 2007:78). A

number was assigned to each participant then a random selection of 250 employees was made.

Sample size

In determining the sample size for this study, the historical evidence method was used where the researcher was guided by past research studies on succession planning in the public service. The sample size was based on the studies of Noor & Maad (2008:96); Mathur (2011:56); Subrahmanianand Anjani (2011:5); Ucho and Mkavga (2012:380); Ganu and Boateng (2013:54); Salajegheh, Nikpour, Khosropour and Nobarieidishe (2014:78) who used sample sizes between 147 and 330. Therefore, a total of 250 was deemed sufficient to conduct the study.

Method of data collection and measuring instrument

Data collection was accomplished through the use of a structured questionnaire, which was hand delivered to all the participants. The purpose of hand-delivered questionnaires is to ensure that participants get them on time and complete them in their own free time. The researcher personally delivered and collected the questionnaires. The questionnaire comprised four sections. Section A solicited demographic information of respondents such as age, income, gender, position held in the organisation and length of service in the current position. Section B comprised of questions on the current practices of succession planning. Section C comprised of questions on barriers to succession planning. Section D comprised questions on intentions to leave. Details of the questionnaire are provided in Chapter 3, under Section 3.4.5.1.

DATA ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis was undertaken to examine relationships between succession planning and turnover intentions. Descriptive statistics was computed for Section A in order to examine the composition of the data. In addition, regression analysis was undertaken to establish the predictive relationships between the constructs used in the study, namely succession planning current practices, internal succession barriers and intentions to leave. Exploratory factor analysis was undertaken in order to explore the factor structure of the variables

in the study (Vogt 2007:62). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0 was used for the analysis of the data.

RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY

Reliability refers to the chances that a research instrument will produce the similar results across multiple occasions of its use (Denscombe 2007:296). The Cronbach alpha coefficients were used to enhance the reliability of survey instruments. Validity deals with the dependability and usefulness of the measuring instrument (Leedy 1989:26). The following types of validity were examined: content, predictive and construct validities. Content and construct validity were established through the pre-testing and pilot testing of the survey instrument. Correlations and exploratory factor analysis procedure was used to establish convergent validity of the constructs in the study. Regression analysis was used to establish predictive validity of the constructs.

ETHICAL ISSUES

De Vos, Strydom, Fouche and Delport (2005:57) define ethics as “a sets of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, is subsequently widely accepted, which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students”.

The following ethical principles were upheld in this study:

Permission to conduct the study was sought from relevant authorities

Permission for respondents' to have time to complete the questionnaire was requested

The researcher informed each respondent about the purpose of the study

The questionnaire did not contain any questions detrimental to the self-interest of respondents

The questionnaire will not contain the names of respondents

Respondents' anonymity was maintained

The researcher thanked respondents who participated in the study.

CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION

Chapter 2: An overview of succession planning

An overview of succession planning in the public service will be discussed. The components of succession planning together with the internal succession will be discussed in this chapter. Moreover, the influence of succession planning current practices and internal succession barriers on turnover intentions will also be highlighted.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

This chapter will focus on the research methodology used in the study. Sampling techniques, method of data collection and analysis will be dealt with in detail. Reliability and validity issues will also be highlighted.

Chapter 4: Data analysis and interpretation

Analysis and interpretation of the research findings will be dealt with in this chapter and the results obtained in this study will be evaluated against findings from previous studies to substantiate the findings.

Chapter 5: Recommendations and study limitations

This chapter will present the recommendations, based on the main objectives and findings of the study. Limitations of the study and implications for further research will be outlined.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter the background of the study, the problem statement, the purpose of the study as well as the research objectives were outlined. It provided a brief explanation of the research design used in the study, how data were analysed and ethical issues which were applied in the study. Finally, the classification of chapters in the study was provided.

The next chapter, therefore, will provide a review of the literature relevant to the study.

CHAPTER 2

SUCCESSION PLANNING AND TURNOVER INTENTIONS

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

This chapter provides a review of literature on succession planning and its relationship with intention to leave of public sector employees in a developing country. Most organisations have some form of program or plan in place to take care of its rising stars, as such plans have huge results in terms of productivity (Martin & Schmidt 2010:2). Succession planning is one of the most often used catchwords in management meetings of various organisations, which have taken the globe by storm (Bunce 2013:86). Succession planning is a prerequisite for success in all organisations regardless of their size; thus, failure to plan for succession may lead to an organisation's downfall (Durst & Wilhelm 2012:639). In today's environment, many organisations experience performance gap caused by the disparities between organisational expectations and leadership development (Coretchi & Grosu 2011:2).

Succession planning is not a new phenomenon as research in this area has shown an immense increase from the 1970s to the 1990s (Kesner & Sebor 1994:357). There is evidence in the literature that research on planning and management of succession commenced in the 1960s with case studies focusing on antecedents, events, importance and consequences of succession, (Sharma, Chrisman & Chua 2003:1; Giambatista, Rowe & Riaz 2005:964). Formal succession methods were adopted around the late 1960s and early 1970s (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011a:371).

From the 1980s to the 1990s issues such as successor origin and post succession performance were explored (Giambatista *et al.* 2005:964). According to Santora & Sarros (1995:30) it was during the 1980s when the following six succession-related subjects were studied;

Reactions to top management changes

Succession planning

Succession process

Succession consequences

Relationship between the board and succession

Matching managers

SUCCESSION

Succession means transferring properties from one generation to another (Gill 2013:76). It refers distinctively to who will lead the organisation in the future (Comini, Paolino & Feitosa 2013:36). According to Handler (1994:134), succession is a multi-staged process, which exists over time and its success is not solely dependent on the top management but the organisation as a whole. During the process of leadership succession, a new leader inherits all the rights and responsibilities of the key position (Hutzschenreuter, Kleindienst & Greger 2012:731).

For succession to yield positive outcome it ought to be carefully planned, as failure to do so leads to lack of progress and power struggle among stakeholders which consequently may have adverse result on organisational continuity and performance (Cocklin & Wilkinson 2011:673; Hytti, Stenholm & Peura 2011:562; Filser, Kraus & Mark 2013:257). Unplanned succession can have negative effects on both the financial and non-financial aspects of an organisation (Leisy & Dina 2009:62). The negative effects may include losing key employees and non-financial effects may include low morale of employees (Leisy & Dina 2009:62).

Several studies have explored various factors that influence the succession process and there is a debate on who is the most successful successor between an internal and the one from outside (Kesner & Sabora 1994:330; Giambatista, Rowe & Riaz 2005:965; Gandossy & Verma 2006:9; Zhang & Rajagopalan 2010:457).

Most succession studies raise the issue of the background of the successor as crucial to the succession process itself (Gothard & Austin 2013:274).

Origin of the successor

The origin of the successor became the subject of research from the 1980s and 1990s with most studies at that time focusing on the effect of the successor's origin on the firms' performance (Kesner & Seбора 1994:355). According to Bozer and Kuna

(2013:11), succession entails the selection and appointment of either an insider or an outsider. Some researchers believe that internal successors can perform better than external successors. Altman (2009:72) posits that both have advantages and disadvantages depending on the circumstances. However, Garg and Weele (2012:104) are of the view that both concepts complement each other as promoting from within improves and increases employees career development options, while introducing new talent brings fresh and objective ideas to an organisation.

The choice of a type of succession is determined by the availability of talent in an organisation (Garg & Weele 2012:98). Gothard and Austin (2013:275) identified the under-mentioned types of succession:

Relay succession: Identifying a senior management team member ahead of the succession and provide for the opportunity to understudy the departing leader.

Non-relay inside succession: When a successor is appointed from a pool of internal candidates after a series of internal competitive processes.

An outside succession: Appointing a successor from outside.

A coup d'état: A swift succession planned separately by stakeholders other than the current occupant of a leadership position.

Boomerang: Taking back a former incumbent of a leadership position.

Internal succession

McQuade, Sjoer, Fabian, Nasamento and Schroeder (2007:764) believe that internal staffing is the best option especially for high-level positions. However, the recent economic downturn has pressurised many organisations to opt for internal talent management rather than external talent (McEntire & Greene-Shortridge 2011:273; Whelan & Carcary 2011:675). In succession planning an internal candidate is selected only when s/he is the most qualified and suitable individual for a leadership gap (Galbraith, Smith & Walker 2012:223).

Bunce (2013:87) believes that nurturing talent from within is advantageous as candidates are already familiar with history, culture, values and background of an organisation, even though it can be a disappointment for management when the nominated candidates resign. Fink (2011:675) adds that whilst internal grooming does

not exclude hiring high quality applicants from outside, it has a potential of limiting recruitment faults because the inner aspirant strengths and weaknesses of the successor are known.

Internal development also minimises the costs of recruiting widely, time spent on learning about the organisation and curbs employees' turnover that occurs when an outsider is brought into the organisation (Fink 2011:675). Promoting capable employees from inside is more motivating to other employees and paves a way for a seamless leadership transition (Pennell 2010:280).

Miodonski and Hines (2013:6) differ with other researchers by pointing out that developing talent from within is more expensive than bringing in outside talent. Nonetheless, Cairns (2011:28) ascertain that for organisations that do not have a strong knowledge bench, inner succession may promote favouritism, as choices are few and obvious.

External succession

Some organisations believe in the wise saying that new brooms sweep clean and therefore bring in outside successors for purposes of restructuring (Pollitt 2009:6). Garg and Weele (2012:99) argue that external talent brings in new ideas. Hence their requirement is high where rapid and drastic changes are to be employed because they do not hesitate to implement such radical changes, as they have no relationship with the organisation's prior commitments and employees (Zhang & Rajagopalan 2010:456). This source of talent is required for an organisation that stems from rapidly technological or scientific developing sectors where inside grooming is not possible (Hills 2009:4).

Outside blood comes along with fresh contacts and sources, which may be useful to the organisation (McQuade *et al.* 2007:765). Katz (2012:34) agrees that regardless of the huge knowledge invested in-house, external potential candidates should not be ignored, especially during reorganisation.

External successors are also opted for when the organisational performance is generally low and there are drastic strategic and operational changes that need to be implemented (Hefat & Bailey 2005:50). In addition, Rahman *et al.* (2008:47) state that

an external successor is picked when there is a crisis and rapid changes need to be made in an organisation. Additionally, they are more preferable in small size organisations because they usually do not have sufficient internal talent (Lambertides 2009:647).

According to Hutzschenreuter *et al.* (2012:737), another reason for preference of outside talent may be that of changed ownership, where the new owners follow and believe in a different organisational strategy. In addition, Gandossy and Verma (2006:37) argue that opting for outsiders in succession does not only involve costs but also minimises the prospects that the new incumbent will succeed. Altman (2009) further affirms that external successors are engaged when there are no obvious internal candidates.

On the contrary, Ghosh, Satyawadi, Joshi and Shadman (2013:289) are of a view that bringing in a stranger can hamper performance because they have to go through the learning curve in understanding the philosophy of the organisation. Gandossy and Verma (2006:37) put forward that recruiting from outside is dangerous because it makes internal employees feel as if they are incompetent and/or unvalued, thus they become unenthusiastic and inactive. Finally, Helfat and Bailey (2005:78) conclude that external succession could have both negative and positive outcomes, depending on the approach used to implement it.

SUCCESSION PLANNING

The literature provides many definitions of succession planning (SP). According to Garman (2004:120), SP is a structured process involving the identification and preparation of a pool of potential successors to assume new roles.

Reid (2005:36) defines SP as a continuous process to ensure individual career development to optimise the organisation's current and future needs.

Jarrell and Pewitt (2007:298) provide a more comprehensive definition by describing SP as an ongoing, purposeful and systematic identification of qualified and appropriate successors to leadership with commitment or aim of assessing, developing and investing in organisational leadership to enhance performance, development and preparedness.

From the three definitions, it is clear that SP is structured in nature, as Ali and Babu (2013:3) points out that it provides an organised approach to talent development and management. The SP definition also has an element of high potential development, which according to Brunero, Kerr and Jastrzab (2009:577) means preparation of a group of possible candidates in succession planning initiatives.

Importance of succession planning

Generally, SP is a fundamental structure that takes into account an organisation's resources for the protection and development of high potential employees (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011a:371). Garavan, Carbery and Rock (2012:7) refer to high potentials as those employees who consistently deliver strong results credibly, master new types of expertise quickly, have the drive to achieve excellence and are continually learning in the workplace. SP is about having a plan that will ensure that there is a right number and appropriate quality of key people in key positions to cover for any termination which may be created in the future (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011b:38).

According to Pennell (2010:281), SP is not about predetermining who will be promoted into a particular position but a technique of ensuring that organisations have personnel in place when leadership vacancies occur. Jarrell and Pewitt (2007:298) put forward that in SP, apart from putting the right people in the correct seats, the wrong ones are put aside.

The element of preparation is entailed in SP as it soothes the handing-over of the control of business to others in a way that is least disruptive to the business operations and values (Sikomwe & Mhonde 2012:232). For that reason, it entails other crucial change facets such as financial, legal and psychological aspects, which are often neglected (Filser *et al.* 2013:257).

The fact that SP is a process means that it takes time and is a continuous and not a once off exercise (Durst & Wilhelm 2012:639; Ganu & Boateng 2012:70). It is in the implementation of SP where current and future organisational needs are aligned to strategic objectives, thereby improving performance (Jacobson 2010:358). According to Jarrell and Pewitt (2007:297), the optimisation of the organisational needs referred to in SP means meeting the most critical needs of the organisation.

Succession planning process

There is consensus in the literature that SP is not a once off activity but a long-term proactive process, which ensures continuity in key positions within an organisation (Rothwell & Poduch 2004:405; Boateng & Ganu 2012:70). Pennell (2010:282) states that succession planning differ from other plans because it ensures that positions are associated with the strategic plan and not simply the replacement of the departing person. Additionally, there is no one way of undertaking the process of SP; each organisation should find a fitting design to match its culture, history, politics, union issues, resources, budget and community concerns. However, selection and training of employees together with evaluation of the programme cannot be ignored (Jarrell & Pewitt 2007:298).

In order for the plan to yield rewarding results it should take three to five years to avoid conflicts because if it takes longer than five years some stakeholders may come up with totally different and varying ideas from the original plan about the organisations future (Filser *et al.* 2013:260; Taylor 2013:17).

Assessment of future organisational needs/organisational analysis

Before embarking on SP, human resource (HR) professionals have to conduct an organisational analysis, which entails assessment of the current and future organisational data and needs (Freyens 2010:267). It provides the indication of what the organisation has, and what is needed for the future (Hewitt 2009:182). It consists of an estimate of the challenges, needs, and strategies that might influence operations in three to five years time (Hills 2009:4).

Oimstead (2012:682) states that organisations should be very sincere in establishing the strengths and weaknesses of the organisation, as well as the focus areas. During this analysis, competencies needed to achieve organisational goals are identified (Seymour 2008:5). Sharma and Bhatnagar (2009:120) posit that this activity not only identify tools necessary to attain organisational goals, but also serve as a yard stick to mapping out globally and environmentally required expectancies of employees from the organisation.

When analysing the organisation, the competitors' competency power should be included in order to avoid brain drain (Appelbaum, Gunkel, Benyo, Ramadan, Sakkal & Wolff 2012:282).

Identification of high potential employees

If organisations fail to establish high potential successors early in their careers, they will suffer an unrecoverable situation of immature leaders (Coretchi & Grosu 2011:10). Consequently, this stage entails a thorough competency-based evaluation of an employee to discover likely successors and future leaders (Stadler 2011:266). Similarly, Sharma *et al.* (2003:3) state that the succession process entails the detection of a pool of possible successors, assigning and alerting them and other stakeholders about the decision. To get the best candidates, organisations should evaluate them against clearly specified leadership roles (Katz 2012:34).

It is the responsibility of top management and HR departments to identify future critical potential candidates for key positions (Farashah, Nesehifar & Karahrudi 2011:3606). This activity can be achieved by using tools such as psychometric assessments, which identify the skills and capabilities that an employee possesses (Seymour 2008:5). Another way of identifying leaders is through informational interviews and focus groups made up of management and performance management exercises spearheaded by HR professionals (McEntire & Greene-Shortridge 2011:273). Job rotation can result in the spotting of talented employees whose performance is outstanding (Hor, Huang, Shih, Lee & Lee 2010:530).

The individual candidates profiles can be used to spot suitable high performers who can be included in SP (Kang 2011:267). Competent candidates can be provided with forms that will make them express interest and commitment (Pennell 2010:282). In addition, self-assessment documents, which entail updated resumes, strengths, developmental needs, career goals and opportunities can be used by giving them to potential successors in order to select the most suitable candidates (Sharma & Bhatnagar 2009:128).

This activity can be influenced negatively by human resource management (HRM) practices that are improperly administered such as biased appraisals, social and geographic distance and cultural change (Swales 2013:36). The three qualities that

depict rising stars, namely ability, engagement and aspirations can also be used to select potential successors (Martin & Schmidt 2010:4).

Identification of critical positions

This is a step whereby all management levels should be involved and more emphasis is put on those positions that are essential for the long-term success of the organisation (Barnett & Davis 2008:728). The identification of crucial positions encompass the classification of positions within the organisation in terms of those positions that the organisation cannot operate without, those that are critical only now, and those that the organisation can function efficiently without (Sharma & Bhatnagar 2009:121). Kowalewski, Moretti and McGee (2011:100) categorised these positions according to their roles or functions:

Strategic: Roles that are vital for driving the organisation's long-term objectives and occupants of such positions possess specialised knowledge and skills

Core/engine of the organisation: Roles that are exceptional to the organisation and centre to delivering its services or and products

Requisite: Roles that are important to the organisation but they could be delivered through alternative staffing strategies

Non-core: This refers to positions in which employees possess skills that are no longer relevant to the organisation's mission.

The inclusion of all positions that are vital for the success of the organisation is significant in order to avoid succession havoc (Gandossy & Verma 2006:39).

Identification of competencies key to critical positions

Pennell (2010:282) refers to competencies as individual capabilities that can be linked to enhancement of performance. There is an old proverb, which states, "if you do not know what you are looking for, you will never know when you find it", hence it is essential to assess the skills required to perform in a leadership position (Coretchi & Grosu 2011:4). This entails defining the significant leadership skills at all management levels (Dai, Tang & DeMeuse 2011:366). When spotting key competencies the meaning of success on a management level should be clearly outlined (Fink

2011:675). This stage involves defining the competency framework relevant for the organisational growth (Sharma & Bhatnagar 2009:120).

The competencies can be established through workplace forums where employees depict those qualities that they find critical for key positions in the organisation (Kleinsorge 2010:67). The 360-degree competency ratings can also be used in identifying noteworthy competencies needed to perform in critical positions (Dai *et al.* 2011:370).

Assessing candidates competencies/ conducting a gap analysis

Gap analysis is the matching of the supply estimates with the demand projections; therefore, in this case the employee's skills and experience will be evaluated against the skills and experience required to execute the duties of a key position (Freyens 2010:267). The aim of this assessment is to identify the existing gaps between the current situation and the desired position (Bunce 2013:89).

In succession planning, qualities of potential successors are explored (Chima 2013:273). This assessment in SP is done in order to compare the employees' strengths, skills gap and developmental needs with the organisational needs, values and strategies (Jarrell & Pewitt 2007:300).

Selecting the training and development activities

Since succession targets people early in their careers, SP needs to determine and indicate which kind of training and experience each succession candidate need to be a successful leader (Hor *et al.* 2010:528). Training sometimes is referred to as precise job activities (Fink 2011:675). Subsequently, training offered may be a formal training programme or an unstructured on-the-job training, which may be accomplished through internal strategies such as mentoring (Handler 1994:148). Training and development methods vital for succession planning, among others include mentoring, cross-training, job sharing, job rotation and professional development (Goodman *et al.* 2013:4). The aforementioned programmes, among others improve the candidates' supervisory skills, which enable them to execute new challenging roles (McCallin & Frankson 2009:42).

Seymour (2008:3) reinforces that job rotation in succession planning can reveal hidden talents, skills and abilities from employees, as they display their diverse skills and abilities in different roles in which they are rotating. Research also shows that apart from providing employees with diverse skills, job rotation can facilitate the transfer of organisational culture and broaden candidates' organisational knowledge (Whelan & Carcary 2011:680; Swailes 2013:34).

The rotation activity provides diverse challenges and it broadens the applicant's abilities from providing strong direction in the face of vagueness to managing the turnaround of an existing organisation. Job rotation also enables candidates to gain knowledge about overcoming resistance and incompetency (Fink 2011:677). It, therefore, is regarded as an excellent tool for developing high potential employees (Fulmer, Stumpf & Bleak 2009:19). Pennell (2010:287) posits that other benefits of job rotation include increased innovation, productivity and devotion. Foremost, it upgrades employees' skills, hence enhancing enthusiasm and devotion, and decreases turnover intent (Seden, Schimmoeller & Thompson 2013:302).

Mentoring plays an important part in the career development of an employee (Handler 1994:148). It is one of the leadership development techniques used by organisations to achieve their goals (Reid 2005:37). It entails discussion about career planning, assessment of core strengths and areas of improvement and development of leadership competencies (Groves 2007:244).

It is defined as a deliberate pairing of a more skilled and experienced person with a less skilled and experienced person with a mutually agreed goal of having the skilled person grow and develop specific competencies (Reeves 2010:62). It is a long-term SP strategy, which needs support and diligent management effort (Renihan 2012:141).

Mentoring encompasses regular interaction and communication between the more skilled and less skilled employee, hence the less skilled employee has to trust the more experienced employees (McEntire & Greene-Shortridge 2011:273; Craig, Allen, Reid, Riemenschneider & Armstrong 2012:4). The interaction enhances motivation and commitment and ascertains that more experienced employees' skills are retained within the organisation (Whelan & Carcary 2011:682).

Durst and Wilhelm (2012:639) articulate that mentors should be motivated in some ways in order to allow information sharing with co-workers to flow smoothly. One way of encouraging this knowledge sharing is by improving relations between various generations through recognising and appreciating each employee's value within the organisation (Appelbaum *et al.* 2012:283).

Bunce (2013:89) asserts that incumbents of key positions within organisations should be involved in the mentoring programs of their successors. This ensures that future leaders are introduced to knowledge and experience acquired through the years (Fulmer *et al.* 2009:20). On the other hand, coaching is crucial in SP, as apart from achieving organisational goals it assist individuals to become what they want and attain what they desire (Seymour 2008:4).

Another approach of equipping potential leaders is giving them the opportunity to spearhead a project crucial to a leadership position where they are given more responsibilities than a current leader and have autonomous authority, in order to test their leadership skills (McEntire & Greene-Shortridge 2011:274).

Role models (managers involve those reporting to them directly in daily work and challenges) can be included in a succession plan as a development strategy (Appelbaum *et al.* 2012:282). This enables possible successors to learn from those who lead them (Renihan 2012:140).

This activity in SP does not only benefit the organisation, but also the individual because it boosts self-confidence, thereby increasing the possibility of self-belief (McCallin & Frankson 2009:41). It also ascertains that the organisation has both the current and future supply of talent to meet strategic objectives (Garavan *et al.* 2012:6). It contributes to an organisation's overall performance and effectiveness (Rahman & Nas 2013:567).

According to Ali and Babu (2013:3), other leadership development practices, which can be utilised in succession planning, are:

Formal development program: It consists of classroom seminars covering basic theories and principles of leadership

360° feedback:	A multi-source feedback from peers, direct reports, supervisors and multiple stakeholders outside the organisation
Executive coaching:	An activity aimed at solving specific problems
Job assignments:	This is helpful to managers in learning about building teams, being better strategic thinkers, and gaining valuable persuasion and influence skills
Mentoring programmes:	Pairing of junior employees with senior employees
Networking:	This type of activity includes interaction between a group executives and managers who have common training or job experiences
Reflection:	This involves activities such as writing journals, small group discussions and individual sharing with a learning partner.

McMurray, Henly, Chaboyer, Clijton, Lizzio and Teml (2012:368) point out that for leadership to be fully developed, all stakeholders such as the community should be involved. Leadership development refers to the developing of every member in the organisation (Moorosi 2013:2). Figure 2.1 demonstrates leadership development programmes in association with other organisational components as well as training strategies and valuation methods of such training.

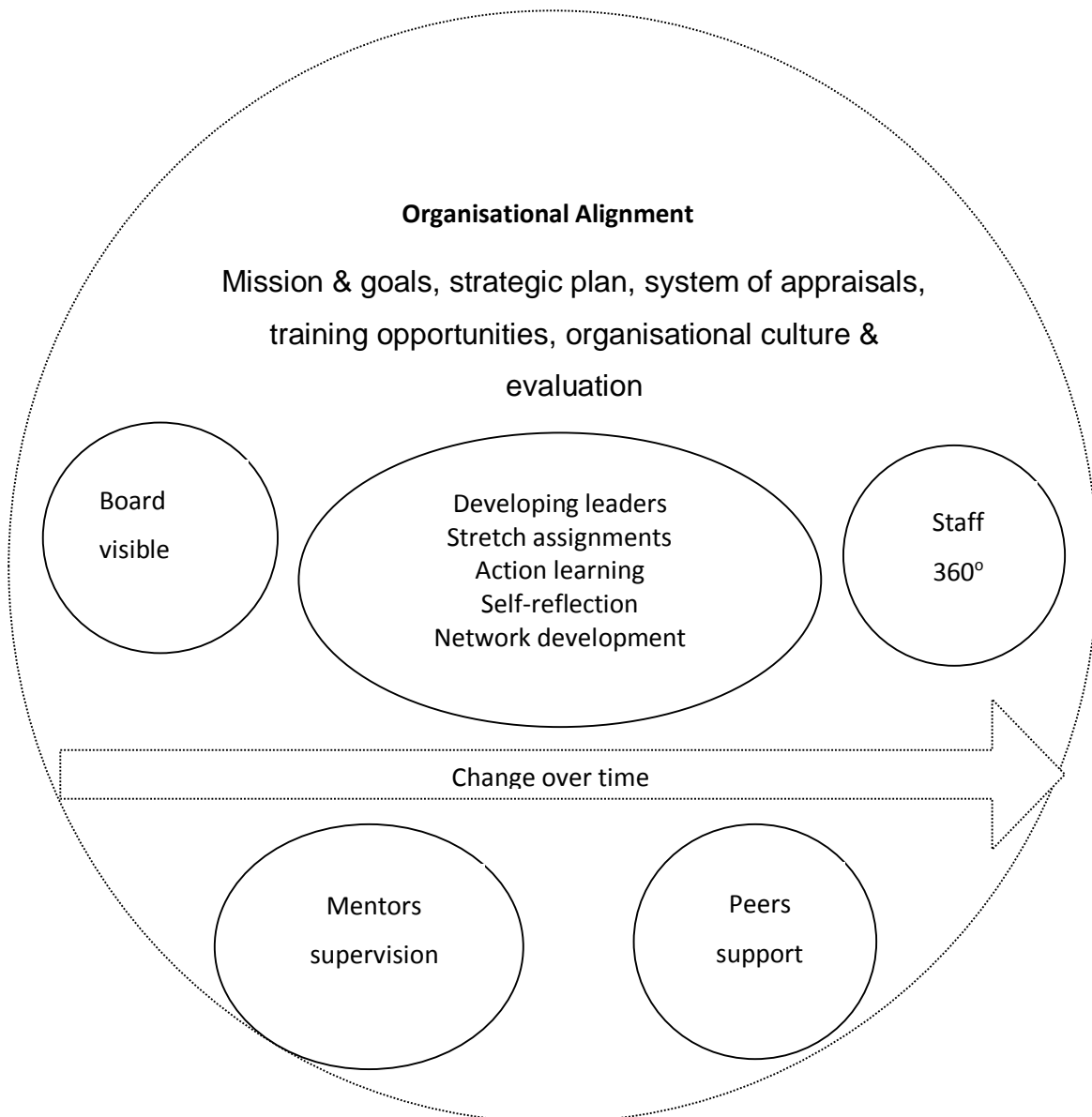


Figure 2.1: Leadership development programmes

Source: Gothard & Austin 2013:279).

Monitoring and evaluation of the process

The last step in the succession process, illustrated in Figure 2.2. is monitoring and evaluation. In order to effectively monitor and evaluate the succession process, annual goals should be established (Stadler 2011:266). It is at this stage where succession charts are used to monitor and evaluate individual candidates' performance against set standards and the charts contain the leadership position and names of possible successors (Bunce 2013:89).

The aim of SP is to establish the best perfect candidate as not all potential candidates can be considered for the one key position. Evaluation is an approach to ascertain that the said aim is achieved (Bunce 2013:89). It also assesses the plan against the set organisational strategic goals (Swailes 2013:42).

Pennell (2010:282) insists that the succession plan should include frequent evaluation of the progress of individuals in the succession pool and how the plan will be adjusted continually to suit individual developmental needs. Santora and Sarros (2012:10) add that plans such as SP should be evaluated on an annual basis or as and when the situation demands.

Continually monitoring the program minimises surprises that may hamper the progress of the programme because a small change or divergence by either the incumbent, potential successor or other stakeholders from the succession planning process may cause its implementation of succession to stall (Hytti *et al.* 2011:572).

Evaluation is important in succession planning as it determines the effectiveness of the practice and its outcomes (Ali & Babu 2013:12). Evaluation entails the organisation examining what is working and what is not and making necessary adjustments (Jacobson 2010:370). To establish the success of succession plans promoters should frequently seek feedback from all those involved (Jarrell & Pewitt 2007:301).

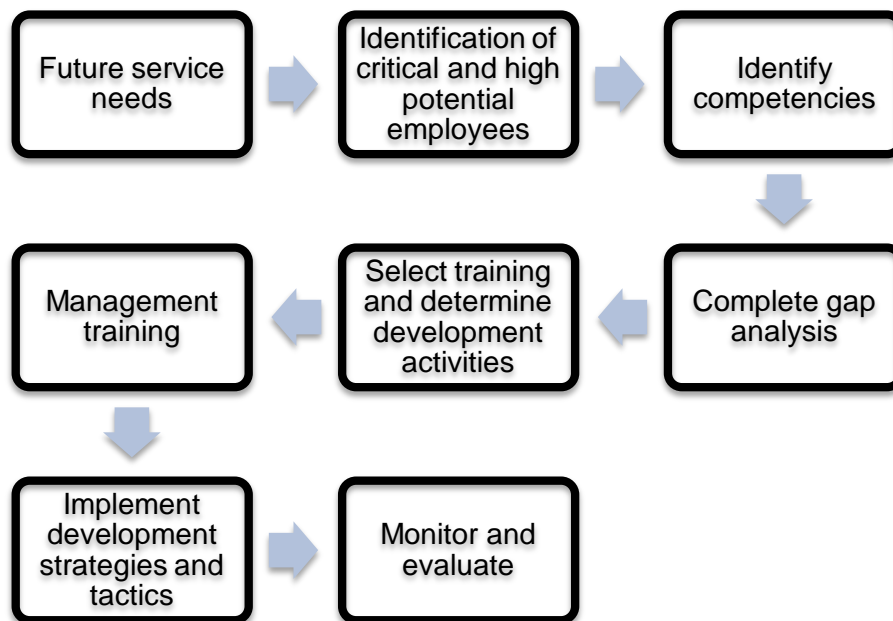


Figure 2.2: Summary of the succession process

Source: Ibarra (2005:20)

Measurement tools for succession planning include the under-mentioned (Gandossy & Verma 2006:43):

The extent to which leadership job openings can be filled from internal pools

Average number of qualified candidates per leadership position

Ethnic and gender diversity in promotions.

Number of positions with two or more ready candidates

Percentage of high potentials that complete development plans

Attrition rate from the succession pool.

Comini *et al.* (2013:36) indicated that the succession process might seem easy and clear; however, the trick lies in its implementation. Mathur (2011:51) indicated that successful organisations develop a succession planning model in order to source appropriate successors. The model has to reflect a sequence of activities that are divided into phases as shown in Figure 2.3.

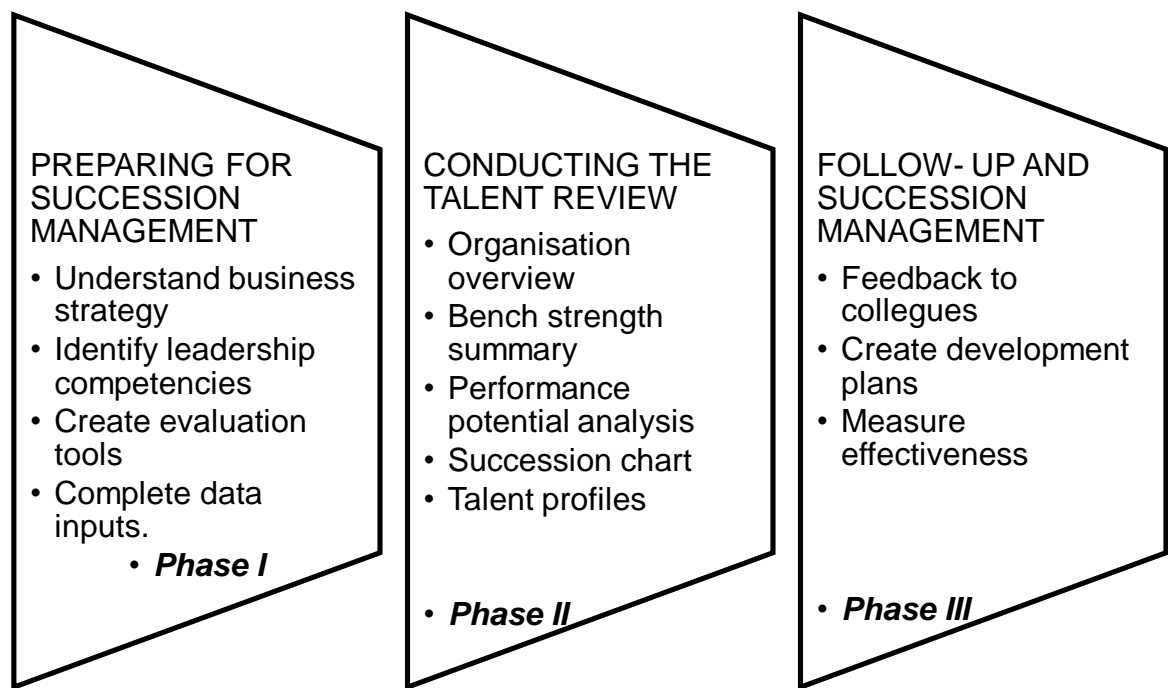


Figure 2.3: Succession planning model

Source: Mathur (2011:51).

Phase I: Identification of crucial succession and replacement roles and define the competencies required to achieve such roles

Phase II: Assessment of people in accordance with the established competencies

Phase III: Employees who are ready for promotion to key positions are developed and evaluated accordingly.

Key concepts for succession planning

The following constructs that are associated with SP are discussed in the next sections: replacement planning, succession management, leadership, performance and recruitment.

Succession planning and replacement planning

According to Kesler (2002:3), most organisations still regards SP as similar to replacement planning. Consequently, replacement planning is the process of identifying internal short-term and long-term emergency backups to fill critical positions (Rothwell 2011:88; Ali & Babu 2013:2). Executive replacement means planning for senior level backups while SP is proactive and attempts to ensure the continuity of

leadership by cultivating talent from within the organisation through planned developmental activities (Rothwell & Poduch 2004:413). Succession planning is usually confused with replacement planning because they are compatible and often overlap (Rothwell 2011:89). However, Wright (2012:21) clarifies that replacement planning is similar to an emergency plan, which provides replacement to cover for immediate loss of a leader, and it is just a component of a full comprehensive succession plan.

Mooney, Semadeni and Kesner (2013:12) and Stadler (2011:265), posit that sometimes replacements are used in times of crisis or organisational development such as when an experienced and talented employee leaves the organisation with immediate effect. Replacement planning varies from succession planning in that the latter focuses on anticipated organisational needs per level and it is not based upon reaction to sudden events, but proactively securing the HR needed by the organisation (Hor *et al.* 2010:529).

Succession planning process is viewed as a continuum (Table 2.1), which consists of replacement planning, succession planning and succession management. Mateso (2010:29).

Table 2.1: Succession planning continuum

	Replacement planning	Succession planning	Succession management
Identification of successors	Yes	Yes	Yes
Development of successors	Little or none	Yes	Yes
Managerial levels	Two or three	Two or three	All

Source: Mateso (2010:29).

The continuum replacement planning, only identifies successors for two or three levels and no developmental activities are done. Succession planning is in the middle as it

identifies successors for two or three managerial level and then develops them. Lastly, succession management is very comprehensive because successors are identified and developed for all managerial levels.

Succession planning and succession management

Succession management is the extension of SP, which originated from replacement planning to include a broader spectrum (Rothwell 2011:89). It is described as a formal, holistic, strategic, consistent and reliable process, which aims to build and supply talent throughout an organisation (Gothard & Austin 2013:276). It is more encompassing than SP and involves the ongoing developmental flow of a group of well-prepared, contextually-sensitive, dedicated leaders who are available for promotion whenever needed (Fink 2011:673).

Succession planning entails matching the organisation's long-term leadership requirements with highly suitable and qualified individuals, whilst succession management is an organised method of managing and continually developing the identified talented individuals in the organisation to ensure continuity of leadership (Reid 2005:36; Detuncq & Schmidt 2013:32). Succession management includes revision of recruitment policies, management of employees, on-going training and development of employees, retention strategies, compensation packages and performance management (Fredericksen 2010:53).

Succession planning and talent management

Knowledge is the most important asset of every organisation because of its intangible nature and personal attachment. However, organisations have various views on how to preserve it and the intentions attached to such restoration (Whelan & Carcary 2011:675). Talent management (TM) is described as a process of attracting, developing and retaining the best people (Leisy & Dina 2009:58; McDonnell, Lamare, Gunnigle & Lavelle 2010:152; Rothwell 2011:90; Garavan *et al.* 2012:5). It includes all the mentioned organisational activities for ensuring that the best employees occupy organisational strategic positions (Vaiman, Scullion & Collings 2012:926).

Talent management, which sometimes is called human capital management, involves the inclusion and communication with all managers at all levels (Koketso & Rust

2012:2222). Detuncq and Schmidt (2013:31) refer to talent management as an integrated process, which includes a group of functions executed for a similar purpose, which is usually that of increased productivity. According to Standler (2011:264), talent is a total of various constructs including an individual's abilities, skills, knowledge, experiences, intelligence, judgment, attitudes, character, drive, ability to learn and grow and he views succession planning as one of the talent managing strategies within organisations. Noted as much, talent management is managing all the previously mentioned intangible resources (Leisy & Dina 2009:59).

Pruis (2011:207) stipulates that talent management is embedded in the following five principles:

Formulation of a clear talent management policy

Establishment of talent management development processes

Identify of talent management outcomes

Create an environment for mentoring

Assessment of the talent pool.

Succession planning as a talent management strategy is practiced by many organisations; however, many have not formalised it (McDonnell *et al.* 2010:152). Talent management focuses on every employee in the organisation, whereas succession planning targets high potential employees (Swailes 2013:35).

Succession planning and leadership

In the literature there are many leadership definitions, however, Cater III and Justis (2010:564) describe it concisely as the process of influencing the activities of an organised group to achieve its planned objectives and goals. It entails an intention to influence others to follow one's actions devotedly (Mierke 2014:70). Similarly, Bozer and Kuna (2013:10) stipulate that the leadership role of top management in every organisation is to achieve the mission through integrated strategies and resource acquisition. In the context of succession planning, leadership refers to the process of developing and communicating a vision for the future, motivating people and gaining their commitment and engagement (Altman 2009:74).

Leadership is a very crucial element for organisations, especially during times of uncertainty and change; therefore, it is important to plan for succession so that the vision and mission of the organisation are continually realised (Kang 2011:265). Principles of sustainable leadership include power, duration, extent, social justice, diversity, creativity and preservation (Fink 2011:672).

Effective organisations do not wait for the future to come, but rather create it by devoting their time in identifying, developing and retaining future leaders and managers (Ibarra 2005:19). Once top performers are retained, succession planning makes opportunities available for them (Katz 2012:34). Freyens (2010:271) reveals that leadership is not only acquired by formal training such as workshops and seminars, but it can also be attained through on-the-job training such as mentoring and coaching.

Leadership development as a component of succession planning is not a once-off activity, but a long-term continuous exercise, which needs the support and dedication of management to achieve the organisational mission and goals (Groves 2007:256; Brunero *et al.* 2009:577; Coretchi & Grosu 2011:1). Bush (2011:188) also asserts that leadership development should not therefore be only for emergencies as it supports the belief of growing your own leaders.

Leadership plays a pivotal role in the completion of succession planning (Wright 2012:22). Kesner and Sebor (1994:341) affirm that a good successor should possess leadership qualities. Stoll and Temperley (2009:17) assert that a rapidly changing world requires leaders with the ability to prepare the younger generation to fight challenges as they occur. McEntire and Greene-Shortridge (2011:267) also outline that innovative leaders in organisations are crucial due to the increasing competition among organisations because of the economic crisis.

Succession planning can be positively influenced by servant leadership in that employees are regarded as followers and their development results in them embracing and committing to the organisation (Dingman & Stone 2007:143).

SP is a tool to create and sustain a strong leadership, as it finds and develops appropriate people for leadership positions (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011b:37). It is during this process when organisational leadership profiles are updated through the

vision and organisational strategic plan (Coretchi & Grosu 2011:8). SP ensures smooth transition of leadership (Klein & Salk 2013:336). Building leadership capacity aids organisations to sustain lasting brilliance in the organisation (Fink 2011:672).

SP assists in preparing the organisation to meet its current and future leadership needs (Wright 2012:20). However, most leaders fail to find a suitable successor to take care of the legacy and successes they leave behind (Porkiani, Beheshtifar & Moghadam 2010:736). The fact that SP assists in filling the leadership void in organisations; its absence leads to compromised leadership stability (McCallin & Frankson 2009:41).

Succession planning and performance

SP is a tool used for performance continuity in organisations (Hytti *et al.* 2011:562), Kesner and Sebor (1994:357) indicate that SP impact on performance is determined by the measuring instrument used to measure performance. The effects of SP on performance also are influenced by how it (performance) is defined (Lambertides 2009:649). Jarrell & Pewitt (2007:299) posit that SP does not only improve performance but also promotes accountability in the workplace.

Avanesh (2011:6) found that there is a significantly positive relationship between SP and performance. Additionally Farashah *et al.* (2011:3606) state that SP leads to enhanced individual and departmental performance because it boosts job satisfaction. Consequently, if all stages and steps in the planning of succession are followed accordingly, it will eventually lead to improved performance (Bunce 2013:90).

Succession planning is related negatively to performance in the sense that when an experienced high ranking official leaves office, the organisation struggles to replace such an officer, hence performance or productivity is affected adversely (Leland, Carman & Swarts 2012:44).

Lussier and Sonfield (2012:17) concluded that the technique used to transmit leadership influences the performance of the business across generations. Similarly, Ballinger and Marcel (2010:272) found that in organisations where succession planning is not practiced, when a CEO departs and an interim CEO is appointed, organisational performance consequently decreases.

Succession planning and recruitment

Succession planning starts immediately after offering an individual a position (Kesner and Sebra 1994:360). Succession begins when recruiting employees into the organisation (Wright 2012:21). Therefore, it is crucial for organisations to identify and scrutinise the skills, abilities and knowledge required for a particular position when recruiting so that suitable and appropriate candidates are employed (Freyens 2010:270). Bunce (2013:86) articulates that it serves as the yardstick for the organisation to recruit or hire appropriate talent.

If administered properly, an SP exercise will decrease recruitment costs (Brunero *et al.* 2009:577). SP also leads to the attraction of highly capable employees as employees prefer to work for an organisation that is committed to providing opportunities for growth (Pennell 2010:283). Recruitment can be used as a strategy to enhance SP where there is no sufficient workforce to be developed internally (Whelan & Carcary 2011:677).

Levels of succession planning

Galbraith, Smith and Walker (2012:223) pointed out that succession planning is implemented in three levels (Figure 2.4).

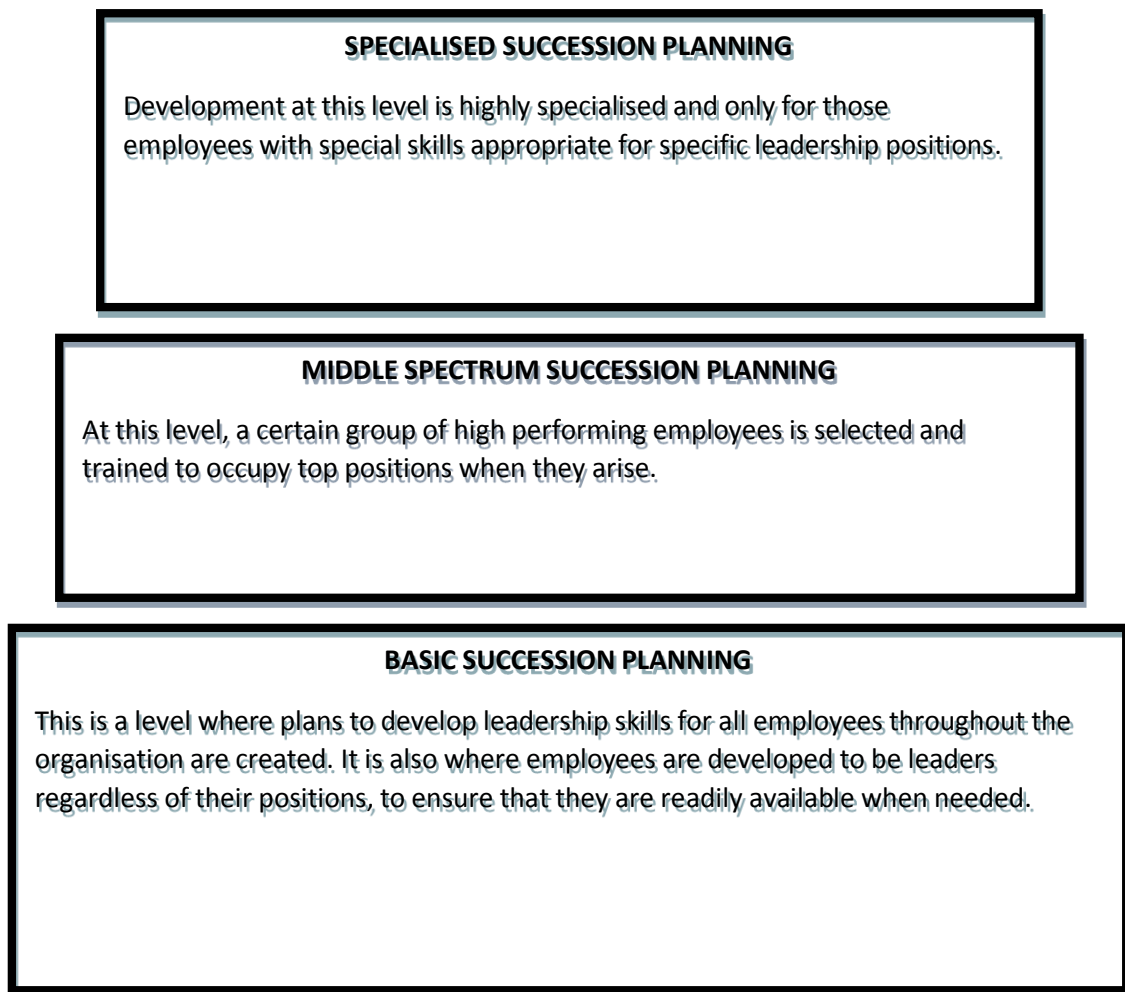


Figure 2.4: Levels of succession planning

Source: Galbraith *et al.* (2012:223).

THE AGING WORKFORCE IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

Researchers and scholars are in consensus that the retirement of baby boomers has affected all sectors, professions and industries (Hewitt 2009:181: Bush 2011:181). Studies conducted by Appelbaum *et al.* (2012:282) and Cunningham, Frauman, Ivy, Perry and Tang (2012:335) show that the workforce today is composed of the following;

Silent generation consist of individuals born before 1946

Baby boomers born 1946-1964

Generation X born 1965-1979

Generation Y/millennial/digital natives' generation born after 1980.

The above difference of generations necessitates SP because the working conditions and environment that the baby boomers have worked in are totally different from what the next generations is experiencing, hence organisations need to rethink their plans and strategies to address this challenge (Pipley 2013:5). Getting this mixed workforce to work together brings its own challenges in the workplace in terms of interpersonal relationships, technology, adoption and work values (Gursoy, Chi & Karadag 2013:40).

The public sector being the sector with huge numbers of baby boomers will face numerous retirements, which necessitate the introduction of replacement techniques such as succession planning (Pynes 2004:394; Ibarra 2005:18; Fredericksen 2010:50; & Jacobson 2010:353).

SUCCESSION PLANNING BEST PRACTICES

Overall practices

An extensive literature review on succession planning revealed the following best practices:

Prepare in advance

Organisations that execute SP harvest positive outcomes and they are successful whilst those that ignore it experience unbearable results (Taylor 2013:16). Kang (2011:266) found that for SP to be effective it should be prepared for well in advance before the exit of key leaders, usually three to five years in advance and a 360-degree feedback performance management system should be utilised to identify candidates. Katz (2012:34) confirms the aforementioned timeframe.

Capture the vision of the company

Since it is a necessity to align succession planning with organisational objectives, it is crucial that the vision and mission of the organisation are captured clearly (Stadler 2011:264). Pennell (2010:282) stipulates that the organisation's strategic plan is the best tool to use to understand the organisational vision, future management and leadership needs. Hills (2009:4) puts forward that knowledge of the vision is critical as it provides organisations with very clear and specific skills that they need to achieve their objectives.

Bringing management on board

Research has shown that for succession planning to thrive in an organisation, there should be high involvement of chief executive officers (CEOs), top management and sufficient human resources function representation (Kesner & Sebor 1994:360). Furthermore, for succession planning to be successful the top management must be on board together with HR professionals who should be facilitating the process (Subramanian & Anjani & 2011:4; Coretchi & Grosu 2011:3). Pennell (2010:283) is of the opinion that the planning process can only be beneficiary if top administrators support it and it is transparent.

Involvement of all stakeholders

Pynes (2004:404), Mehrabani and Mohamad (2011b:38) and Bunce (2013:88) affirm that the heart of a fruitful succession planning is the inclusion of all stakeholders. According to Coretchi and Grosu (2011:8), this will alleviate the possibilities of uncertainties and confusion that go with change and succession planning.

One of the reasons why all stakeholders are included is to ensure that there is a positive relationship between the incumbent and the possible successor to avoid instances where the latter disregards all the work that the incumbent has done, regardless of its value (Durst & Wilhelm 2012:640). It is worth mentioning at this juncture that the obligation to involve all affected parties is not only essential for the incumbent and successor relationship, but for obtaining consensus, managing management-employee conflict and enhancement of ownership of the plan (Appelbaum *et al.* 2012:282). Hytti *et al.* (2011:562) add that the above inclusion eliminates the possibility of a power struggle between all concerned.

Cocklin and Wilkinson (2011:672) found that some of the reasons SP was successful was that all concerned were involved and they understood the process very well, and also their positive attitude toward the leaving principal had a pleasant outcome.

Cairns (2011:32) points out that as much as involvement of all stakeholders is a necessity for a great succession plan, it is imperative to ensure that board members are competent and experienced, so that they provide the required guidance and direction on issues of succession planning.

Establish a plan to develop a talent pool

Winning organisations in succession planning identify and develop a pool of candidates rather than designating an heir apparent for key executive positions (Groves 2007:248). Organisations who want to be successful in SP should be proactive, use systematic flexible job approaches, train employees and make talent spotting a priority at all levels (Hewitt 2009:183).

Align succession plan with other organisational strategy

To harvest the best succession planning outcomes it should be aligned to the overall strategy and embedded in the structure of the organisation, so that gaps of what the organisation have and what it needs to achieve and its goals are identified (Brunero *et al.* 2009:578; Subrahmanian & Anjani 2011:4). Additionally, Ali and Babu (2013:2) confirm that the plan should be in line with already existing leadership development programmes.

Gandossy and Verma (2006:39) believe that those organisations that adapt the incorporation of succession planning into organisational processes yield outstanding outcomes. Nevertheless, the integration and/or alignment of succession plans into organisational strategies are most effective to organisations that have a comprehensive strategic plan in place (Jarrell & Pewitt 2007:298). Santora and Sarros (2012:9) reveal that succession planning must form part of the ready resources waiting to be utilised during unexpected situations. Moreover, it should be aligned with other available human resource programs such as performance management and competency development (Anjani & Subrahmanian 2011:4; Coretchi & Grosu 2011:3).

High level of communication

The plan should be coordinated and communicated across all departments and sections within the organisation, so that all concerned have a sense of ownership of the plan (Bunce 2013:88). Shared roles and accountability should be established in the succession process (Kesner & Sebor 1994:360).

Implement an appropriate plan design

The plan for succession should be designed in such a way that it prepares and develops prospective successors in four knowledge categories, namely technical, threshold competence, leadership and organisational (Durst & Wilhelm 2012:639). Communication will not only smooth the process but mostly will maintain a healthy relationship between the predecessor and successor (Cater III & Justis 2010:565). Comini *et al.* (2013:37) stipulate that an effective succession plan should cover the following transitions:

From a sporadic event to a continuous process

From a short-term replacement strategy to along development and retention strategy

From an emphasis on whom we have to one what we need

From blocking the entrance to positions for an appropriate leadership rotation

From an insufficient workforce to a set of available talents

From a subjective assessment to an emphasis on tangible results and measurement.

Measure performance before and after

Management should ensure that there is a working performance model, leadership competency model and individual plans in order to gain positive results from succession planning (Hor *et al.* 2010:529). The performance model in succession planning ascertains that knowledgeable employees are recognised, as well as their developmental needs (Whelan & Carcary 2011:677).

Prepare high potentials

Organisations that are successful in planning for succession provide employees considered to be high potentials with almost unrestricted access to programmes that speed up their growth (Fulmer *et al.* 2009:19). Martin and Schmidt (2010:3) affirm that management should ensure that these employees are occupied all the time, their goals are identified immediately and linked to that of the organisation and they should be continually monitored. Ali and Babu (2013:12) agree that another way to prepare high performers for succession is to link them with different stakeholders.

Various authors provide their different views of what constitutes the success of succession planning.

Pennell (2010:282) outlines six common features for organisations with flourishing succession plans:

Estimate organisational and leadership needs

Build a list of required competencies

Weigh up the internal talent and identify gaps

Provide growth and expansion opportunities

Assign employees with the accountability of their own plans

Make succession planning a vital part of business planning and evaluate the plan regularly.

Similarly, Gonzalez (2013:413) identified three elements, which can be considered essential for the success of SP:

Bringing all leadership on board with the training programme

The programmes should go beyond an individual

It should involve the entire cohort and the goal of the training must be the development of as much talent as possible.

Galbraith *et al.* (2012:226) provide the following principles of an excellent succession planning process:

Integration into the strategic goals and initiatives

Provision of on-the-job directorship opportunities

Conducting official managerial or leadership training programmes

Provision of specialised training programmes.

Table 2.2 shows elements that contribute to a successful succession planning as stipulated in various studies. There are five activities essential for the succession planning to succeed as stipulated by (Gandossy & Verma 2006:41), namely alignment, commitment, assessment, development and measurement.

Table 2.2: Summary of elements that contributes to successful succession planning

AUTHOR	ELEMENTS OF SUCCESSION PLANNING
Gandossy & Verma	Alignment, commitment, assessment, development and measurement
Pennell	Estimate organisational and leadership needs Build a list of required competencies Weigh up the internal talent and identify gaps Provide growth and expansion opportunities Assign employees with the accountability of their own plans Make succession planning a vital part of business planning and evaluate the plan regularly
Galbraith <i>et al.</i>	Integration into the strategic goals and initiatives Provision of on-the-job directorship opportunities Conducting official managerial or leadership training programmes Provision of specialised training programmes
Gonzalez	Bringing all leadership on board with the training programme The programmes should go beyond an individual It should involve the entire cohort and the goal of the training must be the development of as much talent as possible.

Source: Gandossy & Verma (2006:41); Pennell (2010:282); Galbraith *et al.* (2012:226); Gonzalez (2013:413).

Relationship between the incumbent and successor

SP does not depend solely on how the process should be conducted but rather on the relationship between the predecessor and the successor. For SP to thrive both parties should meet as equals and genuinely discuss all matters of concern with regard to the position in the succession plan (Friel & Duboff 2008:6).

2.5.1.12. Succession planning charts

Most successful organisations use succession planning charts (Figure 2.5.) to plan for succession, where employee needs are assessed according to management levels

within the organisation. Thus, employees are evaluated in accordance with their readiness (Rothwell 2011:89).

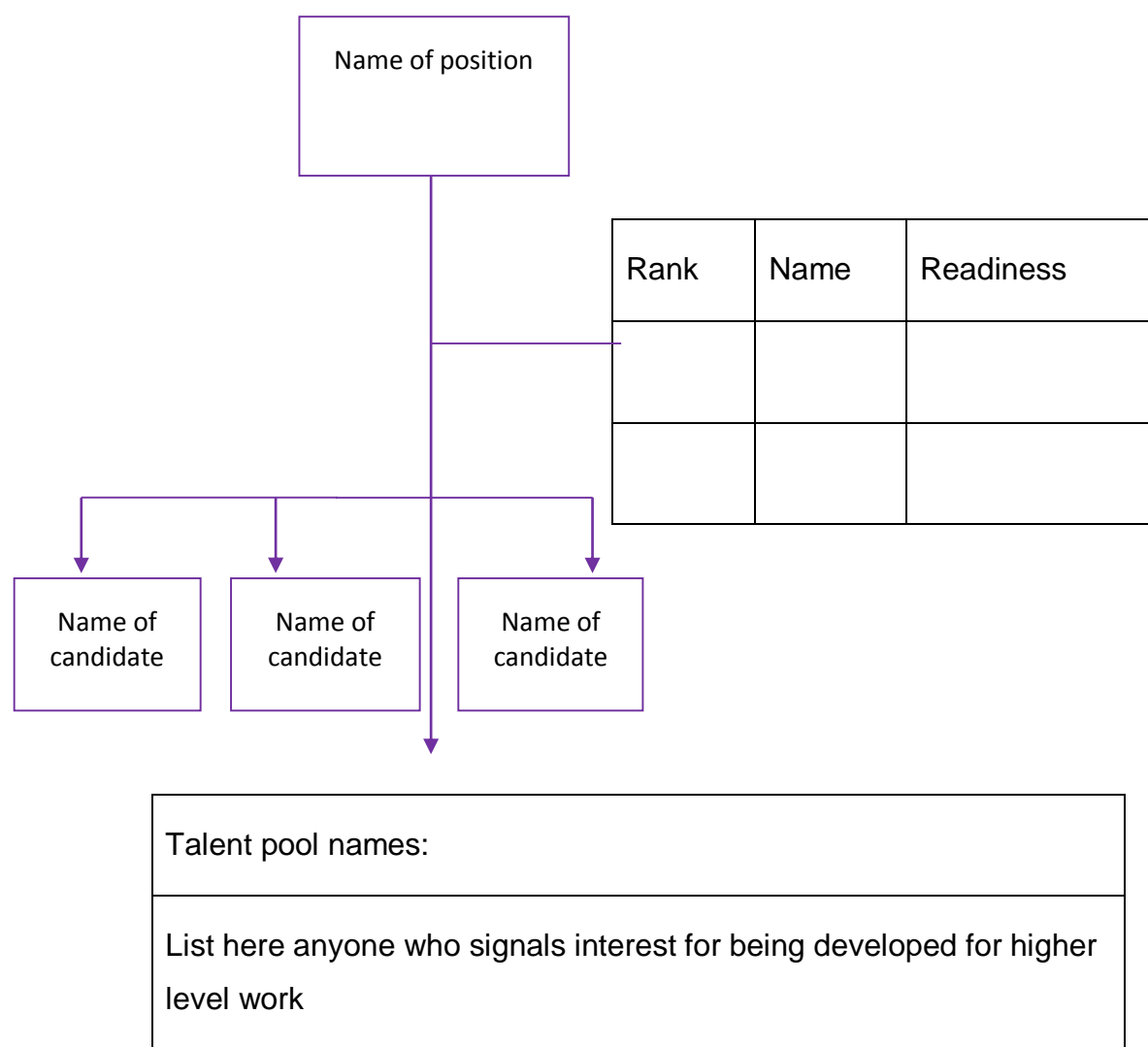


Figure 2.5: Sample of a succession planning chart

Source: Rothwell (2011:90).

Succession planning best practices in the public service

The literature has shown that knowledge sharing plans such as succession plans are equally critical in both the private and the public sectors (Amayan 2013:455). However, presently in the public sector succession planning is mostly practiced in the teaching service and is most successful in countries where teaching services are centralised such as in Singapore (Bush 2011:197). A survey on the implementation of succession planning, carried out in libraries that are members of the Association of Research

Libraries (ARL) in United States of America, indicates that many libraries perceive succession planning as important, but only practice it to a certain extent, that is, they only apply some principles and ignore the others (Galbraith *et al.* 2012:226).

Leland *et al.* (2012:45) reveal that for succession planning to be effective and rewarding in the public service it should be facilitated by an outside private consultant. Additionally, the public service should understand the necessity to know and address factors that influence willingness to share knowledge by employees (Amayan 2013:454).

All stakeholders should be involved early in the process so that its execution will be smooth and yield the expected favourable outcomes, as all parties will have sufficient time to digest the transfer of power and deal with issues that need to be resolved in time (Hytti *et al.* 2012:563).

SUCCESSION PLANNING BENEFITS

Supporters of succession planning cite a number of benefits for organisations that implement it appropriately. Pennell (2010:280) showed that in today's world more organisations are recognising the need for growing leadership in their organisations and preparing capable individuals to assume new roles. Subsequently, talent preservation and expansion is still a major concern for all organisations (McQuade *et al.* 2007:763). Santora and Sarros (2012:9) emphasise that even though an organisation can survive without succession planning now, in the long run such an organisation suffers real negative consequences.

Engaging in any talent development strategies such as succession planning leaves the organisation with a rich legacy of future leaders (Fink 2011:678). Succession planning, therefore, assists in the current and future planning related to transition of policies and activities (Wright 2012:20). If planned and conducted appropriately, it increases the chances of a successful succession process (Sharma *et al.* 2003:3). According to Freyens (2010:264) and Bunce (2013:86), meeting organisational objectives and having the brightest employees across the board is the aim of every workforce planning strategy; therefore, succession planning is no exception, as it fulfils the notion of workforce planning, which affirms having the right people at the right place at the right time with the right skills.

Likewise, it provides satisfaction to employees as it is an opportunity to fulfil one's career and personal objectives (Handler 1994:148). Davidson, Timo and Wang (2010:454) regard succession planning as a solution to employee turnover because it involves investing in individuals through training, therefore, sending a message to employees that they are working for an organisation that cares for them.

It is upon the above basis that succession planning is regarded as a key element in developing and improving the organisational workforce (Brunero *et al.* 2009:576). The labour force is regarded as the main element that ensures the future existence of the organisation (McQuade *et al.* 2007:759).

Succession planning ensures that a sufficient number of highly qualified potential leaders are readily available to assume duties in the organisational future (Farashah *et al.* 2011: 3605; Bunce 2013:86). Altman (2009:74) posits that it is more fulfilling to know that there is readily available talent in times of uncertainty. It counters the negative impact of a vacant leadership position in the organisation (Zhang & Rajagopalan 2010:455). Whelan and Carcary (2011:677) state that the adverse impact is avoided by availing individuals with required competencies and deploying them in accordance with organisational objectives.

The literature indicates that apart from being proactive and anticipating changes, succession planning builds enough reservoirs, as well as preserving the organisation's institutional memory held by veteran employees (McQuade *et al.* 2007:764; Pennell 2010:281).

Putting in place succession planning mechanisms and policies is another approach to preserving talent within an organisation (Perlman 2010:48). It strengthens retention strategies because it enhances employee morale, which encourages them to stay (Fredericksen 2010:55). Mehrabani and Mohamad (2011b:38) posit that succession planning is used as a tool to attract, develop and retain talent within an organisation. It involves safeguarding organisational knowledge in a least costly manner (Klein & Salk 2013:336). Hills (2009:4) also posit that developing internal talent increases retention because employees are provided with an opportunity to grow, which motivates them. Moreover, talent development is an activity that organisations engage in to ensure that there is no brain drain (Garavan *et al.* 2012:6).

Bunce (2013:87) further laments that this type of planning guards against any unforeseen events and potential loss of talent. McQuade *et al.* (2007:764) reinforce that SP is a perfect strategy for eliminating the adverse result of knowledge and experience of people with special skills. Additionally, information from succession planning can also be utilised to develop retention strategies that will retain organisational talent (Pollitt 2009:7).

Succession planning does not only aid after death or retirement of a leader, it also assures continual competitiveness of an organisation in a specific industry (Sikomwe & Mhonde 2012:231). It relieves organisations from the stress of maintaining sustainability in a changing global environment or market (Wright 2012:19). It ensures that the needs of an organisation are catered for even after the unexpected termination of a leader (Ganu & Boateng 2012:71). It alleviates management fears by ensuring that there are sufficient replacements for key people and that after their departure activities continue (Altman 2009:73).

Through succession planning, leadership is renewed because it brings fresh ideas and innovative leaders on board (Seymour 2008:3). Moreover, it serves as a guide for the succession process and leadership continuity (Stadler 2011:266).

Succession planning enhances eagerness for work among employees (Gothard & Austin 2013:274). Additionally, it boosts morale in that employees will be motivated to work for a company that develops them (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011b:38). It further encourages employees who are looking to grow within the ranks of their organisation, thus enhancing retention (Pennell 2010:281).

Succession planning safeguards the organisation against the placement of successors who are favourites of certain leaders because there are set standards for successors and not only one possible candidate is identified, but a group (Renihan 2012:140).

Since succession planning involves thorough development, it is not only about placing the right people at the right place at the right time but also about supporting employees to be aware of their talents, strengths and what they want to become (Duke & Boulanger 2012:417).

Apart from identifying and preparing potential successors, succession planning is important to the organisation because it reveals hidden work experience and skills gaps, hence determining training needs (Pennell 2010:283). Succession planning assists organisations to know the composition of manpower that they have (Pollitt 2009:6). It is one of the attributes of good corporate governance as it ascertains timeous replacements to evade unfavourable repercussions (Cairns 2011:33).

Ali and Babu (2013:3) showed that such plans respond to surprises such as the death of a manager. In accordance with Galbraith *et al.* (2012:223), the knowledge that employees gain from such plans can be utilised both now and in the future. Besides the provision of leadership and/or managerial readiness, succession planning equips participants with specialised know how for specific positions key to the operations of the organisation (Galbraith *et al.* 2012:222)

INTERNAL SUCCESSION BARRIERS

Barriers to succession planning in general

Although research has established the importance of succession planning and its benefits, many organisations still fail to acknowledge and implement it (Santora & Sarros 2012:10). It is a multi-dimensional process that can both be positively or negatively influenced by a variety of variables (Peters, Raich, Mark & Pichcer 2012:47). The factors attributed to unsuccessful implementation of the succession planning process are discussed in the foregoing sections.

Belief that leaders are irreplaceable

In most instances leaders fail to plan for succession consequent to the belief that they are incomparable and the organisation cannot survive without them, and sometimes succession planning ends up being a haphazard development exercise if organisations do not have clearly documented goals why a position should be filled (Cairns 2011:28). The thinking of leaders that they are going to stay in the organisation forever further triggers conflict when they ought to plan for succession (Comini *et al.* 2013:37).

HR professionals

Durst and Wilhelm (2012:640) point out that succession planning becomes a challenge where there is no HR department. If organisations with HR departments are unwilling to give HR professionals the authority to initiate new programmes or to suggest new organisational structures, it becomes an obstacle to the implementation of succession planning (Pynes 2004:404). However sometimes HR professionals are not capable to move HR into a proactive role (Pynes 2004:404; Ganu & Boateng 2012:71).

Resistance to change

Succession planning brings about changes in the organisation, which might require some employees to change their routine and standards of performance, to learn new skills or work with new individuals. Therefore, some may decide to quit or sabotage the process (Pynes 2004:404). Frequently, most leaders fail to plan for the future right at the beginning of their leadership and therefore hesitate to groom people who will take over when they are gone (Gonzalez 2013:409).

False expectation

Some organisations hesitate to engage in succession planning because they are scared of creating false hope and anticipation to employees included in the plan (Cairns 2011:28).

Fear of losing productive employees

In some instances organisations do not want to engage in succession planning as they fear that some high performing employees may be discouraged and leave the organisation once they know that they are not included in the succession plan (Gandossy & Verma 2006:38).

Emotional grief

Succession planning akin to any other change process involves emotions and some leaders' grieving impedes them from facilitating the process (Wright 2012:26). Filser *et al.* (2013:258) confirm that this emotional attachment usually occurs in family business where the head of the family is just not willing to let go. Moreover, emotions and relationships in a workplace complicate SP (Sikomwe & Mhonde 2012:233). Ganu

and Boateng (2012:71) confirm that some leaders believe that their organisations cannot continue without them and planning for succession is compared to digging their own grave or planning their funeral.

Studies have shown that in some instances boards are reluctant to raise the issue of succession planning because it may upset and demoralise a good performing current leader (Mooney *et al.* 2013:3). Hytti *et al.* (2011:563) also affirm that sometimes, concerned parties avoid initiating the planning in fear of losing harmony and privacy.

Fear of leaving the organisation

Most studies refer to failure to plan for succession as a consequence of a strong sense of attachment by incumbents to the organisation, fear of retirement or death, or some are just not interested (Peters *et al.* 2012:47). Taylor (2013:16) articulates that it is difficult to force the generation of baby-boomers to engage in succession planning, as most of them are really scared of retirement due to personal reasons.

Insecurity

McCallin and Frankson (2009:42) concluded that most leaders feel threatened to embark on succession planning as they see it as a strategy that will be disempowering them.

Time demands

Managers sometimes do not spare the time to pursue SP as they claim to be too busy (Ganu & Boateng 2012:71). Mehrabani and Mohamad (2011b:38) ascertain that this is because some leaders simply do not understand its value or impact on the organisation. Practically, most of the management time is spent on the adherence to rules and legislation (Mooney *et al.* 2013:3). SP, as is the case with any HR strategy, needs to be facilitated by HR departments; however, HR professionals seem not to spend enough time on SP (Leland *et al.* 2012:44).

Taylor (2013:16) indicated that succession planning is long in nature because of the range of facets involved in its practice. Cairns (2011:28) then assigns aspects that make it a consuming activity to the forms, charts, long meetings, check lists and deadlines to be met by executives.

Insufficient financial resources

Lack of or insufficient financial resources pose a barrier to many organisations engaging in the succession planning process (Ganu & Boateng 2012:71; Klein & Salk 2013:340).

Generations X and Y reluctance to take leadership positions

The generations that follow the baby boomers, namely generation X and Y are reluctant to take up leadership positions because they do not want to compromise their social lives with pressures and workload of leadership positions (Fink 2011:675). Hytti *et al.* (2011:562) articulates that this unwillingness to engage in high positions can be attributed to constructs such as personal and organisational goals mismatch.

Insufficient engagement in succession

Management fail to engage high performers through briefings on the plan and providing them with an opportunity to make suggestions and recommendations (Martin & Schmidt 2010:7). Sometimes the incumbents of key positions are partly involved and even excluded in the final selection of their own successor (Cairns 2011:28).

Avoiding unpleasant circumstances and criticism

Sometimes organisations ignore SP as a way of avoiding to deal with unfavourable circumstances and criticism, as sometimes SP is necessitated by the ill health of the current incumbent and, therefore, management may be scrutinised for being heartless (Gandossy & Verma 2006:38).

Nature of knowledge itself

Since SP is a knowledge transfer activity it is in some instances hindered by the very tacit nature of knowledge and the fact that knowledge sharing is voluntary may cause some employees to resist sharing their knowledge (Amayan 2013:454).

Job frustrations

Some employees leave their organisations due to frustrations caused by job incompetency as a result of not being mentored or coached well (Koketso & Rust

2012:2226). Job stress has been identified as a major cause for employees who desert organisations (Ahmad, Shahid, Huma & Haider 2012:128).

Barriers to succession planning specifically in the public service

Most governments are doing very little to ensure that the knowledge that the older and experienced workers have is tapped before they leave (Perlman 2010:48). The literature affirms that leaders in the public service are not taking succession planning seriously and are reluctant to adopt it because of the ambiguity of duties in the public sector (Schall 1997:6). However, some high officials hesitate to engage in such an exercise because of a myriad of political reasons (Jarrell & Pewitt 2007:297). Consequently, this mind-set and the under-mentioned are barriers to SP in the public service as stipulated by Jacobson (2010:370):

Insufficient human resources to manage the program

Inadequate time to participate

Organisational culture

Low priority given by senior management

Insufficient financial resources

Lack of mobility of employees

Lack of role models

Inadequate rewards for initiative or risk

Low priority given by elected officials.

More specific barriers in the public service are summarised in the following section.

Elected or appointed top government officials

It is common practice in the public service that top leaders are either elected or appointed for short-term contractual employment, thus hindering the implementation of long-term programmes such as succession planning, as the officials might not be patient enough for systematic changes to occur (Pynes 2004:405; Fredericksen 2010:50). Furthermore, authors of various studies on public service succession planning are in agreement that these top officers

sometimes assume that succession issues are beyond their scope because they are usually given specific mandates and having insufficient knowledge on how to conduct the process (Schall 1997:6; Leland *et al.* 2012:45; Jarrell & Pewitt 2007:298).

Skills transfer and knowledge sharing

Many governments fear that the up-coming generation are too young and do not possess the necessary skill to execute the duties of leadership roles (Goodman *et al.* 2013:2; Appelbaum *et al.* 2012:282). Mostly in the public service a culture of knowledge sharing is not encouraged, hence some public service officers are scared that if they share their knowledge with their juniors they will lose their uniqueness within the service (Amayan 2013:463).

Budgetary constraints

Budgetary constraints which are frequently caused by low or non prioritisation by managers in the public sector and crisis management mentality are detrimental to succession planning (Goodman *et al.* 2013:2; Craig *et al.* 2012:4:7). Another barrier resulting from fiscal limitations is the short upward mobility as some executive positions are abolished making it very difficult to identify successors and replacements (Leland *et al.* 2012:44).

Politicised environment

Many government high officials such as ministers and principal secretaries are appointed on the basis of political inclinations and motives, not on merits, thus hindering the execution of succession planning (Seden *et al.* 2013:302). Consequently, they have difficulties on how succession planning can be carried out in a highly politically-influenced environment (Leland *et al.* 2012:45).

Unwillingness to apply for top positions

Fink (2011:674) found that the unwillingness and desire to apply for leadership positions by capable prospective leaders such as supervisors and middle managers is an obstacle to proper and implementable succession planning.

THEORIES UNDERPINNING SUCCESSION PLANNING

Succession planning is related and located within the framework of the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) as it is a deliberate, reasoned, outcome-focussed activity (Hytti *et al.* 2011:563). This is the extension from the theory of reasoned action (TRA) by including the measures of control and belief (Armitage & Conner 2001:471). The extension is necessitated by the shortfall of the TRA as it can only predict behaviours that are straightforward, not behaviours that leave a person a choice of performing or not performing (Armitage & Conner 2001:472). In TPB the main factor is the individual's intention to engage in certain behaviour, and thus, an intention is a determinant of the actual behaviour (Ajzen 1991:181; Koslowsky, Weisberg, Yaniv & Zatman-Speiser 2012:824). Aladwan, Bhanugopan and Fish (2013:409) further state that an intention is used usually as an indicator of employee turnover itself.

In TPB the desirability of the anticipated outcome to the initiator, acceptability of the outcome by the reference group and the initiator's perception that the behaviour will lead to desired outcome affects the intention and behaviour (Sharma *et al.* 2003:2). Similarly, for succession planning to be embedded in the above theory there should be an initiator who must possess the above attitudes, which in most cases is the chief executive officer (Sharma, *et al.* 2003:1). Additionally, Hytti *et al.* (2011:563) state that succession planning in its nature assumes the principle of intention rationality and it is an ambition-directed activity.

Mejbri and Affes (2012:120) state that in accordance with the theory the possibility that the behaviour, which in this case is succession planning, will succeed, depends on the belief and control on the part of the initiator. Gakure *et al.* (2013:929) affirm that positive outcomes harvested from succession planning relate it to the TPB, where the individual's intention to engage in certain behaviour is determined by the perception that the outcome will be attractive.

TURNOVER

Noor and Maad (2008:95) define turnover as the separation of the employee and the organisation or employer. Koslowsky *et al.* (2012:824) describe it as the voluntary decision of an employee to cut ties with the employer. It includes any movement leading to an employee leaving the organisation and is regarded as the outcome of

failing to preserve talent within the organisation (Koketso & Rust 2012:2223). It is also related negatively to other variables such as responsibility, rewards, team spirit, standards, leadership, and conformity (Subramanian & Shin 2013:1752).

An employee can be removed from office by the employer (involuntary turnover) and he/she can choose to leave the organisation (voluntary turnover) (Lambert & Hogan 2009:98). Aladwan *et al.* (2013:410) confirm that voluntary turnover is optional and the employee makes an individual choice. Mostly employees who leave organisations voluntarily join competing organisations, which in turn use them against their former employers (Ghosh *et al.* 2013:290). Involuntary turnover includes dismissal and layoffs (Caillier 2011:111).

There is a large body of research that concurs with the fact that turnover is generally regarded and treated as a problem that threatens organisations as it is cost related (Noor & Maad 2008:9; Joo & Park 2010: 488; Cho & Lewis 2012:53; Koslowsky *et al.* 2012:824:511; Arshadi & Shahbazi 2013:640; Biron & Boon 2013). These costs include amongst others recruiting and training costs (Yang, Wan & Fu 2012:837). Rahman and Nas (2013:568) add that it does not only relate to expenses but also disruptions to organisational operations. Most importantly, apart from economic costs uncontrolled departures disrupt social and communication structures and adversely impact on the cohesion and commitment of those who are left behind (Bergiel, Nguyen, Clenney & Taylor 2009:205).

Davidson *et al.* (2010:454) and Yang *et al.* (2012:837) affirm that employee turnover is not only associated with tangible monetary cost but also hidden intangible expenses such as loss of skills, inefficiency and replacement costs. Apart from costs, turnover is linked to a mismatch between the organisational or job characteristics and an individual's needs (Groeneveld 2011:596).

Contrary, Ghosh *et al.* (2013:290) state that turnover can be dysfunctional or purposeful. Dysfunctional is when the organisation loses star employees and it becomes functional when the organisation gets rid of poor performers. It can also bear results that are more appealing when poor performers who leave the organisation are replaced with high performing officers (Lee & Jimenez 2011:169).

Intention to leave

Intention to leave (ITL) is defined as a conscious decision to seek other alternative job opportunities in other organisations (Ucho & Mkavga 2012:378). Shih and Susanto (2011:114) and Guchait and Cho (2010:1234) have a similar opinion that the intent to leave encompasses an individual's own estimated probability that they will leave the organisation permanently in future. Therefore, it is complete termination of the employer-employee relationship (Yang *et al.* 2012:838).

An employee with intent to quit engages in cognitive thinking, planning and then the desire to leave the job (Lambert & Hogan 2009:98). Biron and Boon (2013:512) stipulate that such employees who are intending to leave lose interest in their work, thereby negatively affecting performance.

Most studies conclude that ITL is regarded as the best predictor of turnover (Mobley, Griffeth, Hand & Meglino 1979:517; Craig *et al.* 2012:7; Aladwan *et al.* 2013:409). Turnover intentions are further explained as antecedents of three factors, namely intention to search for a different job elsewhere, thoughts of quitting one's job and to actually quit (Helfat & Bailey 2005:255; Rahman & Nas 2013:568). Subramanian and Shin (2013:1752) views it as an independent variable of the actual turnover.

Koslowsky *et al.* (2012:824) point out that ITL is more psychological in nature and therefore less influenced by the external environment. However, it is associated with direct costs such as replacements and indirect costs including low morale, which in turn affects the behaviour (Aladwan *et al.* 2013:408).

Reasons why employees leave

A number of factors have been identified that can influence employees' ITL. It is the aim of this study to explore those factors that are revealed most frequently to have an impact on employees' decisions to leave. It is crucial for employers to know and understand the reasons employees leave their jobs, as such knowledge and understanding will assist them to develop strategies to curb the dilemma (Bergiel *et al.* 2009:205). Generally, labour turnover is caused by retirement, termination, promotion, mergers, acquisitions, internal restructuring, death, disability, unexpected resignation, investigation or indictment (Gothard & Austin 2013:273).

Other reasons for employee turnover are attributed to the following:

Personal characteristics

Individual personal characteristics such as educational level do influence the employees to leave their organisational (Moynihan & Landuyt 2008:120). It affects employees' decision to leave because highly educated employees have a high probability of leaving their jobs as they have variety of opportunities in the external market (Aladwan *et al.* 2013:411). Groeneveld (2011:598) insists that candidates that are more educated are more likely to leave their jobs than other employees are because education is regarded as a form of human capital that can be easily utilised by competing organisations.

Ali and Babu (2013:3) argue that since employees are viewed as human capital it makes them more important than ever as they are regarded as assets to every organisation. Such employees regard themselves as experts and are more willing to accept jobs that are more favourable (Sedan, Schimmoeller & Thompson 2013:307).

To the contrary, Ryan, Ghazali and Mohsin (2011:356) argue that there are other core influences to employee's ITL other than personal characteristics.

Human resource practices

Human resource management seems to be contributing to the majority of problems why employees leave their jobs (Noor & Maad 2008:95; Cho & Lewis 2012:5). This includes an inappropriately administered performance management system as an HR strategy (Lee & Jimenez 2011:171). Seden *et al.* (2013:308) indicate that employees choose to part from their jobs as a result of absence or inappropriate performance evaluation systems, which hinder supervisors' support. This impacts on employees decisions to leave because employees, whose performance is constantly poor, and fearing to be dismissed, may choose to voluntarily leave the organisation (Noor & Maad 2008:9).

Other HR activities that lead to employees leaving their organisations comprise lack of career management and job mismatch (Juhdi, Pa'wan & Hansaram 2013:7).

Where there is an unfair reward system and incentives are not distributed reasonably, employees are likely to quit (Caillier 2011:113). In a study of HR, job commitment and intention to quit the results indicate that there is an inverse relationship between high pay and employee turnover meaning that employees who are highly paid are less likely to leave (Bergiel *et al.* 2009:207).

Guchait and Cho (2010:1241) found that HR practices emerged to be a significant predictor of ITL; that is, when employees have positive perceptions about HR practices thoughts of leaving decreases. Additionally, Bergiel *et al.* (2009:214) found that bad HR practices are related negatively to employees' ITL.

Job design

Factors such as job design and conformity have a great impact on whether employees leave or stay (Lambert & Hogan 2009:99; Juhdi *et al.* 2013:4). Employees leave organisations when their job needs are not satisfied (Bright 2008:149; Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010:626). When employees are content with their jobs, they do not want to quit the organisation (Srivastava 2012:518). High potential employees usually look for more challenges and they need organisations that provide work environments that allow them to explore and broaden their knowledge continually, consequently if not provided with the above they feel unused and they leave (Dysvik & Kuvaas 2010:625). Highly innovative employees get bored with jobs that are routine in nature (Joo & Park 2010:488). These types of employees expect the organisation to give them special attention and if they feel unnoticed they quit (Martin & Schmidt 2010:3).

Job dissatisfaction is regarded as one of the factors that influence employees to leave their organisations (Rahman *et al.* 2008:46). Aladwan *et al.* (2013:409) refer to job dissatisfaction as an employee's negative feeling about various aspects of their work, including nature of work, relationship with supervisors, promotions and rewards. Leip and Stinchocombo (2013:235) hypothesised that there is a negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intent in that employees who do not enjoy greater job satisfaction have a higher likelihood of leaving their jobs.

Working conditions

Baron and Boon (2013:526) found that some of the factors that contribute to employees leaving their jobs are the conditions within which they are working such as lack of job independence and having a poor relationship with the supervisor. Employees sometimes leave their organisations because of a working environment that does not encourage innovation (Shih & Susanto 2011:124). Bergiel *et al.* (2009:214) explain that employees who work in favourable environments do not contemplate leaving their jobs.

Lack of motivation

Dysvik and Kuvaas (2010:625) found that less motivated employees are more likely to leave the organisation. This is because motivation is the power that directs and sustains employees' thinking and actions (Ritz & Waldner 2011:294). Ghosh *et al.* (2013:291) reveal that employees who are not truly committed to their jobs have sufficient motivation to leave their jobs.

Insufficient training and development opportunities

Employees quit their jobs because of negative attitudes regarding the organisation as they feel that training opportunities are not available or are allocated inappropriately (Rahman & Nas 2013:569). Alternatively, organisations that sufficiently develop their employees reduce the possibility of their ITL (Seden *et al.* 2013:302).

Davidson *et al.* (2010:454) found that employees at different levels in various organisations may leave their jobs as a result of limited training opportunities and inappropriately administered career prospects. Organisations that have inadequate opportunities for growth are at risk of losing the best employees Ghosh *et al.* (2013:290).

Culture

Ghosh *et al.* (2013:290) discovered that prime reasons why employees leave their jobs evolve around unsuited corporate culture.

Workplace relationships

Unsatisfactory relations with supervisors and co-workers and insufficient managerial support cause employees to leave (Lee & Jimenez 2011:169). Mano and Giannikis (2013:746) outlined that insufficient supervisory support also plays a role in employees deserting their organisations.

Economic factors

The external factors impacting upon the employee's decision to leave an organisation include economic issues such as the rate of unemployment (Lee & Jimenez 2011:169). It is due to the high levels of unemployment that people are insecure in their jobs, they constantly search for more secure jobs and when they hear of an opportunity somewhere they leave (Altman 2009:73). This is most experienced with employees who are breadwinners, as they persistently look for more stable jobs elsewhere (Groeneveld 2011:599).

Organisational politics

Organisational politics is another reason why employees leave their jobs (Rahman & Nas 2013:569). Organisational politics are defined as unauthorised intentions to promote self-interest at the expense of organisational goals (Randall, Cropanzano, Bormann & Birjulin 1999:161). Huang, Chuang and Lin (2003:520) assert that organisational politics cause dissonance and conflict at the workplace as political behaviour is meant only to serve personal interests, hence the reason some employees choose to leave such organisations.

Intolerance of Generation Y

Empirical evidence suggests that employees belonging to the Y generation view issues differently from other generations, for instance they do not tolerate boredom and frequently argue with their supervisors, therefore, they do not stay in their jobs (Davidson *et al.* 2010:453).

Eagerness for power

Some employees choose to leave their organisations when their desire for power and eagerness to be involved in decision-making are not fulfilled because of the lower level of their positions (Ghosh *et al.* 2013:290).

Unclear goals

Ghosh *et al.* (2013:296) stipulate that ambiguous organisational goals that are not satisfactorily communicated to employees result in such employees leaving the organisation because every employee needs to contribute to the achievement of their organisational goals.

Other categories of factors influencing employees to quit

Yang *et al.* (2012:842) divides the factors influencing employees' decision to leave their organisations into five categories:

The first category consists of company factors of which the first company factor is management style, which can be witnessed through unfair management, inability to get along with colleagues, frequent rapid changes in operational policy and organisational capacity. The second company factor, company sub-culture, is evidenced by management and employees' infighting, company frictions and unfriendly competition among employees. The third company factor, which leads employees to quit their jobs, is the working environment that lacks teamwork and where there is mistrust among employees. The fourth factor is decision making; if employees do not agree with the decisions made by the company they may decide to leave. The last factor is the owner's financial status, where employees feel threatened by the owner's financial instability and seek jobs elsewhere.

The second category is compensation and promotion channels, which involves limited opportunities for promotion and unavailability of resources to continue employees' education.

The third category is personal emotion, which indicates that employees leave their jobs due to emotional discontent caused by negative work atmosphere and frustrations as a result of work pressures and a sense of powerlessness.

The fourth category is the nature of the industry, which stipulates that where employees are obliged to work very long hours without breaks, this has negative effects on employees' performance and sometimes health; therefore, many decide to leave.

Work content is the fifth category, which states that unchallenging jobs, too much information processing, too long, meaningless meetings and monotony in daily work contribute to employees leaving their jobs.

Reasons for/factors influencing turnover in the public service

The HR managers of the public sector, akin to all organisations, need to know why employees are leaving in order to maintain the effectiveness of the government services (Jeon & Robertson 2013:2). Apart from the abovementioned reasons for employee turnover, the public service faces difficulty in retaining suitably qualified workers because they enter the workforce requiring huge salaries, which governments cannot afford (Reid 2005:35). Moreover, changes in public policies result in some employees feeling that their values and interests are being neglected (Groeneveld 2011:597).

The authoritarian nature of public organisations leads to increased turnover (Bright 2008:149). Employees leave the public service because they are not satisfied with their jobs, as they are not aligned to the mission of the organisation (Caillier 2011:111). It was also found in previous research that employees with less years of service have more chances of quitting the public service because they have not accrued any benefits during their tenure (Groeneveld 2011:598).

Burnout is one of the reasons why employees leave the public service (Craig *et al.* 2012:7). Groeneveld (2011:597) revealed that the number of men leaving the public service is higher than that of women and this is attributed to reasons of work-life balance for instance women hesitate to change jobs as this might require them to relocate .

The public sector is viewed as the most unattractive sector for talented employees (Ritz & Waldner 2011:295). This is consequent to the relatively low salaries in the public service comparable to the private sector (Fredericksen 2010:50). Koketso &

Rust (2012:2223) stipulate that everything that goes wrong in the public sector is blamed on lower salaries; therefore, high turnover is no exception.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INTENTIONS TO LEAVE AND SUCCESSION PLANNING

If implemented successfully, SP lowers staff turnover by improving staff morale as it encourages internal promotion and development (Reid 2005:37). Previous research has shown that succession planning mitigates the intention to quit (Naveen 2006:681). Additionally, Arshadi and Shahbazi (2013:641) stipulate that effective SP obstructs high performers' turnover by developing them, thus sustaining organisational knowledge and learning.

A high rate of turnover at leadership level hinders the development of future successors (Mooney *et al.* 2013:3). Koketso and Rust (2012:2223) assert that turnover of employees with skills, and who are knowledgeable about the company, hinder HR planning activities such as SP.

The type of turnover of the predecessor also influences the relationship between succession and turnover. Helfat and Bailey (2005:55) indicate that forced turnover results in poor succession planning, whilst voluntary turnover is associated with successful succession planning (Moynihan & Landuyt 2008:120).

SP helps to reduce voluntary turnover costs incurred when the more experienced employees leave the organisation (Caillier 2011:110). Therefore, it is regarded as one of the most suitable remedies to tackle the challenge of turnover (Durst & Wilhelm 2012:637). SP also motivates employees, thus minimising the chances of employees leaving the organisation (Cho & Lewis 2012: 6).

On the other hand, SP is perceived to contribute to turnover in that individuals with appropriate training are attracted by other organisations and are usually tempted to leave for greener pastures (Gonzalez 2013:413). Hytti *et al.* (2011:573) affirm this by showing that when employees are included in the succession plan they see themselves as stars and have thoughts of leaving the organisation. More so, such employees may even become impatient during the waiting and decide to quit (Cairns 2011:28).

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter covers the literature review of the existing published research on succession planning. To appreciate succession planning as an independent variable, this chapter commenced by briefly outlining views that are currently available on succession. Succession planning was defined and explored, focusing mainly on levels of succession planning, process and succession planning constructs, which entail facets such as leadership, performance, recruitment, replacement, talent management, succession management and mentoring.

According to Bunce (2013:89), succession planning is regarded as an agent of organisational change; therefore, best practices are included in this chapter as they form an integral part of the existing literature. Succession planning benefits and barriers to its development and implementation are also identified and discussed. The inclusion is strengthened by Fink (2011:671), who stipulates that succession planning enforces human capability, which can be enhanced by increasing the supply of human knowledge and skills.

Most importantly, the review of the literature provides for discussion on topics such as turnover intention, intentions to leave, turnover definition and factors influencing turnover in the public service. The literature on the relationship of constructs in this study, namely succession planning, current practices, barriers to succession planning and turnover intention is included.

In the public sector among other factors a major concern that triggers the need to engage in succession planning, is the vast numbers of knowledgeable, experienced high ranking officials from the baby-boomer generation who are due to retire (Leland *et al.* 2012:44). Pennell (2010:279) emphasises that organisations' worry stems from the fact that the baby boomer generation take with them tremendous knowledge and experience that they have accumulated throughout the years of their service.

On the contrary, the literature reveals that there are numerous obstacles encountered in the creation, development and successful implementation of succession planning that require serious attention. This chapter clearly indicated that succession planning forms part of the factors that influence employees' decisions to stay or leave their

organisations. Consequently, studies on succession planning and turnover intentions established that there is a significant relationship between the two constructs.

In the next chapter, an overview of the research design and methodology used in this study is provided.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

The literature review on succession planning was undertaken in the previous chapter. An examination of current practices and barriers in the implementation of succession planning as well as benefits, best practices, and reasons as to why employees leave their organisations was also provided.

TYPES OF RESEARCH DESIGNS

Three types of research exist, namely exploratory research, descriptive research and causal research. These designs are illustrated in Figure 3.1.

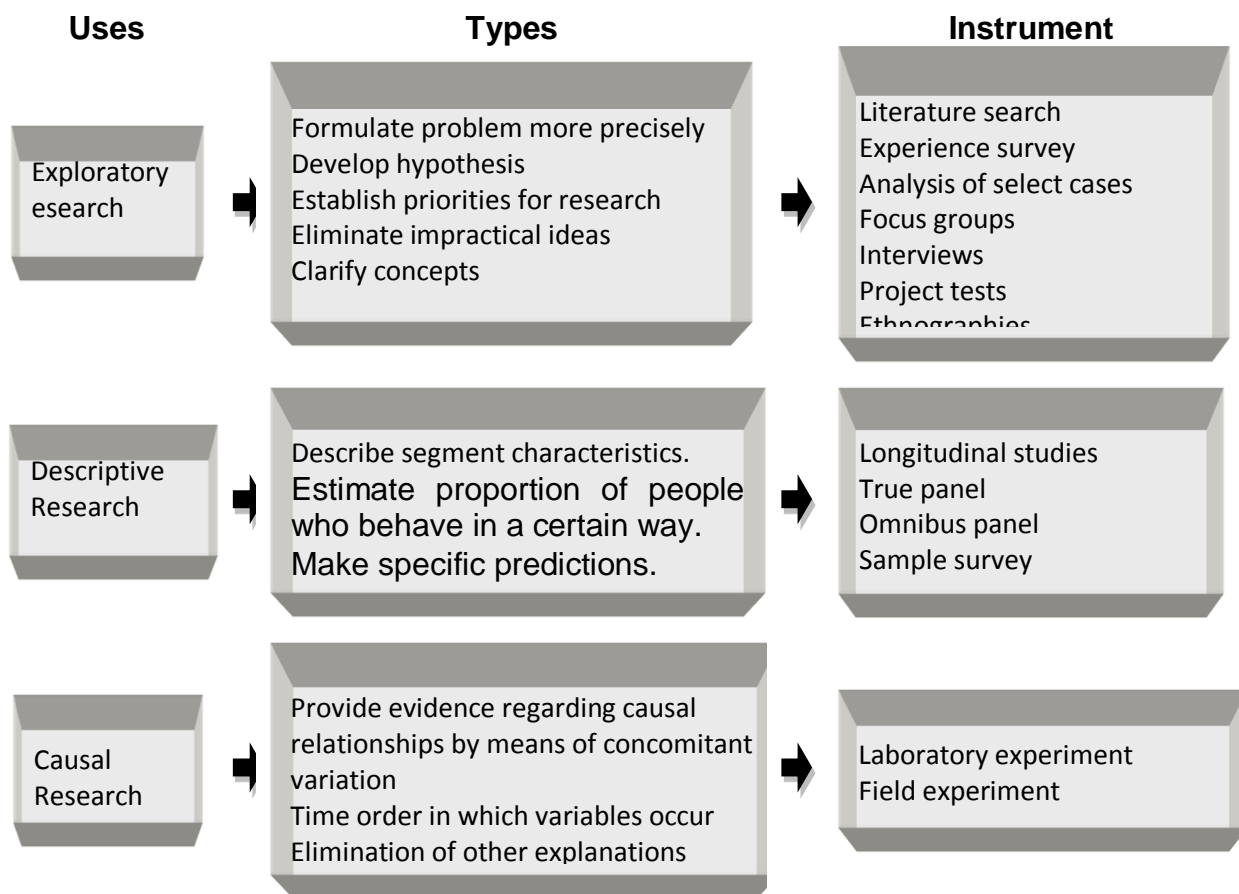


Figure 3.1: Different research designs

Source: Churchill & Iacobucci (2005:76).

Exploratory research

Exploratory research focuses on “why” questions (De Vaus 2011:2), and it is used when one is seeking insights into the general nature of a problem, the possible decision alternatives and relevant variables that need to be considered (Aaker, Kumar, Leone & Day 2013:65).

Descriptive research

Descriptive research concentrates on the “what is going on” (De Vaus 2011:1). It also includes surveys and fact finding enquiries of different kinds and it describes the situation as it is (Santhakumaran & Sargunamary 2008:6). Moreover, it is concerned with determining the rate of recurrence in which something occurs, or the relationship between constructs (Churchill & Iacobucci 2005:74).

Causal research

This type of research examines casual relationships between variables. For example, a variable Y is affected by factor X (De Vaus 2011:2). It further establishes the cause – effect relationship and usually is undertaken through statistical analysis (Churchill & Iacobucci 2005:74). This study made use of descriptive and causal research designs.

QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH APPROACHES

Two approaches can be followed when conducting research, namely qualitative and quantitative research (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:56). Qualitative research means that research findings are not subject to quantification or quantitative analysis (McDaniel & Gates 2004:66). A qualitative approach, therefore, depends upon quality, whilst quantitative research is based on quantity and is a useful approach when observing human behaviour (Khanzode 2009:5). According to Cooper and Schindler (2006:216), quantitative research tests theory and can accurately measure constructs. Table 3.1 shows the differences between these two research approaches.

Table 3.1: Difference between qualitative and quantitative research approaches

QUALITATIVE VERSUS QUANTITATIVE		
Factor	Qualitative research	Quantitative research
Types of questions	Probing	Limited probing
Sample size	Small	Large
Amount of information from each respondent	Substantial	Varies
Requirements for administration	Interviewer with special skills	Interviewer with fewer skills
Type of analysis	Subjective, Interpretive	Statistical summation
Hardware	Tape recorders, projection devices, video recorders, pictures, discussion guides	Questionnaires, Computers, Printouts
Degree of replicability	Low	High
Researcher training	Psychology, sociology, social psychology, Consumer behaviour, marketing, research	Statistics, decision models, decision support system, Computer programming, marketing research
Type of research	Exploratory	Descriptive or causal

Source: McDaniel & Gates (2004:67).

For the current study, a quantitative approach was used. Quantitative data are assigned a high degree of confidence because they are able to count and predict relationships for large populations (Holland & Campbell 2005:4).

THE SAMPLING DESIGN PROCEDURE

It takes a good plan and execution strategy to obtain a good sample (Clow & James 2014: 226). The steps outlined in Figure 3.2 are used in the sampling process for the study. These steps are discussed further below.

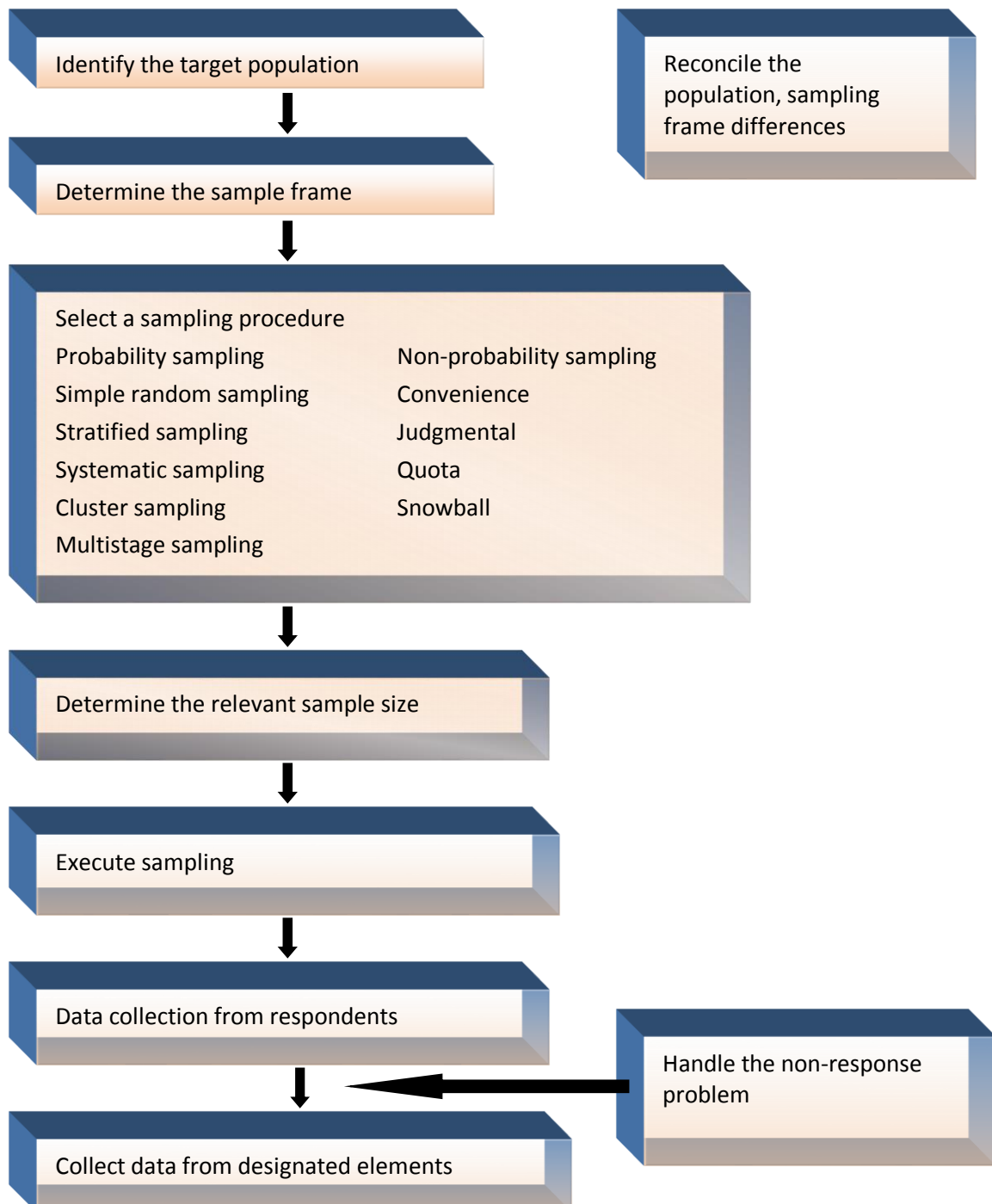


Figure 3.2: The sampling process

Source: Aaker *et al.* (2013:304).

The target population

According to Vogt (2007:59), a target population refers to a group of people from which the researcher wants to generalise the results. It also includes the restrictions of barring individuals to form part of the population (Clow & James 2014:226). A population is any group that is the subject of research interest (Goddard & Melville 2011:34). McDaniel and Gates (2004:356) define population as the entire group about whom the research needs to gather information.

For the purposes of this study, the target population was restricted to public service employees, males and females, in all government ministries based in the capital city of a developing country. One of the inclusion criteria for the study was that employees should hold positions of director, manager or officer. Currently there are 1075 employees described above. Positions above the director position are political appointments and are based on a three- to five-year contract and, therefore, were not included in the study.

The sample and sampling frame

Samples are referred to as subset of the population (Goddard & Melville 2011:34). A sample frame is a complete list on which each unit of analysis is mentioned only once (Welman & Kruger 2001:47).

The list of directors, managers and officers was made from the data obtained from the human resource departments of the ministries in the public service.

The sampling procedure

Probability sampling is a sampling method where the probability of any sampling population to be included in the sample is equal (Aaker *et al.* 2013:631). On the other hand, non-probability sampling is a method that relies on the researcher's judgment and it does not use random selection procedures (Malhotra & Birks 2006:731).

A probability sampling method was used for the study. With probability sampling each individual in the population have similar chance to be included in the sample (Bernard 2013:130). Simple random sampling was utilised to select the sample for this study. In simple random sampling, a certain process is used to select the sample (Vogt

2007:78). Khanzode (2009:9) clarifies the previous process by stipulating that in this form of sampling each item is allocated a number from one, and then certain digits are randomly selected to form a sample. A number was assigned to each participant and a random selection of 250 employees was made. Where a selected respondent was not available, the next available respondent on the list was selected.

Sample size

Sample sizes are influenced by the amount of time and the costs for the collection of data for a study (Gray, Williamson, Karp & Dalphin 2007:112). In determining the sample size for this study, the historical evidence method was used where the researcher was guided by past research studies on succession planning. A total of 250 were deemed sufficient to conduct the study. Table 3.2 demonstrates various sample sizes for different studies on succession planning from which the chosen sample size was derived.

Table 3.2: Determining the sample size

Year	Authors	Subject of study	Sample size
2008	Noor, S.	Examining the relationship between work life conflict, stress and turnover intentions among marketing executives in Pakistan.	200
2011	Mathur, A.	Succession planning: A planning that turns out into a legacy.	300
2011	Subrahmaniam, M. & Anjani, N.	Succession planning & its impact on organisational performance in IT sector.	150
2012	Ucho, A. & Mkavga, T.	Job satisfaction, gender and tenure and turnover intentions among civil servants in Benue State.	300
2013	Ganu, J. & Boateng, P.A.	Entrepreneurial ventures in Ghana through succession planning.	147
2014	Salajegheh, S., Nikpour, A., Khosropour, M. & Nobarieidishe, S.	The study of related factors with the implementation amount of succession planning systems.	330

Source: Noor (2008:96); Mathur (2011:56); Subrahmaniam and Anjani (2011:5); Ucho and Mkavga (2012:380); Ganu and Boateng (2013:54); Salajegheh, Nikpour, Khosropour and Nobarieidishe (2014:78).

Data collection method and the questionnaire

Aaker *et al.* (2013:69) state that there are many data collection methods that can be considered, either singly or in combination. A questionnaire is a printed list of questions that respondents are asked to answer (Goddard & Melville 2011:34). Its purpose is to ensure that all participants are asked similar questions in exactly the same way (Brace 2008:4).

The data collection method for this study was a fully structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was hand delivered to all the participants. The purpose of hand delivered questionnaires is to ensure that participants get them on time and complete them in their own free time. Gray *et al.* (2007:127) affirm that personally administered questionnaires are less expensive.

Questionnaire design

The questionnaire design is whereby information that will effectively support decision makers is created (Malhotra & Birks 2006:327). According to Jones, Beynon-Davies and Greaves (2003:171), with structured questionnaires data collection can be done quickly. When designing a questionnaire for the current study the process as illustrated in Figure 3.3 was followed.

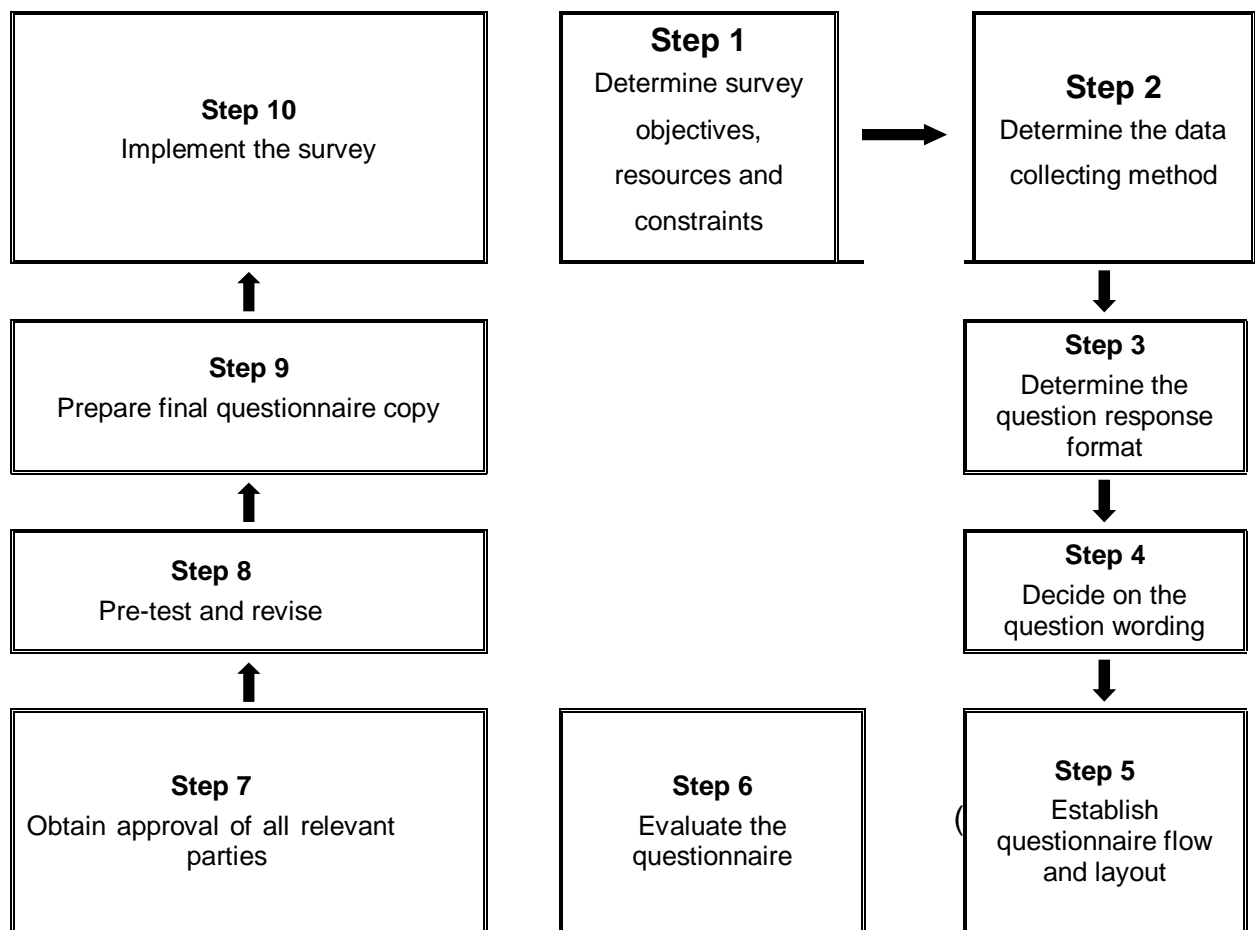


Figure 3.3: Questionnaire design process

Source: McDaniel & Gates (2008:292).

The questionnaire will comprise four sections:

Section A: This section solicits demographic information of candidates such as:

gender

age

position held in the organisation

salary grade

length of service.

Section B: This section comprises of questions on the current practices in succession planning.

Section C: This section contains questions on barriers to succession planning.

Section D: Section D entails questions on intentions to leave.

Questioning format and layout

Section A consists of five dichotomous and multiple-choice type of questions. Sections B to D consists of five-point Likert scale questions, anchored with 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. Section B consists of 11 questions, Section C five questions and Section D four questions.

Questions for Sections B and C were developed from a review of the literature as no previously developed and validated questionnaires could be found. Questions for Section D were adapted from Sager, Griffeth and Hom (1998:269) and Lambert and Hogan (2009:114).

PRE-TESTING

Pre-testing means a trial of the questionnaire with few respondents (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:99). It is done to ascertain that the respondents of the questionnaire will understand it and to ensure that what a researcher is studying can be achieved through the designed measuring instrument (Blair, Czaja & Blair 2014:31). The questionnaire was pre-tested with a panel of experts including academics in human resource management to check for suitability of questions and whether the questions measure the relevant constructs in the study.

PILOT TESTING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Piloting refers to undertaking the research process with a few respondents who are part of the population but who would not form part of the main study (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:99). Pilot testing is done to ensure that the objectives of the study are achievable (Blair *et al.* 2014:275). Pilot testing was done with 84 respondents. The reason for this type of testing was to test the reliability of the questionnaire. Respondents for pilot testing were directors, managers and officers from various ministries who would not form part of the main study. The results of the pilot study are reported in Chapter 4, Section 4.2.

DATA PREPARATION

The raw data obtained from the questionnaires must undergo preliminary preparation before they can be analysed using statistical techniques (Aaker Kumar & Day 2004:433). The stages of preparing such data are summarised in Figure 3.4.

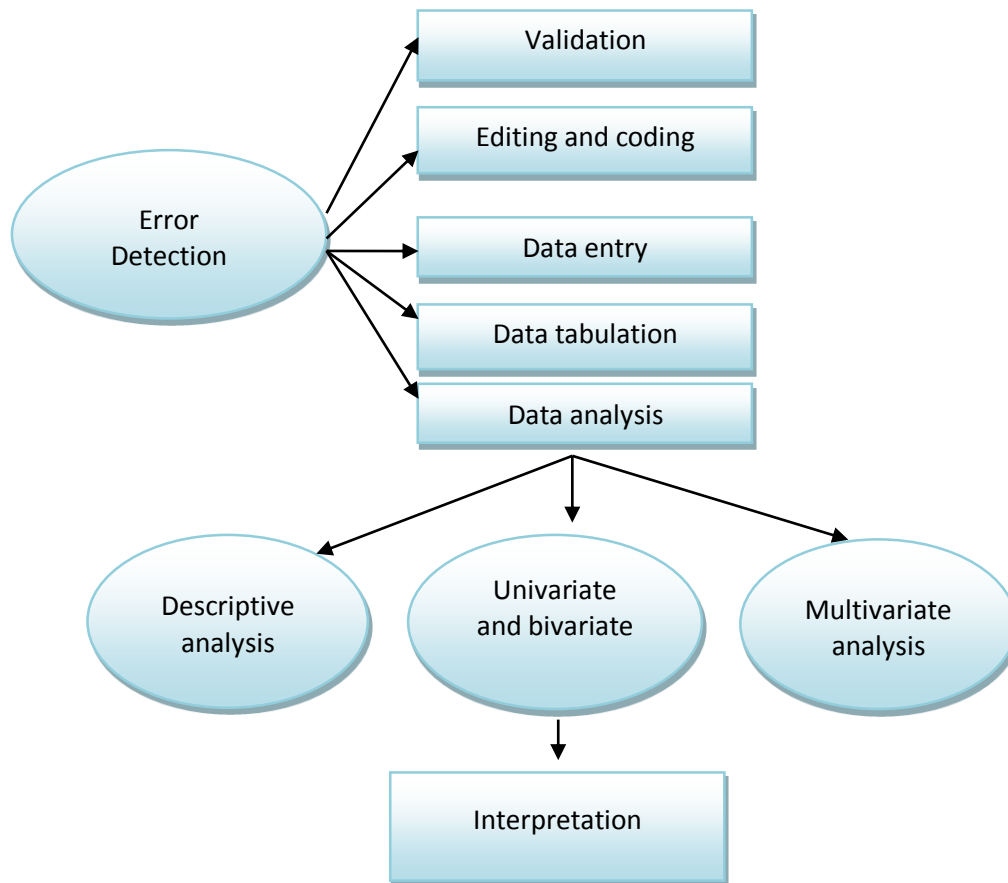


Figure 3.4: The stages of data preparation and analysis

Source: Hair, Bush & Ortinau (2006:478).

Editing

Editing refers to the review of a questionnaire to increase accuracy and precision (Malhotra & Birks 2006:423). Editing is described as the process whereby information from the questionnaire is perused for purposes of eliminating mistakes made by either the researcher or the respondent (Hair *et al.* 2006:480). Editing is undertaken to ensure that the information in the questionnaire is ready to be captured or recorded (Singleton, Straits & Straits 1998:417). The data were edited to identify omissions, ambiguities and respondents mistakes.

Coding

Coding is a data preparation method that is used usually when responses are not in a numerical order (Singleton *et al.* 1998:417). According to Malhotra and Birks (2006:724), coding is the process of allocating codes to represent responses to specific questions along with a data record and column position that the code occupy. Coding provides a picture of how the responses will be recorded (Aaker *et al.* 2004:434). The statistician when entering the data on the SPSS file did coding.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The different types of analysis used in this study are discussed below.

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics provide sets of data that are used to collect and summarise data from respondents (Hair *et al.* 2006:495). In this study, three descriptive statistical concepts will be used to detect patterns in the research data. The concepts are summarised in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3: Concepts of descriptive statistics

CONCEPT	DESCRIPTION	TYPES
Frequency	Used to identify the number of common responses from participants	Cross tabulation: one variable is crossed with another to see the relationship between the two
Central tendency	Refers to the measurement of averages	Mode: Refers to the response common for all participants Median: A response that measures the half-way point Mean: The average of the responses
Dispersion	Indicates how different the responses are from the mean	Range: displays how far answers are dispersed Variance: How dispersed each response is from the mean Standard deviation: it is the square root of the variance

Source: Kolb (2008:252)

Mean

The mean is the most commonly used measure of central tendency, as it includes comparing groups on the basis of the amounts of the characteristics possessed by the group relative to the size (Fielding & Gilbert 2006:102). It is calculated by adding up all of the scores and then dividing by the total number of scores available (Field, Miles & Field 2013:23). Means for this study are reported in Chapter 4, Section 4.4.

Standard deviation

Standard deviation is the most commonly used measure of variation as it includes how much scores are spread out, and how they differ on average from the mean score (Vogt 2007:19). Standard deviation is simply the square root of the variance (Field *et al.* 2013:23). It specifies the degree of variation in the raw data responses in such a way that allows the researcher to translate the variation into normal curve interpretation (Hair, Bush & Ortinau 2000:394). A low standard deviation indicates that the data points tend to be very close to the mean; high standard deviation indicates that the data points are spread out over a large range of values (Bless & Kathuria 2008:63).

For the purpose of this study, both the mean and standard deviation were computed in Section A, which entails the demographic profile of the participants in the study.

Frequencies

The first step that should be considered when summarising data relating to nominal variable is to construct a frequency table or frequency distribution (Bryman & Cramer 2009:86). It is a summary of how many times each possible row response to a scale question setup was recorded by the total group of respondents (Hair *et al.* 2000:394). This is a very useful step because it shows how many times each score occurs (Field *et al.* 2013:19). It also allows the researcher to compare information between groups of individuals and to see what are the highest and lowest values and the value in which most scores cluster (Fielding & Gilbert 2006:50).

Factor analysis

Factor analysis is the process used to analyse the resulting data to determine which statements belong together in sets that are uncorrelated with other sets (Aaker *et al.* 2004:448). It is a technique for discovering patterns among the variables to determine if an underlying combination of the original variables can summarise the original set (Cooper & Schindler 2006:633). Factor analysis provides an indicative tool to evaluate whether the collected data are in line with the theoretically expected pattern or structure of the target constructs and thereby to determine if measures used have indeed measured what they are purported to measure (Matsuaga 2010:98). The aim of factor analysis is to reveal any latent variables that cause the original variables to differ (Costello & Osborne 2005:2).

Factor analysis reveals the underlying relationship between constructs (Bradley 2007:336). Moreover, factor analysis is used commonly to analyse data in quantitative questionnaires and psychometric tests (Tolmie, Muijs & McTeer 2011:291). When conducting a factor analysis the researcher begins with a set of strategies that are believed to evaluate a certain variable (Neuman 1997:170). These strategies are utilised for data reduction and summarisations (Malhotra & Birks 2006:727). According to Aaker *et al.* (2004:563) it is used for two major purposes, namely:

To identify underlying constructs in the data analysis

To reduce the number of variables to a more manageable set.

Additionally Williams, Onsman and Brown (2010:2) outlined the following uses of factor analysis:

It reduces a large number of variables into a smaller set of factors

It establishes underlying dimensions between measured variables and latent constructs, thereby allowing the formation of the refinement of theory

It provides construct validity evidence of self-reporting scales.

Bradley (2007:336) states that factor analysis also reveals the extent to which factors correlate with each other and the extent is expressed in Table 3.5.

Table 3.4: Factor loading analysis

FACTOR LOADING ANALYSIS		
Very high factor loading	(>0.6)	The variable describes the factor very well
High factor loading	(>0.3)	The variable describes the factor
Low loading	(<0.3.)	The variable should be ignored

In this study, exploratory factor analysis was used to establish convergent validity of the constructs and this was also done for Section B (succession planning current practices).

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

EFA is done earlier in the research process to analyse the relationships between various variables, which are evaluated without determining the degree to which the results fit a particular model (Bryman & Cramer 2009:323). Its main objective is finding the patterns of correlations in the data (Vogt 2007:231). This analysis groups correlated variables together (Tolmie *et al.* 2011:290). It is used mainly to build theory where the researcher has limited knowledge about the underlying mechanisms of the target phenomena and, therefore, is unsure of how variables would operate against one another (Matsuaga 2010:98).

Costello and Osborne (2005:8) conclude that EFA is suitable for discovering new data sets but not for testing hypotheses. It is done in a sequence of five steps as illustrated in Figure 3.5.

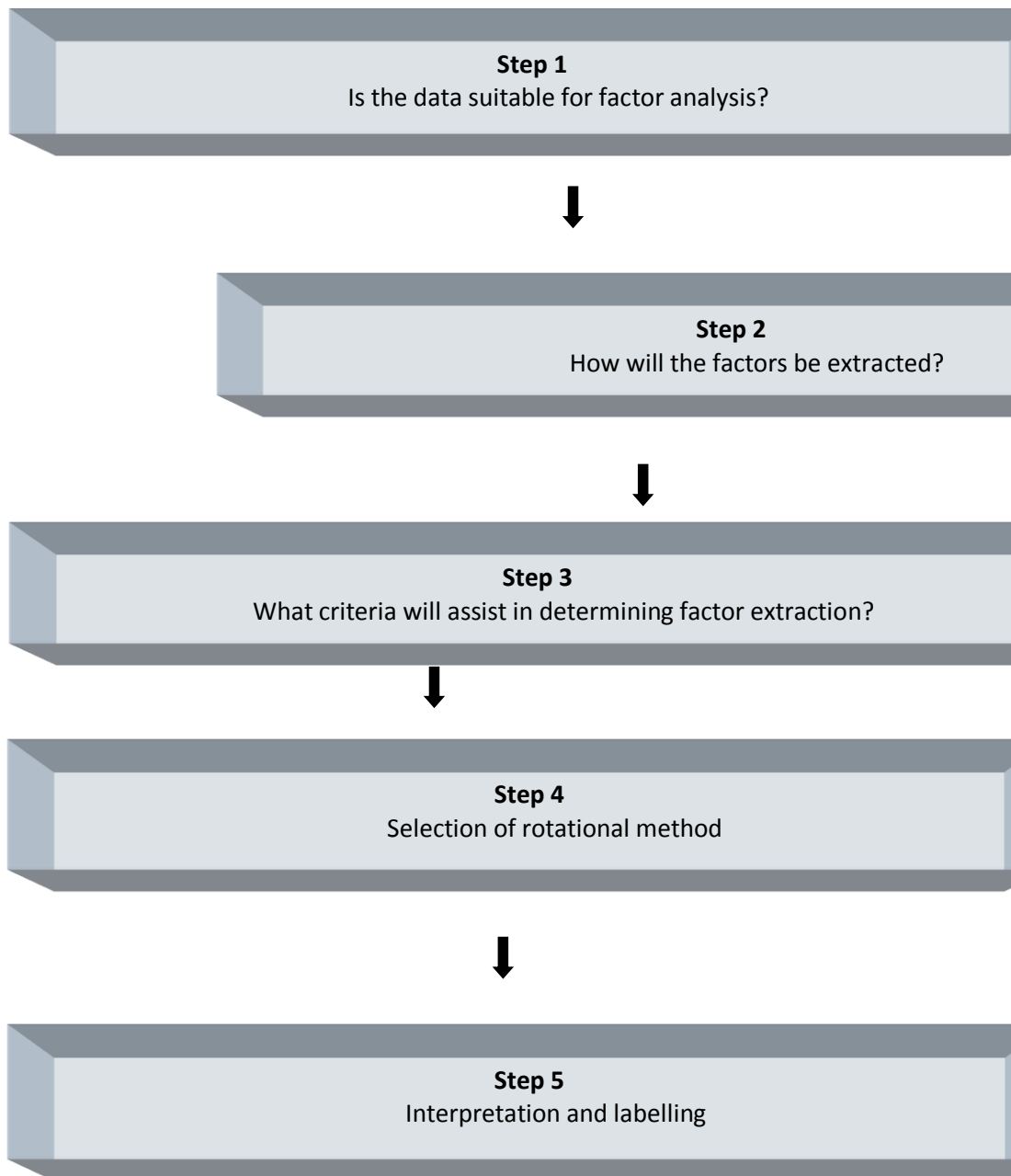


Figure 3.5: The five-step exploratory factor analysis protocol

Source: Williams *et al.* (2010:4)

Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis is the extent to which changes in a variable are connected to the changes in another variable (Gates 2010:448). It assesses the impact that changes in one variable have on another variable of interest and a scatter diagram can be used to measure such relationships (Hair *et al.* 2006:547). The correlation that involves only two variables is called bivariate correlation and is usually measured using the Pearson test, whereby relationships differ from +1 to -1 (Clow & James 2014:309). For the

purposes of this study, correlation analysis was used to establish convergent validity of the constructs in the study, and was done for Sections B (succession planning current practices), Section C (succession internal barriers) and Section D (intention to leave).

Regression analysis

Regression analysis is referred to as a statistical procedure for analysing the relationships between variables in a certain study (Malhotra & Birks 2006:733). This analysis is used to assess whether there are differences in the population sample (Birn 2004:221). Clow and James (2014:416) identified two types of regression analysis, namely:

Simple regression, which examines how an independent variable relates to the outcome

Multiple regressions, which focuses on determining the relationship between many independent variables and the results. Regression analysis will also be used to establish predictive validity of the constructs.

Regression analysis is described sometimes as a statistical method that is used to detect a relationship between two or more variables (Aaker *et al.* 2013:407). Malhotra and Birks (2006:519) state that regression analysis can be used in the following ways:

To establish whether there is a relationship between constructs

To detect the strength of the relationship between variables

To determine the type or structure of the relationship that the variables have

To predict the values of the dependent variable

To control the constructs when evaluating the contributions of the specific variable or set of variables.

In this study, regression analysis was done for sections B, C and D. It was used to detect the relationship between succession planning current practices, succession internal barriers and the intention to leave.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

ANOVA is a statistical strategy used to reveal whether two or more means are statistically different from each other (Hair *et al.* 2006:649). Every mean is taken to be representing the group from which it is was derived (Tolmie *et al.* 2011:290). This analysis was done for Sections A (demographics) and D (intentions to leave) in the current study in order to detect the variance between means of the variables.

RELIABILITY

Reliability refers to the chances that a research instrument will produce similar results across multiple occasions of its use (Denscombe 2007:296; Hammond & Wellington 2013:164). Factors that impact on reliability include length of the test, objectivity in scoring and clarity in instruction (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:80). Clow and James (2014:267) state that three approaches can be followed for assessing reliability, namely:

- Test-retest reliability: An approach where the measurement process is repeated with the similar instrument with the same set of participants.
- Equivalent form reliability: This is the approach for assessing reliability where two equivalent forms of the scale are required to be developed and then measures the same respondent at two different times using the alternate forms.
- Internal consistency: This approach entails using one measurement instrument and assessing its reliability through different samples. It consists of two types of measurement, which are split half reliability and Cronbach's alpha.

The Cronbach alpha was used to enhance the reliability of survey instrument for sections B to D respectively.

Cronbach alpha

Cronbach alpha (sometimes-called coefficient alpha) refers to the measurement of internal consistency of a multi-item scale where the average of all possible split-half coefficients results in different ways of splitting scales (Hair *et al.* 2007:652).

Cronbach alpha (coefficient alpha) ranges from zero to one and a value of 0.60 or less generally indicates poor internal consistency reliability (Malhotra & Birks 2006:314).

VALIDITY

Validity is the extent to which measurement represents characteristics that exist in elements of study (Malhotra & Birks 2006:737). Validity deals with the dependability and usefulness of the measuring instrument (Leedy 1989:26). Validity means that the measuring instrument measures what it is supposed to measure (Graziano & Raulin 2010:8). The following types of validity were examined: content, predictive and construct validities.

Content validity and construct validity

Content validity

This refers to whether an instrument covers the complete content associated with the concepts (Gray *et al.* 2007:67). It entails contents of the research and covers the objectives of the research (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:82). Clow and James (2014:270) state that the following can be used to develop content validity:

Panel of experts

Scale reduction through data analysis

Literature review.

Therefore, for this study the content validity was also established and confirmed through all the methods above.

Construct validity

This type of validity deals with the question of what variables the scale is measuring and it attempts to answer why a scale works and what deductions can be made concerning the underlying theory (Malhotra & Birks 2006:737). Construct validity is a method of validity used in tests that are utilised to study the formation of various habits and skills (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:82). It also includes how well the constructs are captured by the measurement instrument (Aaker *et al.* 2004:724). This type of validity also ascertains that evaluation strategies measure what they are

supposed to measure in order for errors to be minimised and prejudice reduced (Balnaves & Caputi 2001:89).

For this study construct validity was undertaken by pilot testing the questionnaire.

Predictive validity

This type of validity is concerned with how well a scale can predict future results (Malhotra & Birks 2006:733). It determines the validity of the testing instrument in future tests (Vijayalakshmi & Sivapragasam 2008:82). This type of validity is also known for validating the extent to which a future level of a criterion variable can be predicted by a current measurement on a scale (Gates 2010:255).

The study used regression analysis to assess the predictive validity of the scale.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

Research methodology is a foundation of the success of an empirical study. In this chapter, components of research methodology were explored. The steps undertaken when designing a research were outlined. In this study, a quantitative approach was used.

The sampling procedure, which entails the target population, sampling frame, sampling procedure and sample size was spelt out. The data collection method employed in the study was also discussed. The design, contents, layout, pilot testing, reliability and validity of the questionnaire was explained.

The next chapter covers the reporting, analysis, interpretation and evaluation of the research data. The findings of the empirical study will also be discussed.

CHAPTER 4

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter outlined an overview of the research methodology undertaken for the study. This chapter focuses on the results emanating from the survey and statistical procedures, which were applied to analyse the findings. Descriptive analysis, factor analysis, correlations and regression analysis were used to present the results. Finally, reliability and validity of the measuring instrument were ascertained. The empirical findings are cross-referenced with the literature relevant to the study.

Data analysis was undertaken in two phases. First, pilot testing and pre-testing the questionnaire, and secondly, the consolidation of the main survey findings through a more detailed analysis was undertaken. The data were analysed with a view to address the objectives of the study. In order to ensure high quality analysis, all evidence was considered. The results of the pilot study in the form of a reliability analysis are discussed in the next section

PILOT TESTING OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

A pilot study of the questionnaire was conducted among 87 respondents who were public service employees holding the positions of either officer, manager or director. The primary aim of piloting the questionnaire was to establish the initial reliability before undertaking the main survey.

From the initial questionnaire, some items were deleted to improve the reliability value. Coussement, Demoulin and Charry (2011:89) state that if after the deletion process the Cronbach alpha values are between 0.60 and 0.80 one can proceed with the item using the scale. The Cronbach alpha values for all the constructs ranged from 0.619 to 0.909 indicating adequate reliability for the scale. Table 4.1 shows the Cronbach alpha after the deletion of items.

Table 4.1: Reliability of the pilot questionnaire

Constructs	N	Number of items	Cronbach's alpha
Section B (Succession planning current practices)	87	11	0.834
Section C (Succession internal barriers)	87	5	0.619
Section D (Intention to leave)	87	4	0.909

In the following section, analysis of the main survey is presented.

ANALYSIS OF THE MAIN SURVEY RESULTS

A total of 260 questionnaires were distributed to respondents. A total of 13 questionnaires were not returned. Four questionnaires were discarded because they were incomplete, resulting in a total of 243 questionnaires being used for the analysis of the data. A discussion of the analysis of the data is presented in the following manner:

First, the demographic information of the respondents is presented.

Secondly, the overall means are provided as well as the factor analysis interpretations.

Thirdly, the correlation between succession planning current practices, succession internal barriers and intention to leave is provided.

Fourthly, the regression analysis of the relationship between succession planning current practices, succession internal barriers and intention to leave is provided.

Fifthly, the independent sample T-test was conducted to compare whether means of two normally distributed independent samples are equal and the results of the ANOVA are also provided to compare whether the means of more than two independent samples described by one factor are equal.

Sixthly, a discussion of the reliability and validity of the survey instrument is provided.

Descriptive statistics of demographics

In this section, the questionnaire was intended to elicit information relating to the demographics of the participants, which in this study includes gender, position held, age category, salary grade and length of service in the current position.

Gender of respondents

Figure 4.1 provides an illustration of the gender composition of the sample. Of the 243 respondents female respondents constituted a larger part of the sample (n= 191; 78.6%) compared to male respondents (n=52; 21.4%).

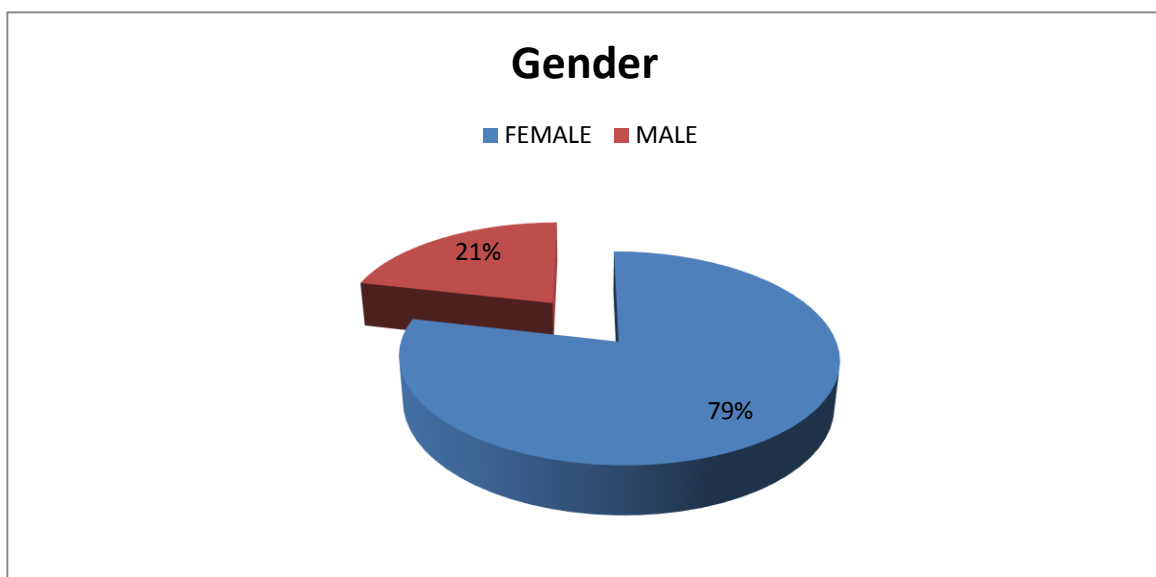


Figure 4.1: Gender composition of participants

Position of respondents

The positions that the participants held are shown in Figure 4.2. Most participants held the officer positions (n=157; 64.6%). This was followed by those who held the manager positions (n=48; 19.8%) and the least number of participants were those holding the position of a director (n=38; 15.6%). This variation is due to few director positions that are in the public service establishments.

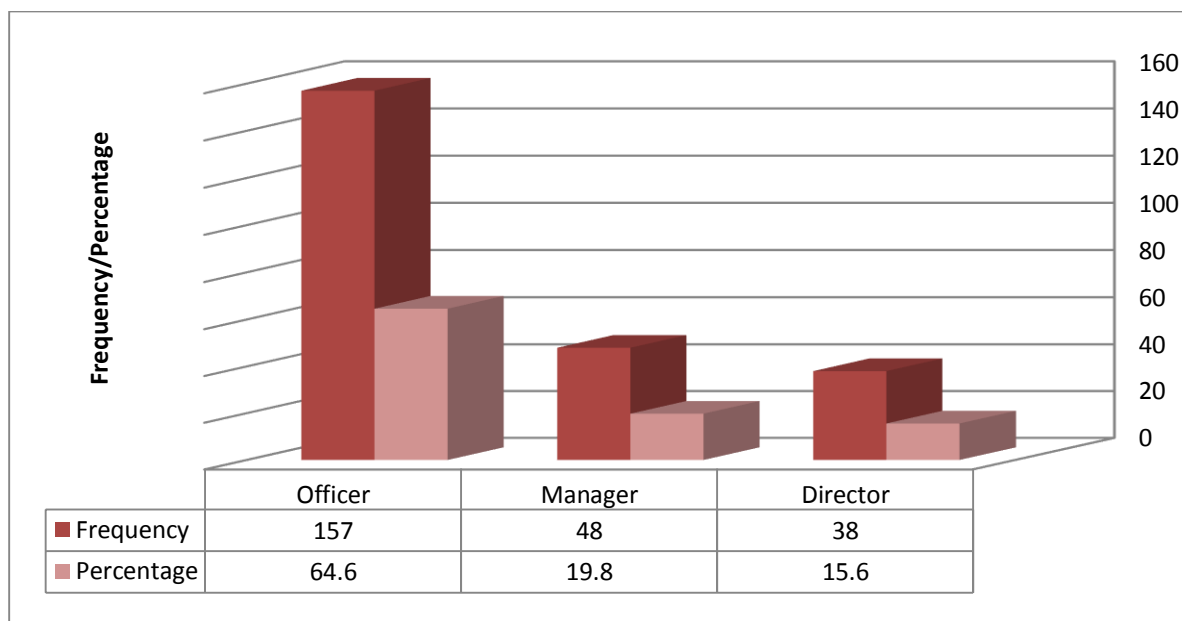


Figure 4.2: Frequency and percentages for participants' positions

Age category of respondents

Figure 4.3 outlines the age of respondents. The highest percentage of participants was in the age category 30-39 years ($n=87$; 35.8%). Those between the ages of 40-49 years made up $n=72$; 29.6 percent of the sample, while 51 respondents (21%) were between the ages of 20-39 years, followed by those who were over 49 years ($n=33$; 13.6%).

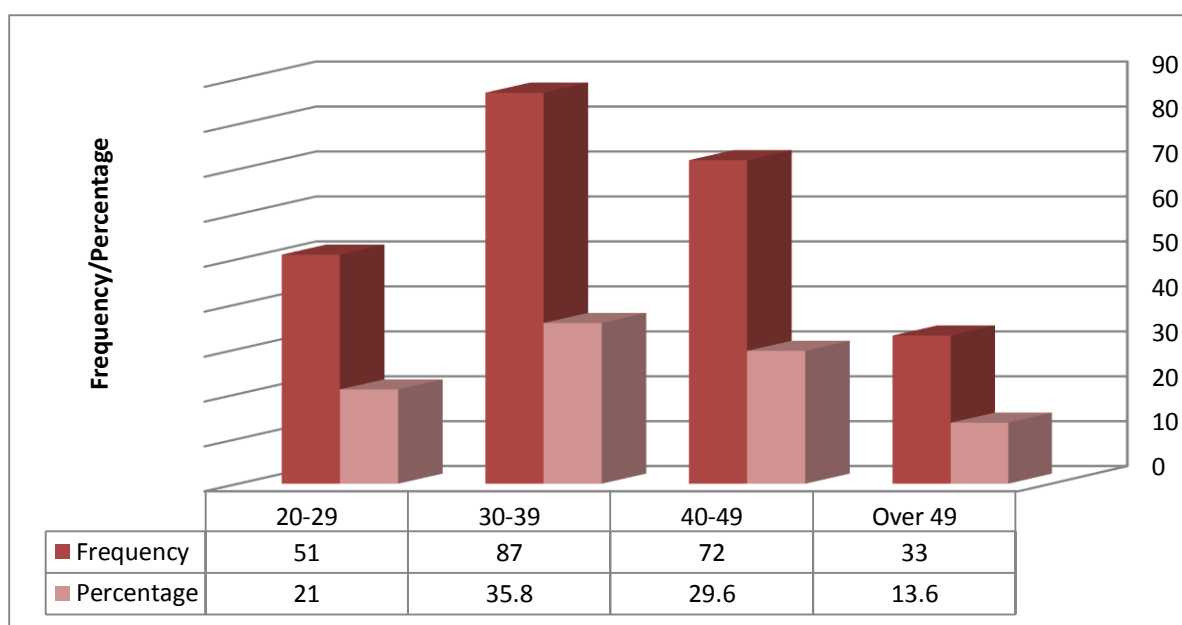


Figure 4.3: Participants' age categories

Salary grade of the respondents

Figure 4.4 outlines the salary grade of respondents. Salary grade in the public service differs from position to position, the lower positions are given the first alphabets for instance, the salary grade for assistant officers is F, for officers is G, for managers is H and I and for directors is K and J depending on the department that the position is held. Respondents in this study were those earning salaries from grade G to K. Most participants in this study were those paid at grade G (n=160; 65.8%). This was followed by grade I (n=33; 13.6%), grade K (n=31; 12.8%), grade J (n=18; 7.4%) and grade H (n=1; 0.4%).

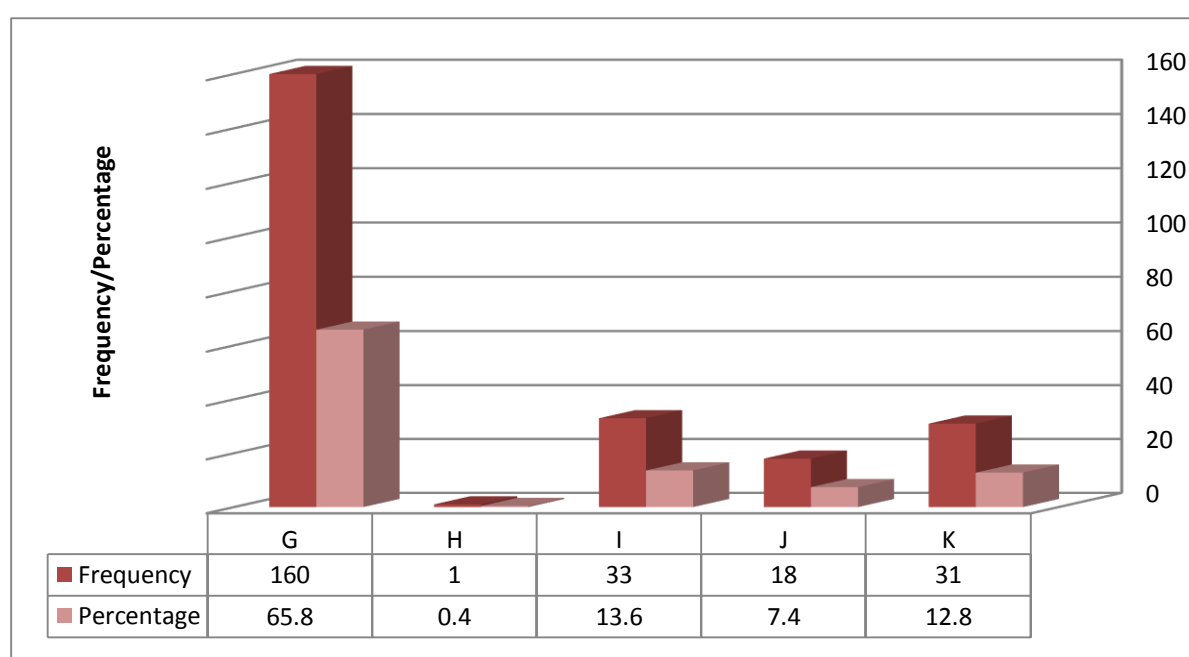


Figure 4.4: Salary grades of participants

Length of service in the current position

Figure 4.5 illustrates the length of service of employees in their current position. The length of service of the respondents ranged between 6 to 30 years. The majority of participants have between 6-10 years of service (n=99; 40.7%). There seems to be an equal distribution between respondents with a length of service between 11-15 years and those between 16-20 years of service (n=49; 20.2%). Employees with a length of service between 21-30 years (n=37; 15.2%) and more than 30 years (n=9; 3.7%) made up the remainder of the sample.

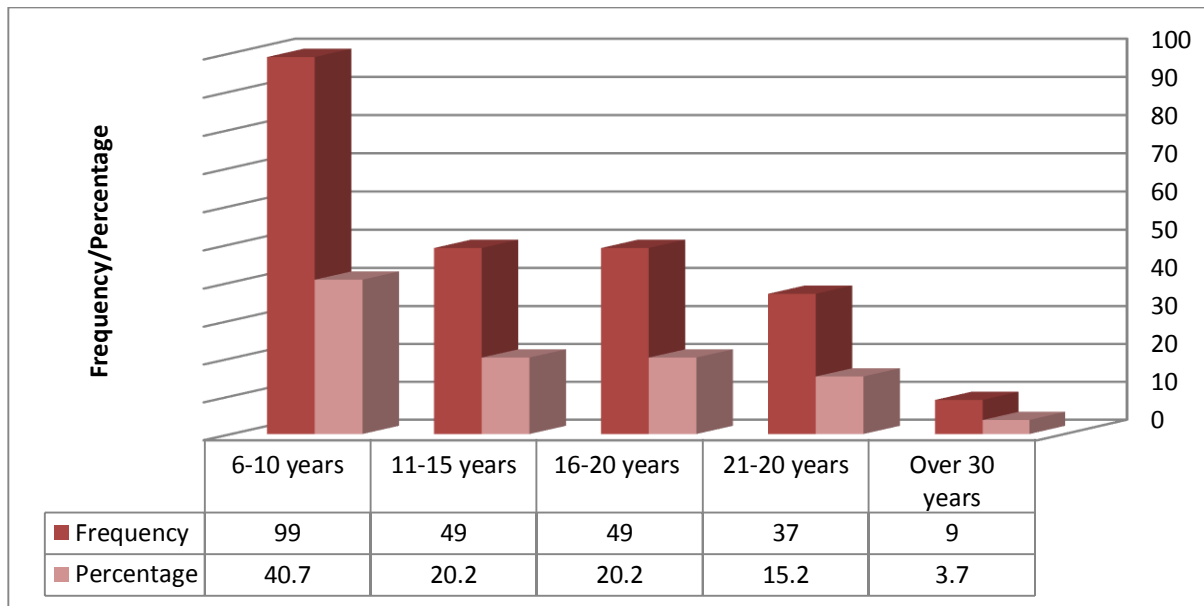


Figure 4.5: Participants' length of service

OVERALL MEANS OF THE CONSTRUCTS IN THE STUDY

The mean scores of the items in sections B to D derived from the questionnaire are discussed in the next sub-sections. The purpose of the mean scores was to examine public service employees' perceptions on succession current practices, internal barriers to succession and intentions to leave.

Means for Section B (current practices of succession planning)

Table 4.2 provides an overview of the mean scores of the succession planning current practices scale. The means for this section ranged from 1.58 to 2.23. The lowest means reported was 1.58 for item B2 (individuals are groomed to assume greater responsibilities for organisational continuity), followed by 1.62 for item B3 (employees are prepared in advance to hold higher positions for organisational survival), which is an indication that the majority of respondents strongly disagreed that individuals are neither groomed to assume greater responsibilities nor are they prepared in advance to cope with higher positions in the public service. Fink (2011:674) states that one possible reason might be the unwillingness and lack of desire to apply for leadership positions by the up-coming generation.

Ghasemi, Derakhshani, Derakhshani and Salari (2013:320) affirm that grooming and preparing future leaders not only ensures that the organisations' technical and

managerial ability is preserved, but also ascertains that the organisation develops and progresses in critical stages. Additionally, it boosts the morale as employees will be motivated to work for a company that develops them (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011:38). It further enhances retention because employees who are groomed are sometimes motivated to stay in the organisation (Pennell 2010:281). Moradi (2014:1776) emphasises that it is crucial to prepare employees for managerial positions as managers are not born but trained and developed. However, budgetary constraints can contribute to the non-grooming and lack of preparation of employees to be ready for higher positions (Goodman *et al.* 2013:2).

For the rest of the items, on the scale means ranged from 1.70 to 2.09, which means that respondents were in strong disagreement that succession planning is implemented appropriately in the public service. Perlman (2010:48) posits that most governments are doing nothing to ensure that the knowledge that the older and experienced workers have is tapped before they leave.

Table 4.2: Means for Section B (succession planning current practices)

Descriptive	N	Min	Max	Std dev	Mean
B1 (Replacements are being prepared to fill key vacancies on short notice)	243	1	5	1.13	1.81
B2 (Individuals are trained to assume greater responsibilities for organisational continuity)	243	1	5	.888	1.58
B3 (Employees are prepared in advance to hold higher positions for organisational survival)	243	1	5	.796	1.62
B4 (Multiple potential successors are identified and developed for a range of positions)	243	1	5	.871	1.70
B5 (Lists of high potentials are developed, debated and regularly revised by multiple stakeholders)	243	1	5	.808	1.76
B6 (There is a trained cadre of replacement leaders standing ready to assume power when the Baby Boomer generation retires)	243	1	5	.888	1.74
B7 (Key roles for succession planning are identified)	243	1	5	.855	1.91
B9 (Employees are developed in order to be ready for advancement into key roles)	243	1	5	.900	2.17
B10 (There is a system for employees' competencies gap analysis in place)	243	1	5	.806	2.09
B11 (Career and personal plans are developed)	243	1	5	.849	2.23

Means for Section C (internal succession barriers)

The means for Section C are tabulated in Table 4.3. All means reported for the internal succession barriers showed a moderate score ranging from 3.74 to 3.57. It should be noted that items that rate above three indicate that participants were in moderate agreement to the questionnaire items, namely C1 (too many thing to do), C2 (already overloaded with work), C3 (focus on crisis management), and C5 (restrictive rules on hiring) impacts negatively on succession planning. A plausible reason is because managers are too busy and some already are overloaded with work. Ghasemi *et al.* (2013:324) affirms that the importance of succession planning often is overlooked and is only seen when somebody has left the organisation and there is no replacement ready to assume duties of a key position. The above- mentioned barriers are more dominant in the public sector because many government high officials are appointed on the basis of political inclinations and motives and not on merit, thus hindering the execution of succession planning (Seden *et al.* 2013:302).

Table 4.3 Means for Section C (internal succession barriers)

Descriptive	N	Min	Max	Std dev	Mean
C1 (too many things to do)	243	1	5	.917	3.57
C2 (already overloaded with work)	243	1	5	.774	3.74
C3 (focus on crisis management)	243	1	5	.846	3.74
C5 (restrictive rules on hiring)	243	1	5	.926	3.67

Means for Section D (Intention to leave)

The means discussed in this section are shown in Table 4.4. The mean for all the items in this section varied from 3.57 to 3.67, which is a moderate score indicating that most respondents agreed that they have thought of quitting their job in the last six months (D1), they are also often thinking about quitting their jobs (D2), some are currently looking for other opportunities elsewhere (D3), and others are contemplating to engage in a search for other jobs (D4). This is in line with Hansen (2014:602) who found that employees leave the public sector to join the private sector because of

relatively low salaries and lack of planning. Bright (2008:149) also affirmed that indeed public service employees leave the sector because of its authoritarian nature.

Table 4.4: Means for Section D (Intention to leave)

Descriptive	N	Min	Max	Std dev	Mean
D1 (In the last six months I have thought of quitting my job)	243	1	5	1.25	3.57
D2 (I often think of quitting my job)	243	1	5	1.17	3.49
D3 (I am currently looking for another job)	243	1	5	1.35	3.40
D4 (In the next six months I will be searching for another job)	243	1	5	1.37	3.48

The next section reports the results of the exploratory factor analysis.

EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

In this study, exploratory factor analysis using the principal components analysis method and varimax rotation was applied in order to identify the current practices to succession planning (Section B). An overview of the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity, methods of extraction, naming and interpretation of factors are provided in the following sub-sections.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy

According to Malhotra and Birks (2006:612), the KMO measure of sampling adequacy is used to examine the appropriateness of factor analysis. Its values range from zero to one. A value of 0.70 or more generally is considered sufficiently high, while a value below 0.50 is considered satisfactory (Norman 2004:221). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy revealed significant results (0.840; $p < .000$), which is larger than 0.5 indicating that the sample size was adequate for factor analysis (Coussement, Demoulin & Charry 2011:79).

Bartlett's test of sphericity

The Bartlett's test of sphericity was utilised to detect whether the data set was suitable for exploratory factor analysis. The approximate chi-square of 1404.217 (Sig =.000: df 36) indicated that the factor analysis procedure was appropriate for the data set.

The results of both the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity are illustrated Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: KMO and Bartlett's test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy		0.840
Bartlett's test of sphericity	Approximated chi-square	1404.217
	Df	36
	Sig.	0.000

Extraction of factors based on eigenvalues

The factors to be extracted were established through eigenvalues criterion, which is reported in Table 4.6. Eigenvalues measure the amount of the total variance each factor accounts for (Vogt 2007:236). It represents the total variance explained by a factor (Coussement *et al.* 2001:71). Factors with eigenvalue less than 1.0 are not considered satisfactory because they are no better than a single variable (Malhotra 2004:567). Two factors had an eigenvalue larger than one. This means that these factors explain a large part of the variance in the data set, which is approximately 72 percent.

Table 4.6: Eigenvalues

Initial Eigenvalues				Extraction sums of squared loadings		
Component	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	4.846	53.842	53.842	4.846	53.842	53.842
2	1.627	18.078	71.921	1.627	18.078	71.921
3	.655	7.281	79.202			
4	.502	5.575	84.777			
5	.409	4.549	89.326			
6	.323	3.591	92.917			
7	.299	3.323	96.240			
8	.212	2.354	98.594			
9	.127	1.406	100.00			

The scree plot

The graph in Figure 4.6 represents the scree plot for the factor solution depicted in Table 4.6. A scree plot is a technique in the form of a graph designed to detect whether or not an eigenvalue is large enough to represent a meaningful factor and it reveals the relative importance of each factor (Field 2009:639). It assists in establishing where the gains in percentage of variance explained become small (Vogt 2007:236). In Figure 4.6, the number of factors is illustrated on the X-axis and the eigenvalue is shown on the Y-axis. In a scree plot the optimal number of factors is determined by picking the number of factors equal to the elbow of the scree plot minus one (Coussement *et al.* 2011:80). In this case, the scree plot suggests a two-factor solution as the scree plot begins to level off approximately after the second factor. This means that there are two major factors for succession planning.

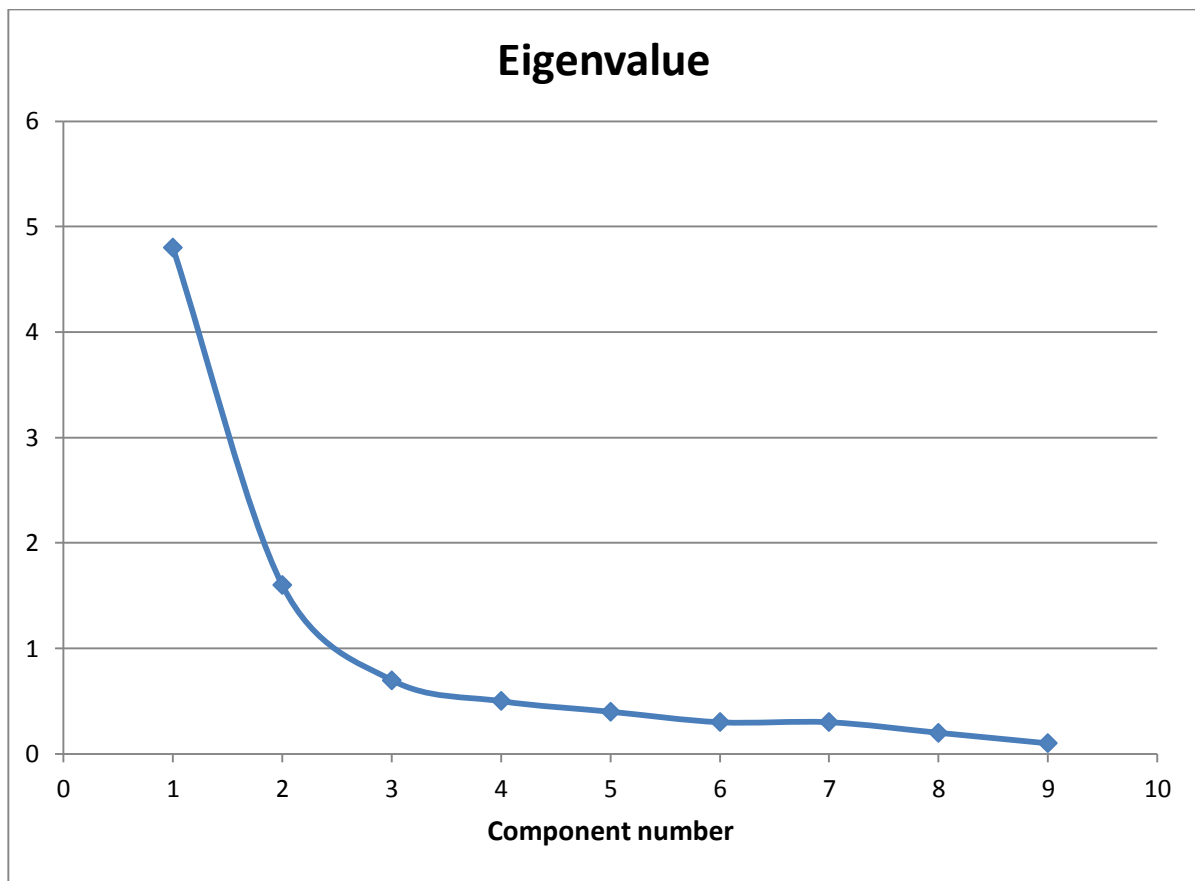


Figure 4.6: The scree plot

Rotated component matrix

The principal component method using varimax rotation reduced the nine variables to two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The factor loading is considered high when exceeding 0.50 for a sample size of around 100 respondents, exceeding 0.40 for a sample size of around 200 respondents and exceeding 0.30 for a sample size larger than 300 respondents (Coussement *et al.* 2011:83). The factors that each variable loaded mostly on are highlighted in Table 4.9. The first six items loaded strongly on factor one (replacement planning) and the last three loaded on factor two (employee development).

Table 4.7: Rotated component matrix

Component	1	2
Replacements are being prepared to fill key vacancies on short notice	0.843	0.069
Individuals are groomed to assume greater responsibilities for organisational continuity	0.880	0.149
Employees are prepared in advance to hold higher positions for organisational survival	0.901	0.089
Multiple potential successors are identified and developed for a range of positions	0.850	0.219
Lists of high potentials are developed, debated and regularly revised by multiple stakeholders	0.697	0.381
There is a trained cadre of replacement leaders standing ready to assume power when the Baby Boomer generation retires.	0.669	0.421
Employees are developed in order to be ready for advancement into key roles	0.162	0.827
There is a system for employee's competencies gap analysis in place	0.179	0.826
Career and personal plans are developed	0.141	0.819

Naming and interpretation of factors

Two factors, which had a major percentage as established in eigenvalues are discussed below.

Replacement planning

The loading of each variable related to succession planning is shown in Table 4.7. The first factor, replacement planning comprised of six variables and accounted for 53.8 percent of the variance, with an eigenvalue of 4.846. When there is no proper planning

of successors, employees become stressed and confused and consequently decide to leave. Reid (2005:37) states that if succession planning is appropriately implemented it lowers staff turnover because the staff morale will improve. Succession planning mitigates the intention to quit (Naveen 2006:681). The items that loaded on this factor relate to preparation of employees for higher positions, greater responsibilities, identification of employees for key positions as well as competencies required to perform in critical positions.

Employee development/grooming

The second factor employee development or grooming accounted for 18.08 percent of the variance with an eigenvalue of 1.627. The items that loaded on this factor reflect that development of employees is crucial for the public service to succeed in implementing succession planning and in a way retaining its employees. Arshadi and Shahbazi (2013:641) stipulate that one of the ways to prevent high performers from leaving the organisation is through training, which does not only develop them but also prepares them for succession planning. Training and development of employees for succession planning can be carried out using methods such as coaching, mentoring and workshops and/or seminars.

CORRELATION ANALYSIS

In order to achieve empirical objectives of the study, the Pearson correlation coefficient was used to measure the degree of linear association between constructs. The strength of the relationship between current practices to succession planning current practices, internal barriers to succession planning and intention to leave (ITL) was examined. According to Greasley (2008:77), correlation describes the direction and strength of the relationship between two interval variables and it is a general principle that a value ranging from 0.1 to 0.3 would be classed as a weak correlation, and one above 0.4 would be regarded as a moderate to strong correlation. Table 4.8 reflects that the marked correlations are either significant at $p < 0.01$, or $p < 0.05$.

Table 4.8: Correlations among study constructs

Constructs	Replacement planning	Grooming	Internal succession barriers	Intentions to leave
Replacement planning	1			
Grooming	.427**	1		
Internal barriers to succession planning	.153*	-.123	1	
Intention to leave	-.364**	-.372**	-.147*	1
** Correlations are significant at $p < 0.01$. * Correlations are significant at $p < 0.05$.				

Correlations: replacement planning and grooming

Positive correlations were found between replacement planning and grooming of employees ($r = 0.427$; $p < 0.000$). This indicates that if replacement planning takes place in the public service grooming becomes a natural programme in the implementation of succession planning. Suresh (2014:52) posit that grooming future leaders to replace old ones is very crucial today because leaders drive productivity, thus if there are gaps in their ability the organisational performance suffers.

Correlations: replacement planning and internal barriers to succession planning

Weak positive correlations were found between replacement planning and internal barriers to succession planning ($r = 0.153$; $p < 0.017$). These barriers were cited as too many things to do, already overloaded with work, focus on crisis management and restrictive rules on hiring.

Correlations: replacement planning and intention to leave

Replacement planning correlates negatively with intentions to leave ($r = -0.364$; $p < 0.000$) indicating that if replacements are not prepared there is a greater propensity for employees to leave the organisation. This is concurrent with the findings in the Dahiya, Samalkha, Mann, Gupta and Israna (2014:34) study where they found the lack training

and development opportunities in organisations increases employees' intentions to leave, thus making it very difficult to replace high performers.

Correlations: grooming and succession internal barriers

The correlation between grooming and internal barriers to succession planning displayed a negative relationship ($r=-.123$; $p<0.055$) indicating that when internal barriers are present they prevent the grooming of candidates for positions. Durst and Wilhelm (2012:640) affirm that if barriers to succession planning are inherent they make it very difficult to groom candidates.

Correlations: grooming and intention to leave

Grooming is associated negatively with intention to leave the organisation ($r=-.372$; $p<0.000$) meaning that employees who are groomed in the public service are more likely not to leave the public sector. An organisation that provides grooming opportunities values its employees, therefore, it prompts them to remain in the organisation (Veloso, Cunha da Silva, Dutra, Fischer & Trevison 2014:53).

Correlations: internal barriers to succession planning and intention to leave

Negative correlations were found between internal barriers to SP and intention to leave ($r=-0.147$; $p<0.022$) indicating that presence of barriers to succession planning increase employees' intention to leave. An organisation that fails to provide career development for its employees is at risk of losing its employees as a result of discontent (Kibui, Gachunga, & Namusonge 2014:421).

In addition to correlation analysis, regression analysis was also conducted and the results are discussed in the next section.

REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Having established the strength of correlations between the variables, a regression analysis was also done as correlation analysis only measures the strength of a relationship but does not determine predictive relationships between variables. Gray (2009:485) posits that regression analysis is also used to understand which amongst

the independent variables are related to the dependent variable, and to explore the forms of these relationships. Regression analysis was performed to test whether the independent variables, namely succession planning current practice and succession internal barriers predict the dependent variable (intention to leave).

Table 4.9 represents the regression analysis regarding the current practices to succession planning and intention to leave. In total the two factors (replacement planning and grooming) explained approximately 19 percent ($R^2 = 0.190$) of the variance in employees overall intention to leave the public service. In terms of the beta weights lack of grooming is a stronger prediction of intention to leave the public service, followed by replacement planning, *inter alia* the absence of replacement planning and grooming may cause employees to leave the organisation.

This is affirmed by Harun and Mom (2014:70) who state that the efficiency and survival of organisations, as well as the retention of the best employees, depends on the development of future leaders for replacement. Additionally Omisore (2013:26) concluded that if the organisational talent is not identified and prepared in advance, it will lead to the public service being incompetent. Therefore, it is succession planning that retains, prepares, develops, improves and retains the human capital of every organisation (Gulza & Durrani 2014:169).

Table 4.9: Regression analysis: current practices to succession planning and intention to leave

	Dependent variable: intention to leave				
Independent variables: succession practices	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	t	Sig
Replacements planning	-.378	.097	-.257	-3.909	.000
Grooming	-.413	.100	-.265	-4.119	.000
R= .436a R ² =.190 Adjusted R ² =.183					

Table 4.10 presents the regression results for internal barriers to succession planning and intention to leave. Current practices, $R^2=0.021$ explained approximately 0.02 percent of the variance in overall intentions to leave. The beta weight ($\beta = -.147$) indicating that the presence of internal barriers to succession planning in the public service although significant ($p=0.000$) does not impact negatively on employees' intentions to leave.

Table 4.10: Regression analysis: internal barriers to succession planning and intention to leave.

	Dependent variable: intention to leave				
Independent variables: succession practices	Unstandardised coefficients		Standardised coefficients		
	B	Std. error	Beta	t	Sig
Internal succession barriers	-.279	.121	-.147	-.2.301	.022
$R = .147^a$ $R^2 = .021$ Adjusted $R^2 = .017$					

In the next section, the independent sample t- test is discussed in order to examine whether male and female employees vary in their intention to leave the public service.

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

Group statistics for each of the two gender groups, namely males and the females are reported in Table 4.11. On examining the means between male ($m=3.5$) and female ($m=3.47$) very little difference between the means were found.

Table 4.11: Group statistics – male and female

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error mean
Intention to leave	A1 (Male)	52	3.5192	1.07540	.14913
	A2 (Female))	191	3.4764	1.14540	.08288

The independent sample t-test further reported in Table 4.12 showed no significant differences between male and female respondents' intentions to leave the public sector ($F = 0.389$; $t = 0.533$; $p = 0.533$).

Table 4.12 Independent sample test – gender and intention to leave

Intentions to leave	Levene's test for equality of variance		T-test equality of means	
	F	Sig	t	df
Equal variances assumed	.389	.533	.242	.241
Equal variances not assumed			.251	85.186

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA)

The ANOVA was computed to detect whether there were any statistically significant differences between intention to leave and position held in the organisation, intention to leave and the various age categories, and intention to leave and length of service.

ANOVA - Intention to leave and position held

The first group analysis was between (A2), position held by respondents, namely officer, manager and director and their intentions to leave the public sector. Table 4.13 presents the results of the ANOVA which shows that significant differences ($p < 0.05$; $p = 0.000$), exists between groups (officers, managers and directors) and their intentions to leave the public sector.

Table 4.13: ANOVA - Intention to leave and position held

Dimension	Groups	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Intention to leave	Between groups	30.927	2	15.463	13.379	.000*
	Within groups	277.398	240	1,156		
	Total	308.325	242			

*Significant at $p < 0.05$

As a result of the differences between group means, post-hoc multiple comparisons were computed to identify where there are differences. The results of the post-hoc analysis are presented in Table 4.14. Significant differences were noted between the levels of officer (mean = 3.62), manager (mean = 3.67) and director (mean=2.65). Table 4.14 shows that there is no statistically significant differences ($p=0.81$) between the levels of officers and managers to leave the public service.

Table 4.14 shows that participants holding positions of officer and manager provided moderate ratings (moderate agreement) of their intentions to leave ($M=3.63$, $SD=1.09$) and ($M=3.67$, $SD=0.82$) respectively. However, participants in director positions seem to show no intentions to leave the public service ($M=2.66$, $SD=1.29$). One possible reason is that holders of director positions receive more benefits, which serve as motivation for them to stay (Chew & Chan 2008:506). This is also confirmed by Ghosh *et al.* (2013:290) who indicated that financial rewards and other benefits are among the factors that fuel retention, and that employees stay longer in positions where their voices are heard and they are involved in the decision-making process. Moreover, the literature had revealed that senior employees occupying top positions are reluctant to quit because they are usually satisfied with their jobs including among other things pay (Labatmediene, Endriulaitiene & Gustainiene 2007:208).

Table 4.14: Post hoc analysis – Intention to leave and position held

Dependent Variable	(I) A2	(J) A2	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Intention to leave	1 (officer) (M=3.62)	2 (manager) (M=3.67)	-.04289	.17732	.809
		3 (director) (M=2.65)	.97109*	.19437	.000
	2 (manager) (M=3.67)	3 (director) (M=2.65)	1.01398*	.23344	.000
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. Scale item rating: 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3=moderately agree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.					

ANOVA - Intention to leave and age

The second group analysis was between (A3), age categories of respondents, namely between 20-19 years, between 30-39 years, between 40-49 years as well as over 49 years and their intentions to leave the public sector. Table 4.15 presents the output of the ANOVA which shows that significant differences ($p < 0.05$; $p = 0.000$), exists between groups (between 20-19 years, between 30-39 years, between 40-49 years and over 49 years) and their intentions to leave the public service.

Table 4.15: ANOVA - Intention to leave and age

Dimension	Groups	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Intention to leave	Between groups	43.025	3	14.342	12.920	.000
	Within groups	265.299	239	1.110		
	Total	308.325	242			
*Significant at $p < 0.05$						

As a result of the differences, between group means post-hoc multiple comparisons were computed to identify where the differences were. The results of the post-hoc analysis are presented in Table 4.16. The results show the following statistical significant differences.

Table 4.16 shows significant differences in the following age categories and intention to leave the public service.

Employees between the age categories 20-29 years ($m = 3.42$) and those over 49 years ($m = 2.48$).

Employees between the age categories 30-39 years ($m = 3.80$) and those over 49 years ($m = 2.48$).

It seems that those employees who are younger (between 20-29 years, $m = 3.42$, between 30-39 years, $m = 3.80$) show greater propensity to leave the public service. However, on the contrary, those employees who are older (over 49 years, $m = 2.48$) do

not show any propensity to leave the public service. A plausible reason for the scenario may be that when employees get older they perceive their organisation as supportive and subsequently have no intention to leave the organisation (Cheung & Wu 2013:655). This is in conjunction with the side bet theory, which suggests that committed employees are committed because they have accumulated investments (side bets) by remaining in the organisation for a longer period, therefore, leaving the organisation will be costly to them (Weibo, Kaur & Jun 2010:13). These findings are also in agreement with those of Khan, Khan, Kundi, Yar and Saif (2014:5), which concluded that employees that had served an organisation for longer periods of time are more committed and consequently reluctant to leave the organisation.

On the contrary, younger employees have no emotional attachment and have no accrued investments, therefore, are liable to leave whenever it suits them (Labatmediene, *et al.* 2007:208). Ryan, Ghazali and Mohsin (2011: 354) ascertain younger employees have a tendency to solve problems by moving away and are usually uncertain about their job patterns, which make them more likely to leave organisations.

Table 4.16: Post hoc analysis – Intention to leave and age

Dependent variable	(I) A3	(J) A3	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.
Intention to leave	1 (between 20-29 years) (mean=3.42)	2 (between 30-39 years) (M =3.80)	-.38016	.18581	.042
		4 (Over 49 years) (M=2.48).	.93672	.23538	.000
	2 (between 30-39 years) (mean=3.80)	4 (over 49 years) (M=2.48).	1.31688*	.21540	.000
* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. Scale item rating: 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3=moderately agree; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.					

ANOVA - Intention to leave and length of service

The third group analysis of variance was between (A5), length of service in the (between 6-10 years; between 11-15 years; between 16-20 years; between 21-30 and over 30 years) and their intentions to leave the public service. Table 4.17 presents the results of the ANOVA which shows that significant differences ($p < 0.05$; $p = 0.000$), exist between the length of service and employee intentions to leave the public service.

Table 4.17: ANOVA - Intention to leave and length of service

Dimension	Groups	Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Intention to leave	Between groups	13.955	4	3.489	2.821	.026
	Within groups	294.370	238	1.237		
	Total	308.325	242			
*Significant at $p < 0.05$						

As a result of the differences, between group means post-hoc multiple comparisons were computed to identify where the differences were. The results of the post-hoc analysis are presented in Table 4.18. There were significant differences between participants with a length of service between 11-15 years (mean=3.85) and between 21-29 years (mean=3.12); between 11-15 years (mean=3.85) and over 30 years (mean=2.94). On examining the means, it seems that those employees with fewer years of service have a greater propensity to leave the organisation. A plausible explanation for this finding is that usually employees with less years of service have not accrued more terminal benefits, which according to Ghosh *et al.* (2013:290) are motivators for employees to stay in an organisation.

Table 4.18: Post hoc analysis – Intention to leave and length of service

Dependent Variable	(I) A5	(J) A5	Mean difference (I-J)	Std. error	Sig.
Intention to leave	2 (between 11-15 years) (Mean=3.85)	3 (between 16-20 years)(M=3.51)	.34184	.22469	.129
		4 (between 21-20 years)(M=3.12)	.72532*	.24222	.003
		5 (over 30 years)(M=2.94)	.90242*	.40332	.026
	3 (between 16-20 years) (Mean=3.51)	4 (between 21-20 years)	.38348	.24222	.115
		5 (over 30 years)(M=2.94)	.56066	.40332	.166

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Scale item rating: 1= strongly disagree; 2= disagree; 3= moderate agreement; 4= Agree; 5= Strongly agree.

RELIABILITY

The reliability results are provided in Table 4.19. The Cronbach alpha coefficient test provided a satisfactory indication of reliability of the instrument except for the succession internal barriers, which has a Cronbach alpha of 0.691 that is marginally acceptable. The other two constructs, namely succession planning current practices and intentions to leave reported Cronbach alpha's of 0.895 and 0.899 respectively, which reflect acceptable levels of reliability since they are above the benchmark level of 0.70 (Malhotra & Peterson 2006:274).

Table 4.19: Overall reliability of the instrument

Sections of the questionnaire (scale)	Cronbach alpha (α)	Number of items
Section B: Succession planning current practices	0.895	10
Section C: Internal succession barriers	0.691	4
Section D: Intentions to leave	0.899	4

In the following section, the various forms of validity established for this study are discussed.

VALIDITY

According to Malhotra and Birks (2006:737) the validity of a measurement instrument is the extent to which the instrument measures what it is actually intended to measure. The following measures of validity, namely face/content, construct, and convergent validity methods are discussed in the next sub-sections.

Face/content validity

Content validity was ascertained through pre-testing of the questionnaire prior to the main survey. It was pre-tested and reviewed by a panel of experts, including experts in human resource management, to check for suitability of questions, and whether the questions measure the relevant constructs in the study.

In addition, the pilot-testing stage was undertaken to establish where changes had to be made to the questionnaire concerning the removal of items, addition of items, rewording and rephrasing of questions through the computation of the Cronbach alpha reliability.

Construct validity

McDaniel and Gates (2002:304) describe construct validity as the degree to which a measurement instrument represents and logically connects, via the underlying theory and the observed phenomenon to the construct. The construct validity of the scale was ascertained through the computation of Cronbach alpha coefficient for the scale which was acceptable (refer to Table 4.21). Construct validity was also ensured by performing a factor analysis procedure to establish a suitable factor structure with no cross-loading of variables among the factors.

Convergent validity

Pearson's correlation coefficient was used to assess convergent validity to measure the degree of linear association of variables. The correlations are shown in Table 4.8. The factor correlation showed a positive correlation between succession planning

current practices and intentions to leave ($r = 0.372$; $p < 0.000$), thus providing evidence of convergence between variables.

Predictive validity

Predictive validity of the measuring instrument was ascertained through linear regression analysis of scales items (refer to Section 4.7). Replacement planning and grooming showed high predictive relationship with intention to leave, thus providing evidence of predictive validity. The result of the regression analysis conducted for this study indicates that approximately 19 percent of the variance in employee overall intention to leave is accounted for by replacement planning and grooming. Furthermore, the results of this study show that in terms of beta weights grooming is a stronger predictions of intention to leave the public service ($\beta = -.265$).

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter reported on the empirical results of the study. It contains a detailed discussion of the pilot study. Therefore, the results of the main survey findings are discussed. The results were found reliable as indicated by the Cronbach's alpha achieved in Section B, Section C and Section D.

A descriptive analysis for Section A on the biographical information of the respondents was provided. Correlation and regression analyses were performed. The ANOVA was undertaken to establish whether there were statistically significant differences between the groups mean scores regarding the intentions to leave. The groups were categorised as follows: gender, position, length of service in the current position and age. To test the appropriateness of factor analysis, Bartlett's test and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy were used. Eigenvalues, percentage of variance and scree plot were also used as criteria to extract the three factors. Reliability and validity assessment procedures were also conducted.

In the next and final chapter, a general overview of the study is provided. The achievement of the theoretical and empirical objectives is discussed. Recommendations, limitations, and implications for future research arising from the study are provided. Finally, the concluding remarks are presented.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides an overview of the study with the objective to report on specific findings that led to the conclusions made. The chapter will furthermore report on the findings with similar studies conducted in the past, in order to determine the contribution of the current study. Lastly, recommendations and limitations will follow as the closure of the study.

The main purpose of this study was to examine the succession planning current practices and internal succession barriers, and determine their relationship with intentions to leave within the public service of a developing country. For the purpose of accomplishing this objective, succession planning factors were thoroughly discussed. The current implementation practices of succession planning and internal succession barriers thereof were perused and explained, as well as the relationship they have with intentions to leave.

Based on the results of this study a number of conclusions were drawn. The following sections highlight how the theoretical and empirical objectives were met.

THEORETICAL OBJECTIVES

Theoretical objectives in this study were achieved through analysis of the relevant literature. These objectives were formulated at the beginning of the study (refer to Section 1.4.2).

Objective one: To conduct a literature review on succession planning

This theoretical objective was achieved through the perusal and thorough revision of the literature in various sources such as books, journal articles and other review sources in Chapter 2, sections 2.3, 2.4, 2.5, 2.6 and 2.8 respectively. In Section 2.3, various succession planning definitions were outlined, and in Section 2.3.1 the importance of succession planning in organisation was provided. The succession

planning process was achieved in Section 2.3.2, whilst the best practices recommended for the successful implementation of succession planning were discussed in Section 2.5. In Section 2.6, succession planning benefits in organisation were also discussed. The theories underpinning succession planning were reviewed in Section 2.8.

Objective two: To conduct a review of the literature on the barriers to succession planning

To achieve objective two, barriers to the proper implementation of succession planning in organisations generally were identified in Chapter 2, Section 2.7.1. Among the barriers discovered were resistance to change, false expectation of employees included in succession plans, belief that leaders are irreplaceable, resistance to change, incompetent HR professionals, and the fear of leaving the organisation.

Objective three: To conduct a literature review on barriers to succession planning experienced by the public service

Barriers that affect the implementation of succession planning in the public service such as short-term contractual appointment of top government officials and resistance to transfer of knowledge amongst public service employees, politicised environments, unwillingness to apply for top positions by capable prospective leaders and budgetary constraints were presented in Section 2.7.

Objective four: To conduct a literature review on the reasons for employee turnover in organisations

This objective was achieved by engaging in a detailed review of the causes of intention to leave in Section 2.9.2. Some of the reasons found include:

Job designs

Insufficient compensation

Unfavourable working conditions

Inadequate training and developmental opportunities

Lack of supervisory support.

Objective five: To review the literature on the relationship between barriers to succession planning and turnover intentions in organisations

This objective was achieved in Section 2.10 where it was found that successful and proper succession planning can prevent staff turnover (Arshadi & Shahbazi 2013:641) and a high rate of staff turnover at leadership level hinders the development of future successors.

EMPIRICAL OBJECTIVES

The empirical objectives formulated at the beginning of the study were:

Objective one: To examine the current practices of succession planning in the public service of a developing country

This objective was achieved in Section 4.4.1 (means for succession planning) and 4.5.3 (extraction of factors). In Section 4.5.3, where components of succession planning were extracted, two dimensions were extracted, namely replacement planning and grooming. The means obtained in Section 4.4.1 when analysing the participants' responses ascertained that individuals are neither groomed to assume greater responsibilities, nor are they prepared in advance to cope in higher positions in the public service. This is in line with the conclusion by Fredericksen (2010:55) that most governments hesitate to undertake formal workforce planning including succession planning.

Based on these findings it can be concluded, therefore, that succession planning is not implemented appropriately in the public service. Galbraith *et al.* (2012:226) indicated that some organisations perceive succession planning as important but only practice it to a certain extent by applying some principles and ignoring others.

Objective two: To identify the barriers to proper implementation of succession planning within the public service of a developing country

Conclusions were drawn based on the findings in Section 4.4.2 (means for internal barriers to succession planning), where it was identified that the major barriers to implementation of succession planning in the public service are as follows:

A lack of time to make succession plans due to other duties that need to be performed by managers

Most of the time people accountable for succession planning are already overloaded with work

Focus usually is given to crisis management rather than proactive management

Restrictive rules on hiring.

Objective three: To determine the nature of the relationship between the current practices, barriers and turnover intentions of employees within the public service of a developing country

The above empirical objective was achieved in Section 4.6, subsections 4.6.3, 4.6.5 and 4.6.6 respectively. It was found that replacement planning, which is the first component of succession planning, positively correlates with intentions to leave ($r = -.364$; $p < 0.000$) indicating that with low preparation of replacements, intentions to leave among employees will increase.

Employee development or grooming also showed a positive correlation with intention to leave ($r = -.372$; $p < 0.000$), meaning that grooming employees in the public service may result in the likelihood of employees to stay in the public sector. Therefore, conclusions can be drawn that succession planning current practices have a negative relationship with intention to leave.

Negative correlations were found between internal barriers to succession planning and intention to leave ($r = -0.147$; $p < 0.022$), indicating that internal barriers to succession planning make employees eager to leave the public service. Regression analysis established that replacement planning and grooming explained approximately 19 percent ($R^2 = 0.190$) of the variance in employees overall intention to leave the public service.

Objective four: To examine whether there are any significant relationships between positions held in the organisation, age and length of service in the organisation with intention to leave

Significant differences ($p < 0.05$; $p = 0.000$), were found between groups of participants holding positions of officers, managers and directors, participants of different age categories and respondents of different lengths of service with regard to their intentions to leave the public service in Section 4.9.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to win the war against the brain drain it is of paramount importance for the public service to engage both policy makers and academics alike in succession planning to assist with strategies to preserve talent and retain highly competent key employees, which will subsequently increase the ability of the public service to provide excellent services. A number of recommendations for the implementation of succession planning in the public service are made.

The mean scores for the current practices to succession planning variables ranged between 2.23 to 1.58, which indicate that respondents disagreed with the fact that succession planning is practiced appropriately in the public service. It is of utmost importance that when conducting succession planning, top management set overall direction and goals (Jacobson 2010:370). According to Ghosh *et al.* (2013:290) prior to undertaking succession planning a mission, vision and values that accommodate the contributions of employees should be developed. This will not only ensure that succession planning process is conducted appropriately, but also ascertain the retention of the best employees (Caillier 2011:112).

The major succession planning factors, which were identified through factor analysis, namely replacement planning and grooming, returned means scores of 1.58 and 1.81 respectively, which indicate that the right process of succession planning is not followed in the public service for selecting successors. When implementing succession planning, clear, transparent and objective criteria should be followed, therefore, to achieve the optimal results the public service should engage in a proper succession planning process (Mehrtak, Vatankhah, Delgoshaei & Gholipour 2014:178).

Based on the findings in Section 4.4.1 (means for current practices to succession planning) it is further recommended that the following succession planning best practices should be adopted by the public service to ensure that succession planning is implemented and practised successfully;

Facilitation of an outside private consultant – for succession planning to be effective and rewarding in the public service it should be facilitated by an outside private consultant

Understanding of factors that influence succession planning – the public service should understand the necessity to know and address factors that influence willingness to share knowledge by employees.

The mean scores for internal barriers to succession planning in Section 4.4.2 ranged from 3.57 to 3.74, which suggest that participants agreed that there are internal barriers to succession planning, which negatively impact on succession planning. Subsequently, it is recommended that the barriers mentioned below should be addressed as they hinder effective succession planning.

Short term contractual appointment

Electing or appointing top public service employees for short-term contractual employment should be avoided as it hinders the implementation of long-term programmes, which include succession planning. Therefore, it is recommended that longer terms of appointment be provided for top public service employees.

Budgetary constraints

Usually succession planning is not viewed as one of the priorities during budgetary meetings and thus is not included in the budget, which makes it difficult to undertake. To make succession planning successful it is recommended that it should be listed as one of the priorities in the public service strategic plan in order to be included in the budget.

Unwillingness of younger generation to apply for higher positions

The unwillingness and hesitation of younger employees to apply for leadership positions such as those of supervisors and middle managers by capable prospective persons posits an obstacle to proper and implementable succession

planning. It is recommended that young vibrant and competent employees be motivated, groomed and prepared to apply for leadership or key positions in the public service.

STUDY LIMITATIONS

This study advances and contributes to the literature on succession planning, especially to the current understanding of what succession planning practices are being used by the public service of a developing country. However, as with every study of this nature, the study was subject to certain limitations that may pave the way for further research opportunities. The limitations are discussed as follows:

The sample was drawn from officers, managers and directors stationed in one district (in the capital city). A broader national sample would have offered additional insights not only limited to the capital city. Responses from junior employees would have potentially offered an additional perspective, but in this study they were not included in the sample and, therefore, they could be included in future studies.

The study was based on a small sample due to financial constraints; therefore, the findings must be treated with caution when drawing conclusions. In this study only a quantitative approach was followed, which limits the information collected, however, a broader scope of information could have been acquired if this approach was mixed with a qualitative approach. The respondents, of their own accord, completed the questionnaire and the researcher had no control over the responses; therefore, the researcher had to rely on information supplied by the respondents.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite the limitations, the findings of this study pointed to several useful insights, which may be used by other researchers in other developing countries for future research. The barriers to succession planning, specifically in the public service, need to be explored further in order to devise new strategies and/or approaches to succession planning.

The study was restricted to examining the relationship between succession planning and intentions to leave, therefore future studies could embark on investigating the

succession relationship with other attributes that influence employees' perceptions such as motivation, commitment, job satisfaction, career development and working conditions.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

The literature reveals that no single practice of succession planning can fit all organisations (Gothard & Austin 2013:279). Yet, there are a number of factors that may enhance the effectiveness of the succession planning process, depending on the uniqueness of the organisation's specific features (Mehrabani & Mohamad 2011b:38). Succession planning ensures that the organisation has sufficient and appropriate quality of capable employees in key and/or leadership positions to cater for any loss of key employees in future.

Succession planning will also assist the public service employees with new knowledge, new competencies and new insights that will transform and complement what has come before, and consequently the public service will provide a service that is beyond the predictability (Omisore 2013:27). Akin to other human resource management changes and initiatives, succession planning requires long-term and significant commitment from top management and other stakeholders.

In this study, it was identified that for succession planning to be successful in the public service, there are a number of obstacles that should be dealt with or avoided. These barriers include budgetary constraints, not making succession planning a priority, and managers who are always busy and sometimes overloaded with work.

Organisations that do not have succession plans or do not appropriately implement such plans fail to retain their valued employees. The findings of this study revealed that employees view such organisations as lacking recognition for their employees, thus most of the employees decide to leave. According to responses from participants in the study, the main factors that influence the effective implementation of succession planning in the public service are:

Preparing employees through training

Management support

Clarifying the career path

Creating a positive vision.

Additionally, participants indicated that the absence of the above-mentioned factors could act as a barrier to the implementation of succession planning. The findings of this study indicate that managers who are too busy and focus on crisis management were identified as major barriers hindering succession planning in public service.

Two factors of succession planning, namely grooming of employees and replacement planning, which play a vital role in influencing employees' perceptions of either staying or leaving the organisation, were identified through factor analysis. Finally, it is essential that decision makers identify through succession planning, the type of manpower that the organisation have in order to develop mechanisms to transfer critical organisational knowledge and mentoring programmes to shepherd the right talent, into the right positions at the right time

Research on succession planning is still limited, especially in the public service, and this presents countless research opportunities for both academics and practitioners.

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ANNEXURE A- COVER LETTER

Department of Human Resource Management

Vaal University of Technology

Dear Participant,

RESEARCH PROJECT

I am conducting a Masters Research on Succession Planning: Current practices, internal succession barriers and their relationship with intentions to leave within the public service of a developing country, in fulfilment of the requirement for the award of M-Tech. Degree Human Resource Management in the faculty of Management Sciences.

A humble request is made to you to complete the attached questionnaire by yourself and confidentially. You are assured that the information you provide will be treated with the highest confidentiality and you will remain anonymous. The response will be used for research purposes only.

Thanking Thank you in advance for your anticipated cooperation, time and effort in completing the questionnaire.

Nomalinge Amelia Pita
Department of Human Resource Management
Vaal University of Technology
Vanderbijlpark
Gauteng
South Africa
Cell: 00266 56048242
E-mail: noma.tlax@yahoo.com

ANNEXURE B- QUESTIONNAIRE

SUCCESSION PLANNING: CURRENT PRACTICES, INTERNAL BARRIERS AND RELATIONSHIP WITH EMPLOYEES' INTENTIONS TO LEAVE WITHIN THE PUBLIC SERVICE

This questionnaire seeks to establish current practices to succession planning, internal barriers to succession planning and the relationship with the employees' intentions to leave within the Public Service in a developing country.

SECTION A- DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

This section solicits demographic information of candidates and consists of dichotomous and multiple choice type of questions. Please tick with a crossing (x) the answer that describes your characteristics.

A1	Your gender	Male				Female	
A2	Position	Officer		Manager		Director	
A3	Age category	Between 20-29 years		Between 30-39 years		Between 40-49 years	
A4	Salary grade	G	H	I	J	K	Other (Specify) _____
A5	Length of service in the current position	Between 6-10 years		Between 11-15 years		Between 16-20 years	
						Between 21-30 years	
						Over 30 years	

SECTION B: CURRENT PRACTICES TO SUCCESSION PLANNING

We would like to find out a little more about current practices to succession planning within the public service in a developing country. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by circling the corresponding number between **1 (Strongly disagree)**, **3= (Moderately agree)** and **5 (Strongly agree)**.

B1	Replacements are being prepared to fill key vacancies on short notice.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B2	Individuals are trained to assume greater responsibilities for organizational continuity.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B3	Employees are prepared in advance to hold higher positions for organizational survival.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B4	Multiple potential successors are identified and developed for a range of positions.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B5	Lists of high potentials are developed, debated and regularly revised by multiple stakeholders.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B6	There is a trained cadre of replacement leaders standing ready to assume power when the baby boomers generation retires.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B7	Key roles for succession planning are identified.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B8	Competencies and specifications required to undertake key roles are defined.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B9	Employees are developed in order to be ready for advancement into key roles.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B10	There is a system for employee's competencies gap analysis in place.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
B11	Career and personal plans are developed.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

SECTION C: INTERNAL BARRIERS TO SUCCESSION PLANNING

We would like to find out a little more about internal barriers to succession planning within the public service of a developing country. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by encircling the corresponding number between **1 (Strongly disagree)**, **3= (Moderately agree)** and **5 (Strongly agree)**.

C1	Too many things to do	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C2	Already overloaded with work	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C3	Focus on crisis management	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C4	Lack of available time to plan	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
C5	Restrictive rules on hiring	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

SECTION D: INTENTIONS TO LEAVE

We would like to find out a little more about your intentions to leave the public service. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by encircling the corresponding number between **1 (Strongly disagree)**, **3= (Moderately agree)** and **5 (Strongly agree)**.

D1	In the last six months I have thought of quitting my job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
D2	I often think of quitting my job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
D3	I am currently looking for another job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree
D4	In the next six months, I will be searching for another job.	Strongly disagree	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly agree

Thank for your time and cooperation. Your views are much appreciated.

