The Effect of Leadership Style on Talent Management Practices
Comparative Study between Public and Private Sector in Egypt

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Abstract
This study is an exploratory study aims to investigate the impact of leadership styles on talent management processes by comparing between public and private sector in Egypt. The paper surveyed literature review of the talent management (TM) concept and Hersey & Blanchard leadership model. The study findings leadership styles more likely impacts Talent management processes in private sector than public sector as illustrated through paper. Which, deeply interwoven and opens up new questions to be explored by future research identified through paper.

Keywords: Leadership, Situational theory model, Talent management

1. Introduction
Talent management is increasingly discussed in the HRM and HRD literature (Stahl et al., 2007; Collings et al., 2011). It is a set of practices that are implemented in organisations (CIPD, 2011; McDonnell et al., 2010), and refers to how organisations attract, select, develop and manage employees in an integrated and strategic way (Scullion and Collings, 2011). Talent development represents an important component of the overall talent management process (Novations, 2009, Cappelli, 2009). While it is possible for organisations to pursue a strategy that focuses on talent acquisition from the external labour market, such a strategy is unlikely to be successful in the long term. It is well established that there are significant advantages to be gained from an internal development approach and that organisations need to acquire and develop industry – and firm-specific knowledge and skills (Lepak and Snell, 1999) in order to be competitive. As a consequence, organisations are likely to make significant investments in talent development activities, so that talented employees possess the competencies to successfully implement business strategy. Talent development activities are typically undertaken by organisations to ensure that there are zero talent outages, to ensure planned succession rather than replacement, and to enhance the organisations’ reputation as a talent magnet (Gandz, 2006).

In searching the literature there is a scarcity in studying talent management phenomena with a lot of antecedent such as leadership style which considered the most effective factor in enhancing and developing human capital pool in the organization.

So the recent study aimed to investigate the effect of leadership style by applying hersey and Blanchard model on the talent management processes through conductive comparative analysis between public and private sector in Egypt.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section two discusses the relevant literature. Section three presents research methodology, model, and data collection. Section four examines the results and analysis of this investigation. Finally, section five concludes this paper by outlining the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

2. Talent Management
The emergence of the global marketplace has exacerbated greater attention to the phenomenon of TM. Initially, HRM activities were fundamental practices for collating job incumbent entitlements and recording of recruitment details that were often undertaken through family connections. With the passage of time, and the availability of information technology (IT), these activities have been electronically formulated, and the relevance of education and job experience has become a prominent feature. During the mid-1990s, international business activities intensified and the scarcity of qualified and competent people became apparent which encouraged organisations to aggressively invest in the development of personnel and the attraction of industry ready or equipped personnel with necessary skill sets (Bhatnagar, 2006).

Talent management has become a central component of corporate human resource strategies and has recently gained increasing interest in the area of HRM/HRD research (Berger and Berger, 2003; Burbach and Royle, 2010; Capelli, 2008). Talent management is not a new concept (see, e.g. Patton, 1967), but talent management research is scarce (Burbach and Royle, 2010, Collings and Mellahi, 2009). The increasing focus on talent has spread from knowledge-intensive organisations to wider segments in the labour market. Since 1997, when the consultancy firm McKinsey suggested that the global war for talent is becoming a critical driving force in corporate competitiveness and performance, the notion of talent management has become increasingly popular (Axelrod et al., 2002; Michaels et al., 2001). However, there is no consensus regarding the definition of talent, and there are no clear conceptual boundaries of talent management (Collings and Mellahi, 2009). In the literature, the concept of talent management is generally ill-defined or is defined inconsistently in terms of outcomes, processes,
or decision alternatives. Lewis and Heckman (2006) conducted an extensive and critical review of the talent management literature both in the professional and academic press and found a “disturbing lack of clarity” concerning its definition. They did, however, identify three primary conceptions of the term. The first is that talent management is comprised of “a collection of typical human resource department practices such as recruiting, selection, development, and career and succession management”. From this perspective, they argued that talent management may be little more than a trendy term or euphemism for HRM. However, they also suggested that talent management may additionally imply a systems approach to carrying out these functions; one that involves technology (e.g. the internet or software) and takes place at the level of the whole enterprise.

Lewis and Heckman’s (2006) second conception of talent management more specifically focuses on predicting or modeling (in support of managing) the flow of human resources throughout the organization, based on such factors as workforce skills, supply and demand, and growth and attrition. From this perspective, talent management is considered more or less synonymous with human resource or workforce planning, particularly if automated and connected with other organizational databases and systems.

The third and final perspective on talent management identified by Lewis and Heckman (2006) focuses on sourcing, developing, and rewarding employee talent. Many HRM practitioner publications advocate the differential treatment of employees identified as having exceptional talent (i.e. high potential or high performing employees). This perspective was reflected in a recent Conference Board report in which talent was defined as “individuals who have the capability to make a significant difference to the current and future performance of the company” (Morton, 2004).

Proponents of this perspective typically refer to case study and other anecdotal forms of evidence, in which organizations pursuing this approach reportedly realize gains in sales and profitability. This was the case in the work of Handfield-Jones et al. (2001), the efficacy of which was later discounted (Lewis and Heckman, 2006). Generally, the notion of talent management appears to be closely related to concepts that include human resource planning, strategic human resource management, and employability (Brown and Hesketh, 2004; Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Lewis and Heckman, 2006).

Also, there are some attempts of researchers to define Talent management as: Davis & Cutt (2007) define talent management as ‘the recruitment, development and retention of individuals who consistently deliver superior performance’, while Bechet describes a four phase talent management process: strategy and competency alignment, talent acquisition, talent development and talent retention. Bassi & Costello (2009), describe talent management framework that emphasizes acquisition, transitions, development, diversity, and succession and performance management.

2.2 A brief history of talent management:
In the 1970s, the general approach to solving staffing problems using tools that not help the organizations to understand how requirements changed as business needs evolved. Succession planning was in part designed to fill this deficit and an approach for planning leadership needs. In the late 1990s, workforce planning and succession planning began to fall out of favor and in their stead talent management began to emerge. This falling out was due to general failure among planners to recognize that strategic planning and position driven forecasting were not the same thing.

These deficiencies expose talent management to the stickiness associated with hierarchy, the rules of optimization, isolate human capital practice from the needs of the business and focus attention on employee numbers rather than a configuration of capabilities.

2.3 The strategic importance of talent management
On the basis of substantive research undertaken for our forthcoming report (see sidebox, right), we argue that good TM is of strategic importance and can differentiate an organization when it becomes a core competence – and when its talent significantly improves strategy execution and operational excellence. For example, imagine your company has the right talent in pivotal roles at the right time. What difference will these people make to revenues, innovation and organization effectiveness compared with having to operate without them? What are the cost of the lost opportunities – and the downtime and replacement costs – of losing critical talent? What are the consequences of having to make do with the wrong kind of leaders and managers in the top two executive layers – or of not having successors groomed and ready to replace them? Yet generally, organizations still struggle with TM. According to research, three-quarters of business leaders have invested dedicated resources in TM – but most say they haven’t yet felt the impact of doing so.3 Why not? Through our research, we tried to provide reasons by asking these questions: • Why are you doing TM? Is it for the individual, the organization or both? • What do you mean by talent – and talent management? • What are your propositions for attracting and retaining talent? • How do you manage and use the talent your organization needs? • How are internal roles and resources deployed appropriately to support TM? • How is TM integrated across HR processes and with business planning and strategy execution processes?
These are the difficult aspects of talent management which take much thinking and planning to resolve.

2.4 Talent management practices:

a) Talent acquisition:
Talent acquisition the “war for talent” has focused on acquiring and assimilating “the best”. Human resources play a significant role in reaching organization effectiveness and performance (Huselid, 1995). Talent has become the key differentiator for human capital management and for leveraging competitive advantage (Bhatnagar, 2004). With better talent acquisition, employee engagement improves and so does the productivity. Maximizing team engagement, motivation, and retention through due diligence in talent acquisition is vital in today’s highly competitive environment. Only a talent resourcing process that is well-defined and well-executed from start to finish yields consistent, compliant results – and is a competitive advantage in the war for talent (Ronn, 2007).

b) Talent development
There is surprisingly little published research on global talent development issues and literature that defines the scope and sets the boundaries of the concept (Cohn et al., 2005; Younger and Cleemann, 2010; Garavan et al., 2009; Cook, 2010). However, it is acknowledged that talent development represents an important component of global talent management (Scullion and Collings, 2011; Barlow, 2006; CIPD, 2011). We suggest that in order to understand the scope of talent development, the following questions should be posed: What is talent for the purposes of development? Does talent development focus on technical or generic competencies or both? What are the learning needs that are the primary focus of talent development, organisational or individual or some combination? Does talent development occur in an accelerated or normal way? What are the pathways, programmes and processes that contribute the architecture of talent development? Answers to these questions should help to bring some coherence to the scope of the concept.

Talent development focuses on the planning, selection and implementation of development strategies for the entire talent pool to ensure that the organisation has both the current and future supply of talent to meet strategic objectives and that development activities are aligned with organisational talent management processes.

c) Talent retention:
Effective talent management ensures that organizations can successfully acquire and retain essential talent. The second has to do with the extent to which these employees are engaged.(Ashur, 2015)

According to Morton (2005) “Talent management is integral to engaging employees in the organization”. The ability to effectively address both of these issues has become a primary determinant of organizational success and in some cases, even survival. (Hughes and Rog, 2008)

"Labor shortages as a result of an aging workforce and the growing scarcity of highly skilled workers, will clearly establish employee retention as the major talent management concern that organizations must confront in the next decade. (Fegley, 2006, January, 14)"

Hence, recruitment and retention of employees becomes a critical business issue. Organizations will not be able to maintain a competitive advantage in the marketplace if they fail to focus on their human capital, the most valuable asset to their organization. Therefore, increasing and maintaining employee satisfaction is vital. Thus increasing employee retention which is crucial to an organizations overall performance. (McGuire, 2007) So the recent study will focus on the talent management processes which are: acquisition, development and retention.

2.5 Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership Model:
Hersey and Blanchard’s (1977) work was based on Ohio studies on leadership. It is a two-dimensional model with four leadership styles. The emphasis in Situational Leadership Model is that there is no one effective style in all situations. These scholars suggest that effective leadership is only possible if the leader determines the maturity/readiness level of subordinates before selecting appropriate leadership style Thus, the model is used to determine which of the four leadership styles (telling, selling, participating and delegating) fits the situation (subordinates’ maturity level to perform and complete a specific task) to enhance performance Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson (2001). Hersey and Blanchard (1993) state that situational leadership attempts to provide the leader with a possible match between an effective leadership style and the maturity/readiness level of his/her subordinates. According to them many variables affect leadership styles. However they single out maturity/readiness level of subordinates as a major situational factor, which moderates between leadership styles and effectiveness.

Hersey and Blanchard (1993) define maturity/readiness as the extent to which an individual or group exhibits willingness and ability to accomplish a task. In essence, anindividual is not perceived as ready or not ready in a general sense, but an individual is seen as ready or not ready with regard to performing and completing a specific task. Therefore, Hersey and Blanchard (1993) highlight ability and willingness as the major components of readiness. According to them, ability refers to the knowledge, experience and skill which a person or a group brings to a specific task or activity and willingness as the amount of confidence and motivation that a person or group has to complete a particular task.
Interrelated factors determine the maturity level of individual or groups in the organisation. These are job maturity and psychological maturity. Job maturity is basically the ability of an individual to do his/her work competently. Psychological maturity refers to individual’s self-motivation and willingness to accept responsibilities and the possession of necessary skill to carry out the responsibilities (Owens 1991).

Hersey and Blanchard (1993) discuss four leadership styles that are built on twodimensional concepts, that is, task and relationship behaviour, with emphasis on the maturity level of followers. These leadership styles are: telling, selling, participating and delegating. This theory employs readiness as a factor to analyse the nature of the situation, which can invariably be indicated on a readiness continuum indicating followers’ readiness to perform a specific task. There are four types of situations in terms of readiness level. These situations range from R4-R1, indicating high level of readiness and low readiness level respectively (Hersey & Blanchard 1993).

According to the framework they developed, a classification of the behavior of leaders in four specific activities is possible. Different types of followers’ readiness as well as the resulting leadership behavior are presented in figure(1).

This theory is useful because it includes the workforce as crucial part of success.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ABLE</th>
<th>UNABLE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WILLING</td>
<td>UNWILLING</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No need to do much</td>
<td>Supportive and participative style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Display of high task orientation</td>
<td>Clear specific directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High relationship orientation</td>
<td></td>
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Figure (1) : Different types of readiness and leadership behaviors
Source: P. Hersey & K. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: utilizing human resources, 1988

(a) Telling style
According to Hersey and Blanchard (1993), leadership style is characterized by high task and low relationship behaviour. This style is effective when leading low maturity (unable and unwilling or insecure) subordinates, who lack both job skill and motivation. The manager who uses this style has well-defined strategies to accomplish set goals. He/she gives detailed instructions as to what the task is and when, where and how to perform it. The manager directs supports and closely supervises subordinates’ performance. Decisions are made without subordinates’ input thus communication is one sided that is, top down. This style is not effective when the manager is seen by his/her subordinates as an individual who imposes methods on others, and who is only concern with the output, and therefore unpleasant. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) refer to this style as ruling, directing or structuring.

(b) Selling style
This style comprises both high task and high relationship. It is said to be appropriate when leading low to moderate (unable, but willing or confident) job maturity but psychologically mature subordinates. The manager who employs this style gives the subordinates specific instructions and supervises their work. In addition to that, he/she supports the teachers by explaining what and why the task should be performed as instructed. The subordinates’ doubts are cleared, by answering their questions. The manager makes decisions and sometimes consults the subordinates. Thus two-way communication is encouraged. However, the manager has the final say. The style is ineffective if the subordinates do not believe that the manager is genuine in his/her interpersonal relationship and perceive him/her to be initiating more structures/jobs than is needed. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) refer to this style as ruling, directing or structuring.

(c) Participating style
Like Likert’s III and IV leadership styles and Tannenbaum’s participative leadership style, this style is characterized by low task and high relationship behaviour. It is effective when leading followers with high moderate (able but unwilling or insecure) maturity. Here, subordinates have high job maturity but low psychological maturity. Hersey and Blanchard (1993) however, explain that followers’ unwillingness to do the job may be as a result of lack of confidence if it is their first time of handling such task, if they lack of motivation as a result of performing routine tasks for a long time or as a result of a clash between the management and the followers. This style is best with highly creative subordinates who have necessary skills and self-confidence. The manager has implicit trust in the subordinates and is basically focused on facilitating their goal accomplishment. The manager spends a short time to give general instructions and most of the time is used to encourage, support and build subordinates’ self-confidence. Subordinates are given a free hand to do the task their own way while the headteacher acts as a facilitator in problem solving and decision-making processes. Communication is two-way because subordinates have ample opportunity to suggest ideas and their suggestions are highly valued (Lussier & Achua 2001). It is ineffective when the subordinates perceive the manager as a leader who is interested in peace and harmony so much so that he/she would not emphasise accomplishment of a task at the expense of his good
relationships with subordinates (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). This style is described by Hersey and Blanchard (1993) as collaborating and facilitating.

(d) Delegating style

Hersey and Blanchard (1993) state that this style is characterized by low task and low relationship behaviour. It is used effectively when leading subordinates with both high job and psychological maturity (able and willing or confident). Followers in this category are well competent and highly motivated. The manager tells the followers what to do, answers their questions and provides little or no direction. The followers are allowed to make their own decisions subject to the manager’s limitations. Innovations are encouraged by the manager who equally demonstrates trust and confidence by supporting this set of followers. However, Hersey and Blanchard (1993) opine that this style is not effective when followers feel that the manager is providing little structure and support when necessary.

This model as mentioned in figure (2) proposes that the maturity level of subordinates can be increased and as it increases, the effective leadership style is employed. Effective leadership style is characterized by a drive for task and concern for people. Matching the manager’s leadership style with the appropriate situation enhances effectiveness (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). This indicates that the increase in level of maturity/readiness with regards to accomplishing specific task will afford the manager the opportunity to change his/her leadership style to a more relationship-oriented style for increase productivity. The following propositions can be deduced from this model:

- When readiness level of followers is very low (M1), the manager can effectively use a task-oriented, directive, autocratic and telling type.
- When readiness level of subordinates is moderately low (R2), that is when there is an increase in subordinates’ readiness level; the manager can use a more relationship oriented selling type.
- When readiness level of subordinates is moderately high (R3), the manager can use a participating style.
- When readiness level of subordinate is very high (R4), the manager can use a delegating leadership style (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). Conclusively, Hersey and Blanchard (1993) claim that the success of this model is determined by the ability of the manager to diagnose the readiness level of his/her followers. If the manager is highly skilled as to know when to be task-oriented or relationship-oriented and uses them appropriately, performance will be enhanced. Essentially, he/she should be able to change his/her leadership style with different followers and with the same followers on different occasions. This is because followers perform various tasks and followers may vary in readiness level depending on the type of task to be performed. Since increase in readiness level is possible, it is imperative for the managers to focus on increasing followers’ readiness level to maintain steady improved performance, because as they acquire greater experience, ability and commitment to do their task, productivity will be enhanced through shared decision making (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993). Situational leadership, according to Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996) can be employed in different organisational setting. They claim that the head teacher for example who works with experienced staff members would be effective if he/she delegates responsibilities to the staff (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996).

Figure (2): Situational leadership theory

Source: P.Hersey & K.Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: utilizing human resources, 1988

3. Research Methodology and Design:

To realize the objectives of the present study, the following methodological techniques have been adopted.

3.1 Research Approach:

According to the purpose, this study is in the category of applied research and according to data collection procedure is in the category of correlation research.
3.2 Research Problem:
Is there a relationship between leadership styles and talent management processes in public and private sectors?

3.3 Research Variables & Measurements:
A number of variables were considered for this study. The Independent variables of this research were leadership style according to hersey and Blanchard situational theory model which are: telling, selling, participative and delegative. The dependent variables used were measures of Talent management processes: acquisition, development and retention.

3.4 Research Hypothesis:
Hypothesis 1: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership telling style and talent management processes in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 1a: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership telling styles and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 1b: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership telling style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 1c: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership telling style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 2: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership selling style and talent management processes in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 2a: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership selling style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 2b: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership selling style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 2c: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership selling style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 3: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership participative style and talent management processes in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 3a: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership participative style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 3b: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership participative style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 3c: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership participative style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 4: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership delegative style and talent management processes in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 4a: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership delegative style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 4b: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership delegative style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
Hypothesis 4c: There is a statistical significant relationship between the leadership delegative style and talent management acquisition in public and private sector.
3.5 Questionnaire
The study instrument is a questionnaire consists of 3 parts: 1st part: demographic information, 2nd part consists of 20 statement measuring Talent management processes.3rd part consists of 40 statement measuring the leadership styles. The statements assessed by using Likert scale of five points scale ranging from 5"highly agree" to 1"highly disagree". The LEAD instruments have been used many times for research purposes and have proven effective for measuring the leadership style of managers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993) assert that leadership style can be measured using the LEAD-Other instrument as leadership style is based on the followers’ perceptions of the leader’s behaviour and not on the leader’s perception of his/her behaviour. Since the LEAD-Other instrument is designed to assess the leadership style of an individual, the researcher adapted it to collect data on leadership style, while to test talent management practices the questions based on Tiwari and Shrivastava’s (2013) questionnaire that was used to study the impact of talent management strategies and practices on employee retention in organization based in India.

In order to assess the reliability, the reliability coefficient was calculated using Cranbach’s alpha, and for all questions were higher than 0.85.

3.6 Population and sample:
The study population consists of the employees working in public and private sector in Egypt, for the difficulty of measuring the population as whole we selected sample of 133 employees public sector and 133 in private sector. This study has 2 levels of analysis: 1st level leadership style practices , 2nd level talent management processes , so the study has 2 units of analysis which are: leadership style practices, talent management processes & the observation unit are the employees of the organizations in both sectors under study (266) subject.

The sample size was estimated according to (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) formula:
\[ N > 50 + 8M \]
\[ N = \text{number of participants} \]
\[ M = \text{no. of IVs} \]
\[ N > 50 + 8*4 \]
\[ N > 82 \]
The sample was as follows:

Public sector: 66% males, 31.9% females, 4.3% of sample aged in range less than 25 years, 44.7% of sample aged in range 25-35 years, 44.7% of sample aged in range 36-46 years, 6.4% of sample aged in range 47-57 years. 8% of sample working in upper level, and 22% working in middle level, and 17% working in firstline level. The entire sample working in full time jobs, 36.2% of the sample had working experiences 8-13 years and 31.9% had working experience more than 2-7 years. 76.6% of the sample had bachelor degree in commerce and law, 11% had master degree in management, 85.1% product sector, 14.9% service sector.

Private sector: 84.8% males, 15.2% females, 9.1% of sample aged in range less than 25 years, 39.4% of sample aged in range 25-35 years, 39.4% of sample aged in range 36-46 years, 9.1% of sample aged in range 47-57 years. 24.2% of sample working in upper level, and 66.7% working in middle level, and 17% working in firstline level. The entire sample working in full time jobs, 9.1% of the sample had working experiences 8-13 years.
and 31.9% had working experience more than 2-7 years. 97% of the sample had bachelor degree in commerce and law, 3% had master degree. 57.6% product sector, 42.4% service sector. The study conducted in 4 months.

3.7 Data Analysis Techniques:
The data was analysed by using SPSS 16 software package. To test validity and reliability of the measurement scales, factor analyses were conducted. The results of Cronbach’s Alpha and Internal Consistency showed that the measurement scales were indeed valid and reliable. Correlation analysis was employed to examine the relationship between leadership styles and talent management processes. Simple Regression Analysis was further conducted due to the existence of Multicollinearity effect among independent variables.

4. Findings:

4.1 Reliability Analysis:
Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was applied to estimate the reliability of studied variables, where alpha values reveal the reliability and the internal consistency between the selected dimensions of the studied variables. It can be shown that the values of cronbach’s alpha for the variables under study exceeds 0.8, which is an acceptable level for the reliability of the variables. As mentioned in table (2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
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<tr>
<td>Talent acquisition</td>
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<tr>
<td>Talent development</td>
<td>.869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retention</td>
<td>.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>telling</td>
<td>.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selling</td>
<td>.871</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>participating</td>
<td>.865</td>
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<tr>
<td>Delegating</td>
<td>.864</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 Hypothesis Testing:
Correlation analysis is conducted to assess the relationship between variables under study and each other in both sectors, which leadership styles are tested to check their significance and impact on talent management processes. Regarding public sector As mentioned in table (3) It was found that there a strong positive correlation between leadership style and talent management practices, (r=.892, n=133, p=0.00), Participating style(r=.425, n=133,p=0.001), while there is no significant relationship between talent management and other styles in public sector.

Regarding talent acquisition it was found appositive significant relationship with leadership style(r=0.662, n=133, p=0.00), also there are the positive relations with talent development and retention, but it most related with talent retention(r=0.717, n=133,p=0.00).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Leadership</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.41</td>
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<td>2. Talent management</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>.892**</td>
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<td>3. Participating</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.425**</td>
<td>.487**</td>
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<td>4. Delegating</td>
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<td>.74</td>
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<td>0.01</td>
<td>-.009-</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Telling</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>-.295*</td>
<td>-.280-</td>
<td>-.118-</td>
<td>-.073-</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Talent acquisition</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.717**</td>
<td>.629**</td>
<td>.309*</td>
<td>-.075-</td>
<td>-.132-</td>
<td>.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Talent development</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.620**</td>
<td>.511**</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>-.058-</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.23</td>
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<td>9. Talent retention</td>
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<td>.64</td>
<td>.815**</td>
<td>.634**</td>
<td>.356*</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.185</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>-.358*</td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: p*<0.05, p**<0.01, p***<0.001

Regarding private sector As mentioned in table (4) It was found that there a strong positive correlation between leadership style and talent management practices, (r=.947, n=133, p=0.00), Participating style(r=.567, n=133,p=0.001), selling style(r=.563,n=133,p=0.00) while there is no significant relationship between talent management delegating and telling styles in private sector.

Regarding talent acquisition it was found appositive significant relationship with leadership style(r=.740**, n=133, p=0.00), also there are the positive relations with talent development and retention, but it most related with talent retention(r=0.815, n= 133, p=0.00).
Table 4: Means, Standard deviations, & correlations between Leadership styles & Talent management in private sector (N=133)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Measure</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talent management</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>.947*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>.490*</td>
<td>.567*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delegating</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>-.006-</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telling</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.027-</td>
<td>-.282-</td>
<td>-.060</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selling</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>.477*</td>
<td>.563*</td>
<td>.802*</td>
<td>-.379</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talent acquisition</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>.740*</td>
<td>.812*</td>
<td>.383*</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.379</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talent development</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>.696*</td>
<td>.609*</td>
<td>.383*</td>
<td>-.152</td>
<td>-.058-</td>
<td>.404</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talent retention</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>.815*</td>
<td>.718*</td>
<td>.351*</td>
<td>-.021</td>
<td>.185</td>
<td>.30</td>
<td>.385</td>
<td>.357</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: p*<0.05, p**<0.01

But regarding the correlation between the independent variables as seen in Table (3) and (4), it is notable that there is a strong positive correlation between the independent variables which cause a multicollinearity problem which will make the result not reliable, which means that their impact disappears in the presence of other variables.

This will lead the researcher to use stepwise regression to be able to check which variables can be deleted from the model, so as to find a significant model with minimal number of variables.

4.2 Stepwise Regression:

Table 5: Summary of stepwise regression analysis for leadership styles predicting Talent acquisition in public sector (N=133)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.404</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Telling</td>
<td>-.357-</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.358-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F sig change</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Summary of stepwise regression analysis for leadership styles predicting Talent acquisition in private sector (N=133)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.389</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Selling</td>
<td>-.357-</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>-.358-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F sig change</td>
<td>0.022</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding Talent acquisition in private sector as mentioned in table (6) the stepwise regression discards three variables which are telling, participative and delegation leadership style. This means that the selling leadership style is the only significant variable that affects talent acquisition and explains 28% of its variance. The table above proposes the following model:

\[
\text{Talent acquisition} = 2.389 + 0.397 \times \text{selling leadership style}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.286</td>
<td>0.331</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>selling</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.097</td>
<td>0.404</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding Talent development in private sector as mentioned in table (7) the stepwise regression discards three variables which are telling, participative and delegation leadership style. This means that the selling leadership style is the only significant variable that affects talent acquisition and explains 64% of its variance. The table above proposes the following model:

\[
\text{Talent acquisition} = 2.286 + 0.404 \times \text{selling leadership style}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.371</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>0.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F sig change</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding Talent retention in private sector as mentioned in table (8) the stepwise regression discards three variables which are telling, selling and delegation leadership style. This means that the participating leadership style is the only significant variable that affects talent retention and explains 23% of its variance. The table above proposes the following model:

\[
\text{Talent acquisition} = 2.633 + 0.351 \times \text{participating leadership style}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.633</td>
<td>0.478</td>
<td>0.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating</td>
<td>0.305</td>
<td>0.146</td>
<td>0.351</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F sig change</td>
<td>0.045</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding Talent retention in public sector as mentioned in table (9) the stepwise regression discards three variables which are telling, selling and delegation leadership style. This means that the participating leadership style is the only significant variable that affects talent retention and explains 26% of its variance. The table above proposes the following model:

\[
\text{Talent acquisition} = 2.371 + 0.356 \times \text{participating leadership style}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th>β</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.371</td>
<td>0.388</td>
<td>0.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participating</td>
<td>0.311</td>
<td>0.122</td>
<td>0.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R2</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F sig change</td>
<td>0.014</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Conclusions:
From the result analysis it was found that there is a strong positive relationship between leadership styles and talent management processes in both sectors, but the relation is stronger in private than public sector.

If we take deeper look of the relation between every leadership style and talent management in public sector, we can conclude that there is only strong significant relationship with the participative style, while there is no significant relationship with other styles.

While in private sector it was found a significant positive relationship between participative and telling leadership style and talent management. Talent retention is most correlated with leadership styles.

In assessing the predictive power of each leadership style on each talent management process it was found
the following:

Regarding talent acquisition process in public sector it most predicted negatively by telling leadership style, while in private sector it most predicted by selling leadership style with a higher explanation power than public sector.

Regarding talent development process in public sector it was found no impact of leadership styles, while in private sector the talent development process most predicted by selling leadership style.

Regarding talent retention in both sectors it was most predicted by participative leadership style, but with higher explanation power in public sector.

Overall the impact of leadership styles on talent management processes in private sector is higher than public sector, may be this result due to the bureaucratic nature of the governmental agencies in opposite to the private sector which apply the open system environment, which opens up a new direction to measure the impact of bureaucratic practices on talent management processes.

As the open system nature of the private sector is characterized by flexibility and harmony between employees and leaders in the organization through flexible hr. policies and practices.

From the result analysis it was observed that the impact of delegative leadership style is not exist in both sectors may be this is occur due to Egyptian individualistic culture and treat managers as great symbols not natural individuals, also this point opens up a new direction to measure the organizational culture as a mediator between leadership styles and talent management practices.

Regarding the non-significant impact of leadership styles on talent development in the public sector may be due to two reasons: first, the routine system for employees to motivate themselves to build their skills and competencies as the promotions are based on other factors (age-job level) not capabilities, second, the public sector is not competitive in nature compared to private sector. As in private sector the organizations apply resource based view theory which proposes that to organization to gain its competitive advantage must have 3 items: valuable, rare, and non-imitable resources which enforce organization to develop their human capital permanently to cope with the global competition and changing business environment.

Finally, it was observed that the talent development and retention are impacted by participative leadership style which requires the organizations to enhance teamwork values and integrate it with their vision and mission and strategic objectives.

Regarding limitations faced the recent study: first, the scarcity of studies in the same topic which limited the comparisons of the recent results with previous studies. Secondly, the sample number is limited so it is difficult to generalize the results of the study.

So it is recommended to conduct the study for different sectors and fields.

Also to measure the moderate impact of the demographic characteristics on the relationship between leadership styles and talent management processes.

Reference
3rd edition. USA: Prentice Hall INC.