Intangible outcomes of talent management practices in selected South African higher education institutions

By

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Abstract

The demand for a talented employees in universities keeps increasing globally, and this trend will keep growing. Unfortunately, it appears that universities lag because of the inability to attract, nurture and retain talent. This global phenomenon threatens the sustainability of many universities, especially the less-resourced ones. This current study investigates the intangible outcomes of talent management (TM) practices in some South African universities. Moreover, the study explores the TM practices that influence talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent retention in South African HEIs. The study adopted both descriptive and exploratory research to describe and provide in-depth knowledge about the subject matter. Mixed methods were employed to collect both quantitative and qualitative data. Stratified and purposive sampling techniques were used to select 347 respondents and participants from some selected universities in South Africa: the University of Cape Town, the University KwaZulu-Natal, and the University of Pretoria. Quantitative data was collected from 265 respondents (academics), whereas qualitative data was collected from 12 participants (Academic Leaders, Deans, HR Director, HR Managers, Lecturers) within the three universities. Structured questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used to collect the data. Given the COVID-19, a remote data collection process was adopted. A pilot study was conducted to determine the reliability, validity, and trustworthiness of the research instruments. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 27.0) and Analysis of Moment Structures (version 27.0) were used to analyse the quantitative data. The qualitative data, on the other hand, was analysed using NVivo (version 12.0). The qualitative results revealed three main motives for TM practices in South African HEIs, including talent identification and attraction, capacity building (talent development), and talent retention. The findings from both studies confirmed that TM practices positively impacted sustainability and scarcity of skills in HEIs. The findings from both studies showed that TM practices positively influenced intangible outcomes such as organisational trust, humility, employee engagement, teaching and learning, and university-industry collaboration. This study is unique to South African universities as it highlights the intangible outcomes of TM practices.

Keywords: Competitive advantage, intangible outcomes, talent attraction, talent development, talent retention

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Dedication

"I am convinced of this very thing: that he who began a good work in you will carry it on to completion until the day of Christ Jesus" (Philippians 1:6). The entire thesis is dedicated to the Almighty God, for seeing me through this journey. Part of the thesis is also dedicated to my family for their diverse supports.

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Abstract

In today's competitive environment, talent management has been considered an important strategy that influences talent attraction, development, and retention required to create value for the organisation. Although talent management has received scholarly interest from both organisational researchers and human resources management practitioners, there is still a paucity of research on the intangible outcomes of talent management. Therefore, this study aimed to investigate the intangible outcomes of talent management practices in some South African universities. The study adopted descriptive and exploratory research to describe and provide in-depth knowledge about the subject matter. The mixed-methods was employed to collect and analyse the quantitative and qualitative data. Stratified and purposive sampling techniques were used to select 347 respondents and participants from three South African universities: University of Cape Town, University of KwaZulu-Natal, and University of Pretoria. A structured questionnaire and semi-structured interview grid were used to collect the data. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (version 27.0) and Analysis of Moment Structures (version 27.0) were used to analyse the quantitative data, while the qualitative data was analysed using NVivo (version 12.0). The quantitative results revealed a significant relationship between talent management practices and intangible outcomes such as employee humility, teaching and learning, and university-industry collaboration. On the other hand, the qualitative findings affirmed that talent management practices positively impacted organisational trust, employee engagement, employee humility, teaching and learning, and university-industry collaboration. Additionally, the quantitative and qualitative findings revealed a positive relationship between talent management practices and a sustainable competitive advantage. Moreover, the quantitative and qualitative results showed a significant relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage. The scope of the study was limited to the intangible outcomes of talent management in South African universities. This study is unique because it creates a sustainable competitive advantage for South African Higher Education Institutions through talent attraction, development, and retention. The study recommends that universities continue to integrate talent management practices into their strategic plans.

Keywords Competitive advantage, intangible outcomes, talent attraction, talent development, talent retention

Table of Contents

List of Abbreviations

ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CHE	Council on Higher Education
CHET	Centre for Higher Education Transformation
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
CUAS	Cologne University of Applied Sciences
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
DoE	Department of Education
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HC	Human Capital Theory
HE	Higher Education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HESA	Higher Education South Africa
HRM	Human Resource Management
KBV	Knowledge Based View of the Firm
MoE	Ministry of Education
NCHE	National Commission on Higher Education
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
RBV	Resource Based View of the Firm
SA	South Africa
SAHECEF	South African Higher Education Community Engagement Forum
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling

SINAES	Higher Education Evaluation National System
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TEQSA	Tertiary Education Quality and Standards Agency
TM	Talent Management
UCT	University of Cape Town
UK	United Kingdom
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UoC	University of Cologne
UP	University of Pretoria
USA	United States of America
WEF	World Economic Forum
WEF	World Economic Forum
WITS	Witwatersrand University
WLB	Work-Life Balance

List of Figures

List of Tables

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Education remains a major linchpin of any nation's socio-economic and political development (Shrivastava & Shrivastava, 2014). Moreover, Shrivastava and Shrivastava (2014) postulate that recent evidence suggests that universities have the potential to produce both private and public benefits. According to Ekene and Oluoch-Suleh (2015), education contributes to a change in the individual, enhancing productivity and work efficiency. Despite the importance and contribution of higher education institutions (HEIs) worldwide, research (Al Ariss, 2013; Al Ariss & Ozbilgin, 2010; Theron, Barkhuizen & Du Plessis, 2014) shows that, globally, most of these institutions are faced with significant challenges of how to identify, attract, retain, and develop competent, innovative, and imaginative leaders for the future. Several reasons were cited for the inability of most HEIs to attract, develop, and retain qualified academics: poor remuneration structure and incentives, unfair labour practices, and/or inadequate funding and institutional culture (Higher Education South Africa [HESA], 2011; Pienaar & Bester, 2008). To address these challenges in HEIs, management should consider the implementation of a sound talent management [TM] programme. This research is intended to examine the intangible outcomes of TM practices in selected South African HEIs, there being a dearth of research in this area.

The chapter addresses the background of the study and is followed by the problem statement. The next section outlines the research aims. The research key questions which guide the study are stated in this chapter. In addition, the chapter highlights the research objectives and hypotheses. Furthermore, the rationale and significance of the study are stated. The next section of the chapter summarises the research methodology adopted to achieve the research questions, objectives, and hypotheses. The organisation of the study forms the last part of the chapter.

1.2 Background of the study

Studies (Benner & Tushman, 2003; Hoang & Rothaermel, 2010) suggest that balancing the activities related to exploration and exploitation can assist firms in achieving optimal performance levels. The benefits of counterintuitive activities of exploration and exploitation can only be achieved by concentrating either on exploitation or exploration (Hoang & Rothaermel, 2010; March, 1991). However, the over-reliance on exploitation will minimise the possibility of learning new skills in the organisation. Such over-reliance becomes captive to outdated technology and competencies that are likely to depress performance in the long run. On the other hand, overemphasis on exploration means that the organisation will risk utilising limited resources while obtaining unsatisfactory payback. This stance risks losing short-range benefits (Hoang & Rothaermel, 2010). According to Gaim and Wåhlin (2016), it is a difficult task to move from exploration to exploitation, given the fact that the firm and management possess the relevant skills, competencies, and knowledge required to survive in the current competitive market. A competitive market is usually characterised as either exploitative or explorative. There are two perspectives on the 'ambidexterity dilemma', such as the dilemma between exploration and exploitation. Smith and Tushman (2005) suggest that the first perspective assumes that exploratory and exploitative learning are incompatible. Organisations are competing for the same talent, and this argument represents the differentiation view. On the other hand, Gibson and Birkinshaw (2004) advocate that the second perspective assumes that benefits derived from both approaches to organisational learning represent the integration view. From these perspectives, it appears that organisations face the hurdle of how to approach the ambidexterity dilemma.

Within the discussion of ambidexterity, one school of thought argues that the best solution depends on 'structural ambidexterity'. Such ambidexterity separates exploration and exploitation into different units within an organisation (Andriopoulos & Lewis, 2009). On the other hand, scholars (O'Reilly & Tushman, 2013; Raisch, Birkinshaw, Probst & Tushman, 2009) suggest that 'sequential ambidexterity' is the best approach to the ambidexterity dilemma, which involves moving from one state to another. Research (De Clercq, Thongpapanl, & Dimov, 2013; Wang & Rafiq, 2014) shows that ambidexterity has so far focused mainly on the combination of structural and sequential ambidexterity. Therefore, recent studies have begun to lay more emphasis on the contribution of bottom-up strategies to address the ambidexterity dilemma, namely, contextual ambidexterity. Contextual ambidexterity denotes the "behavioural capacity to ensure the alignment and adaptability across the entire organisation" (Gibson & Birkinshaw, 2004, p.209). However, it has been found that the knowledge of ways in which a firm can leverage ambidexterity remains very low (Choi & Chandler, 2015; Wei, Yi & Guo, 2014).

Havermans, Hartog, Keegan and Uhl-Bien (2015) emphasise that there is the need for a study to determine the mechanisms of achieving contextual ambidexterity by examining the involvement of both employees and management. Sharing this opinion, Jensen and Krogstrup (2016) and Ku and Yuen-Tsang (2013) propose that further research is needed to discuss the extent to which individual and organisational capacity building can be utilised to develop a model to build and maintain contextual ambidexterity in established organisations. By contrast, this study recommends that, in balancing the exploration and exploitation dilemma, contextual ambidexterity, and capacity building, organisations should implement an integrated TM programme. Liversage (2015) proposes that, if HEIs want to attract and sustain a talented workforce, they should consider investing in their human capital.

Saurombe, Barkhuizen and Schutte (2017), in their study, also challenged the management of HEIs to acknowledge the valuable contribution of their human capital. Such acknowledgement ought to be incorporated into the strategic plans and mission statements of their HR departments, thus attaining lasting success. Therefore, it can be argued that TM is an important HRM strategic tool that delivers value for an organisation through talent attraction, development/capacity building, and retention. Vladescu (2012) conceptualises TM as the integrated set of activities used by organisations to attract, retain, and develop the most talented people they need for future purposes. Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin and Michaels (1998) note that the concept of TM was first coined by McKinsey & Co as a strategy for helping organisations to attract, develop, and retain their workforce.

Since HRM developed as a field of study in the 2000BC, several evolutions have taken place in this domain. Between 2000 and 1500BC, the Chinese adopted employee screening, whereas Greeks subscribed to an apprenticeship system in managing people. From 1700 to early 1800, HRM began to appear in the US, owing to industrial evolution. Between 1790 and 1820, labour unions were established to protect employees' rights (Smith, 1984). From the 1900s to the late 1980s, the term HRM − an approach to managing people − became prominent in the UK and the USA (Stewart & McGoldrick, 1996). In 1920, workers' rights were constitutionalised, leading to the emergence of many trade unions worldwide. From 1900 to 2000, several theories for managing people have emerged, namely, the scientific management approach (Taylor, 1911), the human-relations approach (Elton Mayo, 1920-1936), the human-resource approach (Miles, 1974), the strategic-human-resource-management approach (SHRM) (Fombrun, Tichy & Devanna, 1984), bureaucracy (Max Weber, 1966), learning organisation (Peter Senge, 1992), and resource-based and knowledge-based views of the firm (Barney, 1991; Wernerfelt, 1984). Among these theories, the HR and the SHRM approaches, in particular, have gained popularity from scholarly researchers, HR, and organisational practitioners. These mentioned theories have gained value for their significant contribution to the field of HRM (Boxall, 1996; Delery & Doty, 1996; Dyer, 1984).

According to Warnich, Carrell, Elbert and Hatfield (2018), the new trend in HRM is a clear demonstration of adopting the HR approach, which delivers benefits for organisations in two ways − an increase in organisational effectiveness, and employee job satisfaction. Scholars (Bartel, 1994; Cooper & Kleinschmidt, 1995; Dreyfus & Vineyard, 1996) argue that an HR approach pays much attention to the attraction of the right calibre of potential employees. The best merit is based on position demands, and makes their abilities equal to the requirements of positions. An HR approach focuses on the current needs of human capital through HR functions such as learning, salary, staffing, performance management, training, and development. Magnan, Vickery and Droge (1995) suggest that employee training, which is the main focus of the HR theory, offers more contributions to achieving organisational performance goals.

On the contrary, the SHRM approach holds that, when a firm enters a competitive segment, it requires more strategic thinking and approach to achieve long-term goals (Flamholtz & Randle, 2007). Those who ascribe to the SHRM approach believe that the HR approach seems to have little impact on the organisational goals (Flamholtz & Randle, 2007). Theorists such as Festing and Eidems (2011) and Wright, Dunford, and Snell (2001), who explored the traditional ways of HRM, have recently placed much emphasis on a strategic perspective. According to Festing and Eidems (2011), HRM should not only be concerned with visible roles held by traditional HRM activities. Rather, it should be concerned with organisational strategy implementation. A recent study suggests that it is not enough to align HRM practices with corporate strategy (Buller & McEvoy, 2012).

Silzer and Dowell (2009, p.1) argue that recent emphasis on TM worldwide marks a paradigm shift from the HR approach towards the SHRM approach, driven by corporate strategy. The fast-changing globalisation and competition require such a paradigm shift from the HR approach to the SHRM approach, focusing much on the organisational level within a firm to achieve desired goals. Therefore, for TM to be implemented most effectively and efficiently, it should be aligned with the corporate strategy. However, evidence indicates that it is challenging for most organisations to align TM policies and practices with organisational strategy (Groves, 2011; King, 2015; Silzer & Dowell, 2010; Schuler, 2015). Similarly, Schuler (2015) argues that the availability of talent in an organisation significantly impacts its strategic directions and paths. TM plays an important role in ensuring that the right talent is identified, attracted, developed, and retained within the organisation. TM is considered a broad HRM strategy that organisations adopt to retain top talent and improve performance (Sareen & Mishra, 2016). In a typically competitive environment, TM focuses on determining employees' strengths and weaknesses, which helps an organisation in developing strategies to compete with its rivals.

There exist various philosophies which underpin TM practices in an organisation. In their study, Collings and Mellahi (2009) identify four generic philosophies that underpin TM: the strategic pull, the people approach, the practice approach, and the position approach. Moreover, a study suggests two main approaches to TM, including the single approach. Such involves the process whereby an organisation uses a single talent pipeline that pays critical attention to the development of future leaders. The multiple-ladder approach involves having several pipelines for diverse groups of people within the organisation to nurture a wide range of skills (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development [CIPD] (2012). As far as this study is concerned, although there are several TM philosophies, there are limited studies on which of these TM philosophies should be adopted by HEIs. This study will address the gap in research. The study will also make practical recommendations to HEIs regarding which TM philosophy or philosophies should be adopted.

Moreover, research (Boichenko, 2015; Kilic, Serin, Karakus, Ergene, Corbaci & Kilic, 2016; Meyers & Van Woerkom, 2014; Pellert, 2007) propounds that there are diverse reasons for HEIs, globally, to implement TM practices. Although the principles and assumptions of TM may remain the same in HEIs across various regions or countries, the purpose, aims, and rationale for TM in each institution vary greatly. For example, universities in Australia have implemented TM practices to transform their present transactional HR systems into systems which are strategically enabling (Pellert, 2007). In Turkish universities, TM practices were introduced for the following reasons: to recruit and define highly talented staff; to build positive relations; to develop employees, and to ensure work-life balance (Kilic et al., 2016). Besides, Canadian universities have implemented TM programmes to develop staff and faculty (Boichenko, 2015). In South

Africa, although most institutions have embraced the concept of TM, it appears that there is limited research regarding the rationale for its implementation. This study investigates the intangible outcomes of TM practices, TM philosophies, and the justification for TM in HEIs. Also, this study seeks to identify TM practices that contribute to talent attraction, development, and retention in HEIs.

1.3 Problem statement

Undoubtedly, talent plays a crucial role in achieving distinction for any organisation, including academic institutions. This makes recruitment, selection, and managing of talent the most significant factors in the success of any institution in which academics are considered the most important asset. Today, HEIs across different continents, including those in South Africa, compete for the same talent. Samuel and Chipunza (2013) postulate that the competition for superior talent in HEIs has emerged as a critical factor in the defection of academics from one institution to another. Research (Callaghan, 2015; Schulze, 2015; Singh, 2015) reflects that the factors fueling the need for academic talent are rapidly increasing globalisation and labour market competition, an aging workforce, the decline in younger workers entering academia, inadequate funding opportunities combined with uncompetitive remuneration structure, and research incentives. Higher Education South Africa [HESA] (2011) indicates that, globally, the demand for faculty members in HEIs keeps increasing, and this trend will keep growing. Unfortunately, both need for retention and the prevailing intention to resign are exacerbating the problem, leaving HEIs no other option but to investigate this phenomenon. A report indicates that more than 6000 new academics will be needed to augment the retiring scholars in the next five years (Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET), 2015).

In their study, Mokgojwa, Barkhuizen and Schutte (2018) state that more than two-thirds of academics, surveyed in South African universities, have considered leaving their jobs and are currently searching for employment opportunities in industry. Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen and Schutte (2018) also found that more than half of academics in South African universities do not consider academia a career. These challenges in South African HEIs are likely to threaten employees' career success if they are not addressed in the short run.

Commenting on the above scenario, Van den Brink, Fruytier and Thunnissen (2013) believe that talent attraction and retention are fast becoming a concern for most HRM in HEIs. For instance, in the United Kingdom, where the changing landscape of the HE sector is propelling a transition towards greater competition among the HEIs, TM is increasingly considered a tool for many of these institutions in attracting and retaining talent (Adcroft, Teckman & Willis, 2010; Clark, 2011). A study conducted by Mellahi and Collings (2010) shows that institutions are competing for the same knowledge, in which learning and capacity building have become strategic concerns. Parry and Tyson (2013) concur that the surge in rivalry for talent means that employers, including HEIs, need to adopt strategies to distinguish themselves from their rivals in the struggle to attract and maintain talented academics.

In a related study, Schiemann (2014) points out that managing talent in an organisation is considered the lever capable of attracting, developing, and retaining the skills and knowledge through sound TM strategies, practices, and interventions. However, studies (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018; Postma, 2016) show that the South African HE landscape is not attractive to most highly qualified academics for several reasons, including inadequate remuneration, student protests, political interference in institutional matters, discrimination, and infrastructure challenges. Empirical research (Graham, 2015; Seyama & Smith, 2015) further reveals that the loss of talent in HEIs results from the transformation agenda without a specific strategic plan and performance indicators for a ‘modern’ career.

A study carried out by Ng’ethe, Iravo and Namusonge (2012) suggests that although most institutions have acknowledged the challenges associated with the implementation of TM programmes, there is still a shortage of empirical research in developing nations. This shortage, including in South Africa, fails to provide an adequate explanation for these challenges, let alone give measures that can be employed to identify and address the turnover of academics leaving an academic void. Harvey (2009) and Linne (2009) concur that, although TM is recognised worldwide as an important strategic intervention, it is merely receiving lip service from practitioners and researchers. It has also been argued that TM strategies remain ineffective in most organisations (Harvey 2009; Nancherla 2009). Commenting further, Erasmus, Naidoo and Joubert (2017) argue that, although the concept of TM has gained popularity in recent times, there is still a lack of research into how it is implemented.

Similar to the view expressed by the above scholars, Annakis, Dass and Isa (2014) warn that the poor TM practices and situational challenges which relate to working in HEIs, in most cases, could lead to poor service delivery, absenteeism, and stress, resulting in labour disputes. Cobb (2007) and Lynch (2007) suggest that, despite the wealth of literature, HEIs lag behind the industry in terms of TM practices. In the UK, research suggests that, although TM is growing in importance, the nature of TM in the UK HEIs has rarely been investigated (Thunnissen, Boselie & Fruytier, 2013). Similarly, a study by Boichenko (2015) reveals that there are no clear institutional strategies supporting the implementation of TM in Ukrainian universities. The reality in the UK and other countries is not different from South Africa (Harvey, 2009; Oosthuizen & Nienaber, 2010). A recent study reflects that, even though most South African universities have embraced the concept of TM, TM has not been fully integrated into their HRM policies (Erasmus et al., 2017; Riccio, 2010). In a similar study, Barkhuizen et al. (2014) concur that, although most institutions have initiated TM practices, TM appears to be a central management challenge, it being more challenging to sustain key and competent staff.

The review of empirical research (Barkhuizen, Mogwere & Schutte, 2014; Farooq, Othman, Nordin & Ibrahim, 2016) suggests that there are limited studies examining the intangible outcomes of TM in the HEI context. To fill the gaps in existing research, this research aims to investigate the intangible outcomes of TM. This study does so by focusing on the variables such as organisational trust, employee engagement, university-industry collaboration, teaching and learning, research, and humility. This study further aims to integrate the ideas and knowledge from existing theories into the development of the new conceptual model on TM, assisting HEIs to attract and build individual capacity, thereby retaining qualified academics.

1.4 Research aims

The study seeks to investigate the intangible outcomes of TM practices in South African HEIs. Furthermore, the study is intended to address specific HRM issues facing HEIs in South Africa through a sound TM system.

1.5 Research objectives

The overarching concern of the research was to investigate the intangible outcomes of TM in South African HEIs. The study therefore focused on variables such as organisational trust, employee engagement, research, teaching and learning, university-industry collaboration, and humility. The secondary objectives include the following:

1. To establish the rationale behind the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
2. To determine the best approach to the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
3. To investigate the critical success factors that influence the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
4. To identify talent management practices that influence talent identification and attraction into higher education institutions;
5. To ascertain talent management practices that contribute to capacity building in higher education institution;
6. To examine talent management practices that influence talent retention in higher education institutions;
7. To establish the type of relationship that exists between talent management practices and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills in higher education institutions;
8. To examine the relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills in higher education institutions;
9. To explore the relationship between talent management practices and intangible outcomes of talent management in higher education institutions; and
10. To evaluate the extent to which intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage in higher education institutions.

1.6 Research hypotheses

To achieve the objectives, the following working hypotheses will be empirically tested.

1. **H_1.** There exist several talent management practices that influence talent identification and attraction into higher education institutions;
2. **H_2.** There exist several talent management practices that contribute to capacity building in higher education institutions;
3. **H_3**. There exist some talent management practices that affect talent retention in higher education institutions;

4. **H_4.** There is a significant relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills in higher education institutions;
5. **H_5.** There is a significant relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills in higher education institutions;
6. **H_6.** There exists a significant relationship between talent management practices and intangible talent management outcomes in higher education institutions; and
7. **H_7.** Intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage in higher education institutions.

1.7 Rationale/motivation of the study

According to Conti (2008) and O'Callaghan (2008), the challenge of retaining talented employees has forced many institutions to resort to poaching talent instead of developing talent. A study by Ackers and Gill (2005) reveals that HEIs face a situation of 'brain drain'. Therefore, this study is motivated by the need to assist HEIs to attract, retain, and develop their workforce through TM practices. Also, the study is inspired by the need to assess the extent to which TM can be used as a tool to enhance core university functions.

1.8 Contribution of the study

The study explores the tangible outcomes of TM in HEIs. Therefore, the findings emanating from the research will help expand the body of knowledge on TM, while providing reference material for academics, students, practitioners, and scholars. The study will extend the frontiers of knowledge in the following fields: HRM, strategic management, and industrial relations. Secondly, the importance of this study rests on the proposed framework. The research seeks to develop a conceptual model to support TM implementation, which will help address the brain drain in HEIs. The outcomes of the model will assist in the practical implementation of TM within the HEI context and the organisational settings. Thirdly, this study is unique because it will help address issues such as racism and inequalities in the South African workplace. The study will promote inclusivity or equal employment opportunities in HEIs through HRM strategies such as recruitment and selection practices, promotion, rewards, respect and recognition, and skills training and development, particularly for the previously disadvantaged people. Fourthly, this study is significant because it will help improve the core university activities through TM practices. Fifthly, the study will help to improve employee engagement and trust within HEIs in the country.

1.9 Summary of the research method

The study adopted pragmatism as the research philosophy, which has helped to balance deductive and inductive reasoning. The study integrated both deductive and inductive research approaches into the investigation of the research phenomenon to assist in testing the research hypotheses, theories, and the development of a TM conceptual model. Descriptive and exploratory studies were conducted to increase knowledge of TM practices, and to generate new insight into the research phenomenon. A mixed-methods approach to research was applied in validating the findings that emerged from the study. The study was conducted in three HEIs. The target population was 3613, which comprised academics, deans, cluster leaders, and professional services. The sample size of 347 was selected using stratified and purposive sampling, respectively. The data was collected using questionnaires and interviews. The instruments for the data collection were pre-tested before the full-scale research. The study relied on 5 participants. The data quality control in the quantitative phase was tested through reliability (Cronbach's alpha coefficient), and validity (content validity and factor analysis). In contrast, data quality control in the qualitative phase was tested through trustworthiness (credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability). The 5-point Likert scale was adopted. The quantitative data was gathered, followed by the qualitative data analysis. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences version 27.0, and analysis of moment structures AMOS version 27, were used to analyse the quantitative data. The study utilised both descriptive and inferential statistics. The NVivo (version 13) was used to analyse the qualitative data. Thematic analysis classified, analysed, and reported patterns found in the data set. The research protocol (HSSREC/00000852/2019) was approved by the UKZN Ethics Committee. Ethical considerations in the study included informed consent, confidentiality/privacy, anonymity, and elimination of bias.

1.10 Limitations and delimitations of the study

The study was conducted at three HEIs located within the provinces of Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal, and the Western Cape. The location of the study posed a significant challenge for the researcher because it required extra effort and resources, including finance. However, sufficient preparations were made for the data-collection process. For example, arrangements were made with the participants regarding where, how, and when the study would be conducted.

Another limitation was time. To ensure a high response rate, the data-collection process should take place while school is in session. However, the researcher found it difficult to gain access to the respondents simultaneously, because of their busy schedules and academic activities, such as teaching, conferences, research, and other personal engagements. To address this challenge, appointments were made with the respondents beforehand regarding the date, time, and place where the study would be conducted.

Moreover, some of the respondents were reluctant to take part in the research through fear that the information solicited from them would be made available to their counterparts. Given the talent competition, it was assumed that the information collected from the participating institutions would be released to their rivals, which could be used against them. However, potential participants were assured that the principles of confidentiality and anonymity were taken seriously. For instance, the participating institutions were guaranteed that their data was purely for academic purposes.

In addition, the researcher encountered a hurdle in obtaining approval from the participating institutions. Initially, the study was supposed to be conducted in five HEIs in South Africa. However, two such institutions declined the request for reasons best known to them. Approval was obtained from only three institutions, namely, the UCT, the UP, and the UKZN.

The last limitation was the COVID-19 epidemic. On 31 December 2019, a viral infection was first reported in China by the World Health Organisation (WHO). The COVID-19 pandemic affected over 70 countries, including Italy, Germany, and South Africa. Over 47 280 090 people were infected globally, leading to more than 1 210 343 deaths as of 3 October 2020. Following the outbreak of the virus in South Africa, the government banned public gatherings, which subsequently led to the closure of all schools, including HEIs. The data-collection process of this study was delayed through difficulty in contacting potential participants.

1.11 Structure of the thesis

The thesis is composed of eight (8) chapters; these are structured as follows:

1.11.1 Chapter one: Introduction

This chapter covers the background to the study, description of the problem statement, outline of the research objectives, research hypotheses, motivation and significance of the study, research methodology, limitations of the research, and organisation of the study.

1.11.2 Chapter two: Talent management policies and programmes, philosophies and rationale

Chapter two reviews TM policies and programmes in HEIs. It also provides a comparative analysis between HEIs in South Africa and other jurisdictions concerning their TM policies. It further highlights the best practices and lessons that South African HEIs should from other HEIs as far as TM practices, policies, and programmes are concern. Moreover, the philosophies that underpin TM are also presented in the chapter. In addition, the rationale for TM implementation in HEIs is part of the discussion in the chapter. It concludes with the factors that serve as barriers to TM implementation in HEIs.

1.11.3 Chapter three: Talent management practices and intangible outcomes

This chapter deals with a literature review about TM strategies such as talent attraction, capacity building, and talent retention. Additionally, the chapter discusses the intangible outcomes of TM practices and concludes with the discussion on the relationship between the dependent, independents, and mediating variables.

1.11.4 Chapter four: Research methodology and design

The chapter explains the research methods adopted to investigate the intangible outcomes of TM in HEIs empirically. The chapter addresses the research paradigm, research strategy, description of the research site, population of the study, sampling strategy and procedures, data collection tool, pre-testing, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

1.11.5 Chapter five: Presentation and analysis of quantitative data

The chapter contains the presentation and analysis of the quantitative data. The SPSS version 27.0 will be employed to assist in the analysis of the data. Both descriptive and inferential statistics will be employed.

1.11.6 Chapter six: Presentation and analysis of qualitative data

This chapter deals with qualitative data analysis and interpretation. The qualitative data will be transcribed and analysed using NVivo software, version 12.0. Thematic analysis will be adopted to help in identifying, analysing, and reporting the findings.

1.11.7 Chapter seven: Discussion of the results

This chapter discusses the findings that were obtained from the research. The discussion of the results will be done per the research objectives and hypotheses.

1.11.8 Chapter eight: Conclusion and recommendations

Chapter eight presents the concluding remarks of the study by integrating and synthesising the findings that emerged from the discussion chapter. It further provides the conclusion of the entire research and highlights its scholarly contribution to the areas such as HRM, Strategic Management, and Industrial Relations. The chapter concludes with the recommendations and directions for further studies.

1.12 Chapter summary

This chapter dealt with the overview of the study by focusing on TM practices and intangible TM outcomes. It has provided background information to the study. Furthermore, the chapter has laid the foundation for the research problem, outlining the research aims, research questions, research objectives, and hypotheses. Moreover, it highlighted the contribution of the study to the field of research, and continued to summarise the research methodology employed. The limitations of the study were further foregrounded in the chapter.

Chapter Two: Talent Management Policies, Philosophies and Rationale

2.1 Introduction

The chapter reviews the empirical literature on TM programmes and policies in some selected HEIs in Germany, Britain, the United States of America, and South Africa. It further reviews the empirical literature on TM philosophies and rationales for TM in HEIs. Moreover, the critical factors affecting TM in HEIs are also discussed in this chapter. The chapter commences with the conceptualisation and contextualisation of key constructs such as talent and TM. This is followed by the review of TM programmes and policies in HEIs, TM philosophies, the rationale for TM, and critical success factors for TM implementation. This chapter addresses research questions 1, 2, and 3, namely:

i. To establish the rationale behind the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
ii. To determine the best approach to the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions; and
iii. To investigate the critical success factors that influence the implementation of talent management programmes in higher education institutions

The qualitative approach will be employed to achieve these objectives empirically. The following section describes the key constructs in the research.

2.2 Clarification of key constructs that underpin the study

Since the phrase 'competition for talent' was coined by McKinsey in 1998 (Chambers et al., 1998), managing talent has widely been considered a tool for addressing HR challenges that arise in the contemporary business environment (Collings & Isichei, 2018; Schuler, Jackson & Tarique, 2010). Owing to the global competition, it is essential for organisations, including universities, to differentiate themselves from other rivals. One of the key strategies is how organisations manage talent to achieve the desired results. Anwar, Nisar, Khan and Sana (2014) point out that the only factor that differentiates one successful organisation from another is the utilising and managing of human capital.

Although many scholars in their studies have used the construct 'talent', it appears that some of their definitions are considered context-driven, therefore not universal (Tansley, Kirk & Tietze, 2013; Tansley, 2011). Moreover, Dries (2013) argues that, despite the numerous studies conducted on TM globally, the conceptualisation of talent has yet to be clarified. From the review of empirical research, most scholars and practitioners view talent as a term reserved only for celebrities, yet to be integrated into most workplaces. To complicate this matter further, Van Zyl, Mathafena and Ras (2017) contend that the lack of a conceptual definition and the theoretical foundation of talent provides ambiguity for the methodology adopted for discovering talent within the work setting. The literature review has also shown that the term talent has not been adequately contextualised and conceptualised within the domain of academic institutions.

On the other hand, TM is not a novel concept. Nevertheless, TM has been obscurely defined because of its complexity (Creelman, 2004; Lockwood, 2006). According to Collings and Mellah (2009), TM has no clear conceptual boundaries through lack of consensus among scholars. Other scholars (Ashton & Morton, 2005; Lewis & Heckman, 2006) also admit that, although there are several definitions of the term TM, the major problem is the inability to measure and qualify the influence of TM within the workplace. In the TM literature, TM is ill-defined or conceptualised inconsistently apropos of its outcomes and processes. The extant literature has shown varied definitions of the talent and TM constructs. Table 2.1 includes some descriptions of these constructs.

Table 2.1 Summary definitions of talent and talent management

Definition of the construct talent	**Authors**
Talent implies behaviour and actions taken which are superior to those taken by others, such as colleagues.	Branham (2001)
Talent is an individual's ability to repeatedly inspire, energise, and arouse others' emotions.	Joubert (2007)
Talent has been defined as that aspect found in individuals capable of adding value to organisational performance through their contribution, hard work, and sacrifices.	CIPD (2007)
In Western culture, talent refers to an innate ability that results in high performance in a particular area or domain. Within the Japanese culture, talent is conceptualised as the highest accomplishment after undergoing several years of training.	Tansley (2011)
Definitions of the construct TM	**Authors**
TM consists of the process of attracting, recruiting, and maintaining highly talented employees within an organisation.	Creelman (2004)
TM, broadly, is seen as integrated strategies and systems to improve organisational productivity, through attracting, developing, and retaining talent; as well as the utilisation of a workforce with the relevant skills and abilities for the purpose of meeting present and future needs of the business.	Lockwood (2006)
TM is the systematic utilisation of HRM activities for identifying, attracting, developing, and maintaining a highly talented workforce who can add value to the organisation.	Tarique and Schuler (2010)
TM is a systematic process which aims to attract, identify, develop, engage, and retain employees who can add value to the organisation.	CIPD (2012)
TM is defined as a process deemed to attract, develop, place, retain, and integrate highly qualified workforce members, while having the potential for high performance in accordance with the organisation's long-term strategies, with a view to gaining competitive advantage.	Aytaç (2015)

Concerning the concept of talent, this study adopts the working definition provided by CIPD (2007). This is because, in this competitive era, HEIs require individuals capable of adding value to the organisation through their contribution, hard work, and sacrifices. Regarding TM, this study adopts the definition offered by CIPD (2012). The essence of TM is to identify, attract, develop, and maintain highly qualified employees and high performers who can add value to the organisation. The following section reviews TM policies and programmes in some selected universities in various countries, including South Africa.

2.3 Talent management policies and programmes: British University perspective

In the 19th century, a significant expansion occurred within the United Kingdom (UK) education landscape, which led to the establishment of many HEIs (Kogan, 2018). The expansion grew to 162 HEIs, excluding further education colleges, in receipt of public funding via one of the United Kingdom's (UK) funding councils (Universities UK, 2016). The UK is considered the second country after the USA in ability to attract international scholars (Universities UK, 2016). Hewett (2012) claims that TM is a critical function of the HR department in most universities in Britain. Among British universities, the review focuses only on Cambridge, Oxford, and Imperial College London.

University of Cambridge is situated in Cambridge, England, and is the second-oldest university, remaining one of the leading institutions of higher learning worldwide. The university opened in the year 1209 with only a few scholars (Vlachoutsicos & Charalambos, 2011). The university has consistently been ranked among world-class universities. The University of Cambridge has a policy on TM, thus it provides a wide range of opportunities for training and development for members across the various faculties. Within the context of TM, special attention is paid to development programmes for managers and leaders in different clusters (University of Cambridge, 2015). These TM development programmes include both short programmes and online modules that support personal development; administrator development programmes, research development programmes for scholars, strategic development programmes, aspiring leadership programmes, development programmes for heads of institutions, and senior leadership succession programmes (University of Cambridge, 2015).

University of Oxford, also located in England, is considered a collegiate research institution. Unlike the University of Cambridge, University of Oxford is yet to have a TM policy.

Nevertheless, its strategic plan is to strengthen support arrangements for all staff members. The university offers personal and professional development and mentoring programmes that promote career development (University of Oxford, 2015). The university also prioritises developing potential leaders through succession-management programmes and leadership training (University of Oxford, 2015).

Imperial College London was established in 1845, and grew from Prince Albert's vision of an area for culture to flourish. Over the years, Imperial College London has been implementing numerous talent development programmes for its staff members. According to the Imperial College London (2015), a new TM programme called 'Meridian' was introduced to identify and develop candidates with high potential to occupy senior management positions. It appears that Imperial College London places much emphasis on succession planning as a tool for developing candidates as successors. This university is further committed to ensuring that recruitment and selection procedures are applied consistently and fairly. Such procedures must comply with government regulatory frameworks, practices, and principles. Procedures must be conducted in a professional, timely, and responsive manner, appointing candidates based on merit, and supporting the college's mission and strategy (Imperial College London, 2015).

2.4 Talent management policies and programmes: German University perspective

TM in Germany emerged several years ago and is regulated by government policies and university strategies. TM practices received much recognition among researchers and scholars in Germany, TM being the key driver for technological innovations and in building a knowledge-based society. TM practices are considered best practices in German HEIs in attracting early-stage researchers. On the contrary, Landwehr (2016) argues that, while TM has become an essential issue on the HR agenda worldwide, it seems that TM practices, infrastructure, and success measurements in German organisations are still negligible. Among German universities, the review focuses on TM programmes and policies at University of Cologne (UoC) and Cologne University of Applied Sciences (CUAS).

UoC is one of the few universities in Germany which has implemented a TM policy and programmes to attract highly talented academics. UoC considers the TM programme a key strategy for interdisciplinary research, at the same time strengthening the mobility of international researchers. UoC complies with the government's international level strategy by tailoring its TM policy and programmes to attract the best talent. UoC has initiated several HR interventions in creating a climate which achieves the following: to allow staff to focus on their research; to professionalize the recruitment and selection process; to ensure a speedy and transparent appointment; to offer opportunities for faculty heads, and to promote intercultural integration (Stevens, 2008). The TM practices and policy at UoC provide full support to scientists, inventors, and start-up researchers for their ideas related to intellectual property rights, European Union programmes, and in advising on legal aspects (Elena & Pook, 2013).

CUAS is regarded as a research-intensive institution that engages in a wide range of research programmes. CUAS has a TM policy and strategy which focuses on talent attraction, capacity building, and retention of highly qualified researchers, and fostering a research culture. In 2014, the university received the HR Excellence Research award for participating in an HR strategy for researchers. The strategy focused on developing a strong research culture, creating better working conditions for researchers, and promoting an academic career (Berkner, 2015). CUAS has implemented a development strategy known as their 'Charter and Code of Conduct', offering exceptional career opportunities to all staff members. As part of the TM practices, the university has established a new HR development team to be responsible for HR issues in a sustainable manner. The university seeks to create a conducive working atmosphere for staff, particularly for research scholars, through specific HR strategies which promote academic careers and research activities at various career levels.

2.5 Talent management policies and programmes: United States of America University perspective

The early 1960s has witnessed a radical transformation in the USA HE sector through expansion in the student population (Baum, Kurose & McPherson, 2013). The HE has been a major part of the USA economy and political development (Stevens & Gebre-Medhin, 2016). The USA HE sector is considered a multipurpose vehicle that promotes the development of US geopolitical interests. Universities in USA are encouraged to refine their educational access and promote diversity in unique ways based on their missions and strategic goals (US Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2016). According to Musu-Gillette, De Brey, McFarland, Hussar, Sonnenberg and Wilkinson-Flicker (2017), community engagement and partnership programmes were introduced into the USA HEIs to address inequalities.

Hewett (2012) argues that, as with Britain, universities in USA consider TM a critical function of an HR unit. In a survey conducted among 80 universities in USA, it was found that 36% considered TM as one of the five top strategies of the university development (Hewett, 2012). Moreover, Riccio (2010) found that studies on TM practices in USA universities are useful for designing and formulating retention policies for high-performing faculty members. According to Evans and Chun (2012), most universities in the USA see TM as a differentiation tool for harnessing the power of potential employees. For universities in USA, the review focuses only on TM policies and programmes in the University of Pennsylvania, Yale University, Harvard University, and Columbia University.

University of Pennsylvania is one of the leading HEIs in the USA, located in Pennsylvania. The university has a well-functioning TM policy which focuses mainly on capacity building. Edwards (2008) argues that TM practices and policy in the University of Pennsylvania received full support from the top management, especially from the president (Amy Gutmann) who inspired members to contribute to raising the university's status. The university offers various career opportunities to all staff, including career development, mentoring, coaching, and leadership programmes. In addition, University of Pennsylvania offers a cohort-based programme for all emerging leaders and non-faculty staff (Edwards, 2008).

University of Pennsylvania has a decentralised system which offers significant opportunities for staff members to grow their careers. The TM policy within the university encourages employees to take proactive steps in their own development. The leadership programme at the University of Pennsylvania was developed under a consultant's advice. The programme was aimed at tracking potential in both academics and non-academics across the various faculties. The TM policy further seeks to guide the university to achieve the following: addressing real-time problems, and identifying new strategic, systemic, and technical issues related to the institution.

Yale University also offers diverse TM development programmes for both academics and support staff (Yale University, 2015). Talent development in Yale University is a top priority of the HR policy. The university has established a separate office, the 'Organisational Effectiveness Department', responsible for attracting, retaining, and developing talent. According to Yale University (2015), there are three unique development programmes: career-development programmes for managers, professional-development programmes, and staff-development programmes. The development programmes for managers include a performance-management system, management-supervision training, coaching, as well as managing people for results. The professional-development programmes include programmes such as optimising an individual's career development, change management, leading with influence, mastering difficult conversations, and conflict resolution. Staff-development programmes include setting goals, building networks, managing change, career satisfaction, as well as managing individual careers (Yale University, 2015).

Harvard University is one of the few HEIs that recognises the significance of internal talent development. Harvard University has developed a special programme, the 'Harvard Leadership Development Programme', consisting of five multiday programmes designed purposely for different categories of staff. The aim is to address the leadership-development needs across various levels. The five multiday programmes aim to address the needs of all staff including leaders, support staff, individual contributors, research supervisors, senior management, and executives. The university has also implemented a unique programme known as the 'Harvard Bridge Programme', an education and training programme for both professional services staff and faculty members (Harvard University, 2015).

Columbia University aims to attract students and young academics from all over the world to assist in research and teaching on global phenomena. At the same time, such staff will develop academic relationships with other universities around the world (Columbia University, 2015). Compared with the University of Pennsylvania, Yale University, and Harvard University, TM is not a critical issue for the HR unit in Columbia University (Boichenko, 2015). The university recognises the importance of learning and staff development. The university has initiated several professional-development programmes which target all academic and support staff. Staff promotion constitutes a major priority of the university.

2.6 Talent management policies and programmes: South African University perspective

Post-1994 policies and the South African Constitution Act 108 of 1996 view education as a tool for achieving economic and social transformation and development (Shrivastava & Shrivastava, 2014). South African HEIs are expected to address the legacies of intellectual colonisation and racialisation (du Toit, 2000). The government invests about 20% of its national budget in education (Leibowitz, Bozalek, Van Schalkwyk, & Winberg, 2015). In 2008, the South African

HE system was ranked between 27 and 33, along with most developed countries such as Hong Kong and Ireland (Shanghai Rankings, 2009). To promote quality of HE, the National Commission on Higher Education (NCHE) was established, which consisted of 13 research groups and commissioners. The members of the NCHE are mandated to address broad issues that relate to the HE sector (Cloete, 2014). South Africa is the leading producer of publications (37%) on the Africa continent, followed by Egypt (27%) and Nigeria (12%) (Leibowitz et al., 2015).

When it comes to efficiency, the South African HEI and its training system were ranked 75th, but 49th in terms of local availability of specialised research and training (World Economic Forum (WEF), 2010). As part of the initiatives to transform South African HEIs, many institutions have adopted a model commonly known as the "racial integration approach". Such a model helped to eliminate cultural homogeneity, and move towards the construction of a workplace or environment in which new national identities are built (Habib, 2016). The racial-integration approach allows learners and staff from a variety of racial and cultural backgrounds to enroll in various institutions. The racial-integration approach is based on the premise that both learners and staff should come together to interact with one another, but not as representatives of the various racial groups (Habib, 2016). Apart from the racial-integration approach, two different sets of principles direct the executive and strategic operations of HEIs. The former is founded on the preamble of the Constitution which demands public institutions to simultaneously address imbalances created by the Apartheid government, and build a collective national identity. The latter is contained in the written manifesto and architecture of all HEIs. The manifesto requires every institution to be nationally responsive and at the same time cosmopolitan (Habib, 2016).

HEIs in South Africa are faced with the phenomenon of the changing workforce (Liversage, 2015). The so-called 'Baby Boomers' are likely to retire in the near future. Their retirement will present a huge challenge for most universities, given the limited time for developing talent to fill the gap. Consequently, the majority of skills, knowledge and experience may be lost when the "Boomers" finally exit their respective institutions (Liversage, 2015). To attract, develop, and retain talent, few universities in South Africa have recognised the need for an integrated TM policy and programmes. Of the South African universities, this study reviews the TM policies and programmes at UKZN, UCT, and UP.

UKZN came into existence in 2004 because of a merger between the University of Durban and the University of Natal. KZN aims to create a value-driven organisational culture that empowers people to achieve institutional goals. According to Subbaye and Dhunpath (2016), in 2011, the UKZN implemented an integrated TM policy to attract and retain highly qualified staff, at the same time meeting the employment equity objectives. The integrated TM policy states that the UKZN will provide competitive employment conditions and opportunities for staff to achieve their career goals. The objective of the policy is to enhance the achievement of the institutional objectives through the identification, attraction, nurturing, and retention of talent throughout the institution. Other objectives of the TM policy are to attract and maintain high-performing and committed talent to assist in achieving the overall strategic objectives; and to inspire staff members to acquire competencies required, thus enabling them to discharge their mandates or duties with maximum efficiency and effectiveness (Subbaye & Dhunpath, 2016).

UCT was established in 1918. Unlike the UKZN, the UCT has no specific policy on TM. However, the university has other HR policies such as recruitment, conditions of service, remuneration and benefits, performance, and promotion, learning and development, and employee relations which relate to TM practices. For instance, the guidelines on recruitment within the university state that the Staff Recruitment Office will be responsible for: advertising vacancies, at all levels, coordinating staffing processes for academics, and professional and administrative support services; and ensuring compliance with the provisions of the employment equity policy and regulatory framework. UCT has a detailed policy on the conditions of service which covers every staff member. The policy on the general conditions of service includes aspects of the employment contract, namely: values and principles, introduction and requirements prior to taking up appointment, probation period and confirmation, heads of academic departments, copyrights and licences, additional teaching and private work, performance management, promotion, retirement funding, risk cover, medical aid, tuition fees, hours of work, leave, and religious holidays, to mention a few (UCT HR Policies, 2014).

Moreover, the university has a policy on remuneration and benefits which is intended to attract, retain, and reward staff who have made diverse contributions to the university in achieving its vision. Apart from the recruitment and remuneration and benefits policies, there is a policy on performance and promotion. UCT aspires to provide its academics with the opportunities to advance their career through learning and development. Learning and development programmes at UCT are tailored towards building the capabilities, skills, and knowledge of all staff members, particularly academics (UCT HR Policies, 2014).

UP is strategically located in Pretoria, Gauteng. UP is ranked among top universities on the African continent and worldwide (University of Pretoria, 2011). Unlike UKZN, UP has no specific policy on TM. UP, in its 2025 strategic plan, acknowledges the importance of developing and attracting talent. The university is research oriented; it employs faculty members to assist in implementing its strategies, however, it has no policy to that effect. Nevertheless, the 2025 strategic plan addresses some TM issues which focus particularly on staff development. The 2025 strategic plan states that UP will focus on supporting staff to obtain doctoral or equivalent qualifications (University of Pretoria, 2011). The 2025 strategic plan also states that the university will focus on the development of a diverse band of excellent young and vibrant academics through succession planning, to assist in increasing the pool of doctoral and postdoctoral students.

2.7 Research gaps identified in the talent management policies and programmes

The research reviewed has tended to focus only on TM practices, such as recruitment and selection, remuneration, training & development, career development, career planning, and career management. Therefore, this study identified gaps in the literature review that require further investigation. Compared with industry, the HE sector lags behind when it comes to employer branding. A growing number of studies (Cheese, Thomas & Craig, 2007; Crous, 2007; Minchington, 2010; Willock, 2005) found that employer branding correlates with talent attraction and retention within organisations. However, such studies are lacking in the HE context. Additionally, extant literature reveals that although job analysis is not a novel concept, it receives little attention from organisational research and HR practitioners. Moreover, the literature review shows that, although employer-employee relationship and work-life balance are the predictors of talent retention, they receive little scholarly interest.

2.8 Rationale for talent management in higher education institutions

A robust and agile TM strategy within an organisation is very important (Capelli & Keller, 2014; CIPD, 2012). According to McCartney and Worman (2013), several issues have necessitated TM in an organisation, which include, but are not limited to: increased competition, talent mapping, the desire to resolve challenges associated with succession planning, recruitment, and retention issues, the changes in demographics and market conditions, the underutilization of the existing workforce, and the scarcity of skills. Heidke (2006) postulates that TM was introduced into HEIs for the following reasons: to reduce recruitment costs, to retain talented employees, to ensure effective management of knowledge and transfer, to reduce enterprise risks, to achieve competitive advantage, to improve client retention, and to ensure retention of adequate staff.

Research (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Mellahi & Collings 2010) shows that TM was introduced into most organisations in order to address the competition for talent in the increasing labour market, alongside the demand for career opportunities. Scullion, Collings and Caligiuri (2010) observe that most organisations implement TM programmes to enable them to manage and sustain their knowledge base. According to Collings and Mellahi (2009), TM emerged in some organisations with the aim of providing solutions to current challenges in HR, as well as to enhance organisational efficiency. Phillips and Roper (2009), in their study, found that most organisations initiated TM practices and programmes in order to enhance employee engagement and to reduce staff turnover. A recent study shows that some HEIs implement TM with the sole purpose of increasing employee engagement (Barkhuizen et al., 2014). Employee engagement researchers (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Bakker, Schaufeli, Leiter & Taris, 2008) agree that employees who are highly engaged display more effort and commitment towards work, which can lead to positive outcomes such as increase in performance and profitability.

TM and service-quality researchers (Popescu, Avram & Dana, 2012) contend that TM was introduced with the objective of improving service delivery and customer satisfaction. Service quality has been conceptualised by Parasuraman, Zeithaml and Berry (1988) as the relationship between expectations of customers and the perceived experience. Schneider, White and Paul (1998) agree with other scholars that service delivery can be improved through TM practices such as employee training, management practices and assistance. Scholars such as Scott and Revis (2008) and Zheng (2009) also admit that one of the rationales behind TM practices such as talent attraction and retention is to improve quality service delivery.

According to Davies and Davies (2010), TM is increasingly being perceived as a strategic tool for developing future leaders within an organisation. It has also been argued that the purpose of TM in an organisation is to enhance the achievement of the strategic objectives, for instance, by creating a learning environment that increases employee performance, and adding value to the firm's brand (Davies & Davies, 2010). Moreover, Gay and Sims (2006) concur that TM concerns the investment in people development through the identification of talented individuals for the purpose of developing them for leadership positions within the organisation.

Collings (2014) states that the purpose of TM is to increase employee performance, and to promote leadership succession within an organisation. Cappelli (2008) admits that TM emerged to enable organisations to identify a pool of high performers who can make a significant contribution to the organisational performance. Cappelli (2008) further adds that the purpose of TM is to enable organisations to forecast and meet human-capital requirements. Boxall and Purcell (2000) and Lewis and Heckman (2006) suggest that the primary purpose of TM is to manage talent through HR activities which include talent attraction, employee engagement, talent development, transfer of talent, and talent retention.

A survey shows that the University of Cambridge initiated TM programmes aiming to train and develop differently targeted staff (University of Cambridge, 2015). Likewise, at Imperial College London, the focus of TM is mainly on talent-development programmes for all staff (Imperial College London, 2015). At Yale University, TM focuses mainly on talent development. At the Columbia University, TM pays critical attention to staff learning and development (Columbia University, 2015).

Studies (Chun & Evans, 2009, 2013) show that strategic TM in HEIs addresses four main issues: recruitment, community engagement, and hiring; diversity and affirmative action; reward management; and employee engagement. For Ng (2013), TM was introduced into Singapore universities to attract world-class universities and top academics. The scholar suggests that some organisations implement a TM programme for the following reasons: selection and placement, staff learning and training, performance management, total rewards, and succession planning. From the review of literature, it appears that the purpose of TM varies from one organisation to another. Therefore, this study aims to determine the rationale for TM in South African HEIs.

Bradley (2016) proposes that TM could be introduced into HEIs to provide a conceptual framework which would improve performance in the long-run. This could be accomplished by aligning a university's strategy with its performance metrics and management of its systems on a daily basis. In their study, Hilman and Abubakar (2017) argue that TM increases performance in profit-oriented organisations. In a recent study conducted by Mohammed, Baig and Gururajan (2019), TM emerges in Australian HEs for the purpose of knowledge creation. Neri and Wilkins (2019) believe that TM emerges as a key strategic area for recruiting and retaining talent. Al Aina and Atan (2020) point out that the implementation of TM practices to achieve sustainable performance is the major priority for academics and practitioners. The next section reviews the philosophies or approaches to TM in HEIs.

2.9 Philosophies underlying talent management in higher education institutions

There are various philosophies that underpin TM practices within organisations. To quantify and qualify TM practices in educational institutions, it is imperative to provide more insights into these TM philosophies. Sparrow and Makram (2015) suggest that, to understand which elements within the TM deliver value for an organisation, one needs to ask deeper questions about the extent to which TM architecture adds value to the organisation. The term 'architecture' is deeply rooted in HR and human-capital literature. Many scholars (Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Becker & Huselid, 2006; Lepak & Snell, 1999; Wright & McMahan, 1992) rely on architectural metaphors to explain value creation in SHRM. TM architecture comprises processes and practices designed and implemented by firms to manage talent in the most effective and efficient manner. TM literature relies heavily on intellectual capital thinking to explain value creation (Sparrow & Makram, 2015). The human-capital thinking assumes that 'value' resides in the specific set of human attributes possessed by a certain group of people, which include knowledge, abilities, skills, and competencies. In most organisations, the so-called talented people are differentiated from ordinary employees by their unique talent, which enables them to add value to the organisation (Sparrow & Makram, 2015). Additionally, employees who possess unique talent are considered the organisation's valuable resources that create value for the organisation.

In this regard, Schiemann (2014) remarks that talent architecture must be managed in a more effective manner. There are two important issues which complicate the conceptualisation and contextualisation of architecture, such as the various strategies and skills relevant for value creation (Lepak & Snell, 1999). Architecture researchers such as Boxall (2012) and Sparrow, Scullion and Tarique (2014) argue that architecture seems to be the same across many organisations. However, in reality, the beliefs that underpin the architecture may vary from one organisation to another. They may also be special to each organisation and dependent on the business strategy, decision-making processes, and inherent philosophies of the organisation. From a theoretical perspective, it appears that there are divergent views about the value of talent within an organisation. Meyers and van Woerkom (2014) express a similar opinion that a more differentiated view is required to determine the extent to which managing talent is of great value to the organisation, by relying on the assumptions of TM philosophies. Collings and Mellahi (2009) identify four generic philosophies behind TM: the people, practices, position, and strategic-pools approaches. However, there is limited empirical research in the South African context on the best philosophy that underpins TM within academic institutions. Therefore, this study aims to identify the philosophy or philosophies that underpin TM in South African HEIs.

2.9.1 The people approach to talent management

According to Guthridge, Komm and Lawson (2006), the people approach to TM pays critical attention to the management of small groups of workers who possess unique skills either scarce or rare, or difficult to replace. This approach to TM proposes different ways of managing people through HRM practices that are developed to identify, attract, and maintain high performers. Sparrow et al. (2014) argue that, despite the categorisation and differentiation of talent reflected in the ‘competition for talent discourse’, talent is underpinned by three important enablers. The first enabling concept is an implicit strategic-portfolios approach which distinguishes investments in talent on two bases, namely, performance matrix versus potential (Odiorne, 1984).

The second enabling concept is the assumption that firms require a paradigm shift in policy owing to an ‘informated’ work environment (environment designed to ensure the flow of information) as well as one more fluid. This enabling concept further assumes that social and structural work designs are changing the value of talent and giving people opportunities to acquire intellectual skills (Zuboff, 1988). These intellectual skills have been conceptualized as the power and ability of the organisation, as well as the availability of social opportunities (Zuboff, 1988). The last enabling concept is the individualization of organisations and the understanding of how employees’ competencies are managed. This approach proposes a paradigm shift in the hiring process from a ‘pay-for-the-job method, to a ‘pay-for-the-person method’. The former approach holds the view that tasks may be designed, assessed, and differentiated based on factors such as the size of the organisation, complexity of the job, as well as the employee’s fitness for the job. The latter approach assumes that certain jobs are more flexible and uncertain to be measured, hence

HR systems should provide talented employees with the capabilities of creating and designing their own jobs in the most suitable and effective manner (Lawler, 1994).

The people approach to TM places emphasis on two competitions − inter-personal and intra-personal. The former competition suggests that there is the need for effective business strategies to develop individual skills in a cut-throat, free-agent labour market. This approach to competition sees TM as a leadership tool, which requires special attention to address the performance gap. This would be through explicit categorisation and segmentation of talent into different groups. For instance, there would be ‘A, B and C’, through HR strategies such as recruitment, talent retention, and total rewards (Sears, 2003). According to Nijs, Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries and Sels (2014), the latter competition has its origin in the excellence literature, which concerns retaining high performers. Intra-personal competition has its foundation in the positive psychology and egalitarianism, which assumes that every employee has talent and can improve his or her efficiency. However, intra-personal competition allows room for pragmatic judgement on the basis that high-level performances cannot be possible for all employees, therefore differential investments should be expected.

The philosophy of categorising and differentiating people has attracted criticism from many scholars (Pfeffer, 2001; Stein & Capape, 2009). The first criticism relates to the ‘locus of organisational effectiveness’, which assumes that human capital constitutes the primary source of creating a competitive advantage for organisations. Critics argue that the over-reliance on intellectual capital is an inappropriate fulcrum for enhancing effectiveness, which draws the focus away from the proper fulcrum. The second criticism is based on cognitive limits rooted in strategic-management psychology. Critics (Hodgkinson & Sparrow, 2002) point out that this assumption is likely to create more risks, and may affect the capturing of value, unless the TM architecture is integrated into the knowledge management and the organisation’s cognition framework.

2.9.2 The practice approach to talent management

The practice approach to TM requires advanced and sophisticated HRM practices (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Theorists (Gubman & Green, 2007; Meyers & Van Woerkom, 2014; Silzer & Dowell, 2010) believe that the practice approach to TM reflects the arguments in the HR bundle debate. Elements of HR programmes and practices are required to build a wider and more coherent system and business model, which fits into the overall business strategy. This approach to TM employs the thinking embodied within the HR architecture literature. However, there are varied descriptions of what the bundle of practices should include. Sparrow et al. (2014) note that these prescriptions revolve around seven elements − talent identification and recruitment, talent attraction, reducing attrition rate through engagement and retention, identification of key talent within the organisation, management of talent within the organisation, talent development, and delivering organisational results.

Al Ariss, Cascio and Paauwe (2014) provides a general explanation of TM practices comprising practices that relate to the identification of strategic positions in the organisation, talent development, and enhancement of employee commitment. The practice approach to TM originated from the HRM and bundles literature (Martin & Cerdin, 2014; Martin, Gollan, & Grigg, 2011). Although the practice philosophy generates relevant questions which need to be addressed, it fails to provide adequate explanation of how such practices and their bundling create value for the organisation.

2.9.3 The positions approach to talent management

According to Pfeffer (2001), the positions approach begins with the critique which relates to organisational effectiveness and value creation. This approach to TM is based on the belief that, while some HR practitioners have the ethical obligation of objecting to the categorisation of talent, for instance, as A, B, and C players, there is less emotional reactivity in categorisation of people according to positions. Huselid, Beatty and Becker (2005) believe that 'A positions' have two distinguishing features which include a disproportionate role to execute some part of the organisation strategic goals. There are, however, some differences in the kind of task or job performed by employees in the said positions. On the other hand, the 'B positions' may be considered strategic in nature; however, the skills required are similar across the board, and there is less of a performance gap among the employees. The 'C positions' perform specific responsibilities but may be considered non-core.

It is suggested that there is the need for a matched strategy to combine the positions approach with the characteristics in the people categorisation philosophy through the process of identifying positions and developing potential talent to occupy the said positions (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). The link between TM and organisational design means that additional value should lead to any of three outcomes or values. The first is 'value creation', which involves building, attracting, and developing employee talent based on the strategic objectives of the business model (Sparrow, Hird, Hesketh & Cooper, 2010). The second is ‘value leverage’, which involves improving the business plan and talent through learning how best to implement a business strategy, and through transfer of knowledge and learning, and managing of talent through structural channels to ensure engagement of the broader organisation with the business model (Sparrow et al., 2010). The third is ‘value protection’, which involves the task of making sure that the value created and captured is retained. However, critics argue that the ideas about organisational design cannot be driven by intellectual capital traditions. Rather, they are determined by information and knowledge-market theories (Sparrow et al., 2010).

2.9.4 The strategic-pools approach to talent management

Theorists (Boudreau & Jesuthasan, 2011; Nahapiet, 2011) assume that the strategic-pools approach to TM draws on human-capital analytics and strategic-human-resource planning. This perspective focuses on attracting highly qualified employees into the various parts of an organisation (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Jackson and Schuler (1990) and Rothwell (2010) believe that the strategic-pools approach is closely linked to resource planning and development. It has also been argued that the strategic-pools approach pays attention to forecasting future HR needs, career development, and internal employee matters (Schweyer, 2004).

Fitz-enz (2000) argues that, from the HR accounting perspective, there are two main capabilities which are required to convert the workforce planning process into TM architecture: determining the effect of human capital on the firm’s ability to complete the business activities through its influence on organisational objectives; and having the forward-looking skills required to forecast and predict business outcomes. In searching for how organisation create value for their talent, the phrase ‘talent pools’ was coined, which suggests that investments in human capital lead to organisational success and competitive advantage (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005, 2007). This perspective underscores the importance of the KBV of the firm, which underpins this study.

Boudreau and Ramstad (2007) advocate that this philosophy reflects the argument in the human-capital theory (the costs of talent development and retention must be considered investments in the firm); and in the expectancy theory (individual decisions in terms of personal investments and only self-invest when indications suggest that such investments are of value to the organisation). The strategic-pools approach calls for theoretical expansions beyond the intellectual/human-capital theory. For instance, researchers (Cappelli, 2008; Keller & Cappelli, 2014) propose the need for the supply-chain management theory to help explain the design in the work environments that are perceived to present uncertainty in demand and supply. By contrast, this study suggests the need for the KBV of the firm to determine how talent, as a valuable resource, can be harnessed by organisations to achieve their strategic goals or objectives, for instance, sustainability, and organisational performance.

2.10 Critical factors affecting talent management in higher education institutions

A study conducted by Kamal and Lukman (2017) suggests that TM in public institutions in Malaysia is still in its early stages, with several problems needing to be addressed by the leadership. These challenges arose in all the phases: talent attraction, recruitment, development, and retention. Moreover, research suggests that the factors influencing TM implementation include institutional culture (Schein, 1990; Schhneider & Reichers, 1983), nature of competition, unavailability of talent (Hejase, Hejase, Mikdashi & Bazeih, 2016), alignment of TM with the institution/business strategy (Cappelli, 2008), and demographic variables. According to Yarnall (2011), many institutions are implementing TM without taking into consideration the implications of such application either on the talent pool or for the remaining employees.

In a similar research, Hejase, Eid, Hamdar and Haddad (2012) postulate that most institutions have applied some components of TM, but have failed to integrate them properly. Hejase et al. (2012) suggest that a TM programme must be part of the HR agenda, and must be aligned with the institution's vision, culture, and strategic goals. Similarly, Wellins, Liu and Qiuyong (2010) point out that one critical challenge of TM is that most leaders are not sufficiently competent to apply TM tools and processes. In addition, they (Wellins et al., 2010) add that a TM programme has failed in most organisations because leaders do not have adequate and deep enough understanding of how the TM strategy supports the business strategy.

Commenting further on the challenges affecting TM implementation, Tansley, Harris, Stewart and Turner (2006) postulate that TM programmes in some organisations are ineffective because the strategic aspects of HR are limited. TM programmes are being conducted for operational reasons, rather than for strategic reasons. The Human Capital Institute and Hewitt Associates (2008) observe that the major barriers affecting TM in an organisation are the inability to integrate TM programmes, lack of investment in talent, and the difficulty of measuring the return on the investment in talent.

Recent studies (Boselie & Thunnissen, 2017; Cappelli & Keller, 2014; Tafti, Mahmoudsalehi & Amiri, 2017) reveal that the barriers affecting TM implementation in organisations include talent identification and utilisation of a performance-management system. It was found that the lack of a performance-management system may lead to bias towards competence, thereby ignoring leadership competencies (Tafti et al., 2017). A study shows that the differentiation of talent, and the subjectivity of that process, will lead to inconsistency in the identification talent (Cappelli & Keller, 2014). Likewise, Skuza, Scullion and McDonnell (2013) contend that hierarchical organisational structures have the potential to reduce the accountability and commitment of the senior management to the process; as a result, undermining the viability of the TM process. Skuza et al. (2013) stress that personal relationships may frustrate the objectivity of the process, which has the potential to affect talent development within the organisation.

In their study, Schuler, Jackson and Tarique (2011) identify the key barriers affecting TM in most organisations, including insufficient time given by senior managers to TM programmes, lack of top-management involvement and support, unwillingness to acknowledge performance differences, ineffective HR departments, and lack of organisational structures. Scholars such as Guthridge, Komm and Lawson (2008) acknowledge that the common barriers which influence the effectiveness of TM programmes in organisations are insufficient time on the part of senior managers to implement TM programmes, lack of managerial support and commitment concerning talent development, low level of collaboration and talent sharing among people in diverse departments or units, inability to align TM strategies with the overall business strategies, lack of effective line managers, and role ambiguity in terms of the role of the HR department. Mellahi and Collings (2010) claim that the reason for TM initiatives failure is that most managers take decisions without having access to sufficient information.

Evidence further shows that the factors affecting talent retention and development include salary and benefits (Rani & Kumar, 2014). Likewise, Annakis et al. (2014) believe that academics' perception of talent identification, development, and TM culture are the barriers to TM in Malaysian universities. According to Bradley (2016), the factors hampering TM include lack of a clear alignment between organisational strategies and how talent is attracted, developed, retained, and rewarded. Mousa and Ayoubi (2019) concur that the factors influencing TM in Egyptian schools are lack of cultural and technical dimensions, including adaptability, consistency, and knowledge sharing. In their study, Do, Le and Phan (2020) discover that the critical factors that affect TM in universities in Ho Chi Minh City include job satisfaction, motivation, commitment, and loyalty. Shahi, Farrokhsheresht, Taghipourian and Aghajani (2020) identify the behavioural factors affecting TM, including reputation of the organisation, management perception towards TM strategy, social responsibility, management support, learning opportunities, favourable behavioural atmosphere, resources and teamwork. Similarly, Ahmadi, ZahedBabelan, Moradi and Khaleghkhah (2017) contend that the factors that impact TM are teamwork, corporate culture, opportunities for growth, prosperity, communication, organisational climate, empowerment, leadership, training-needs assessment, clear mission and vision, recognition, job satisfaction, person-job fitness, and quality of work-life balance.

In South Africa, a study carried out by Koketso and Rust (2012) reveals that the challenges affecting TM programmes include the inability to maintain key talent, lack of recognition and respect, lack of succession planning, and lack of career planning and strategies. In Kenya, research (Orwa & Njeri, 2014) shows that the key challenges which affect TM in most organisations include organisational culture, lack of career management, lack of incentive systems, and poor work environment.

2.11 Chapter summary

The review of literature suggests that there are various definitions of talent and TM. Moreover, it is suggested that the rationale for TM varies from institution to institution. The review reflects the different approaches to TM. The review of literature shows that TM implementation in HEIs is affected by several factors such as institutional culture, nature of competition, unavailability of talent, alignment of TM with the institution/business strategy, competent leaders and managers, talent identification and utilisation of a performance-management system. The next chapter discusses TM practices and their intangible outcomes in HEIs.

Chapter Three: Talent Management Practices and Intangible Outcomes

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on TM practices, intangible outcomes of TM, competitive advantage and scarcity of skills in HEIs. The TM practices which form part of the discussion in this chapter include talent identification and attraction, capacity building (talent development), and talent retention. Moreover, HR strategies which fall under each of the TM practices are also discussed in this chapter. The intangible outcomes of TM such as organisational trust, humility, employee engagement, teaching and learning, and research, and university-industry collaboration are part of the discussion. Additionally, the chapter discusses the correlation between TM practices and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills in HEIs. Also, the theoretical and conceptual model upon which the study will be predicated is presented and discussed in the chapter. The chapter addresses the research objectives 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1 Research objectives and methods of investigation

Research objectives	Method of investigation
2. To identify talent management practices that influence talent identification and attraction into higher education institutions	Mixed-methods approach
3. To ascertain talent management practices' contribution to capacity building in higher education institutions	Mixed-methods approach
4. To examine talent management practices that influence talent retention in higher education institutions	Mixed methods approach
5. To establish the type of relationship that exists between talent management practices and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills	Mixed-methods approach
6. To examine the relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills	Mixed-methods approach
7. To explore the relationship between talent management practices and intangible outcomes of talent management	Quantitative method
8. To evaluate the extent to which intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage	Quantitative method

3.2 Talent management practices for identifying and attracting talent

According to Tarique and Schuler (2010), talent attraction is the process by which a firm competes in the global market for intellectual capital. Tarique and Schuler (2010) suggest that the ability of an organisation to attract high-potential employees is critical. There is competition for talent in which many other organisations, including HEIs, are also looking to attract the best candidates. Lorange (2006) believes that, globally, the composition and quality of academics is crucial to ensuring quality education and competitive advantage. Unfortunately, many HEIs confront significant challenges of how to attract high performing and talented staff, especially academics (Kubler & DeLuca, 2006; Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens, & Weale, 2005).

All over the world, institutions of learning are already experiencing a chronic shortage of skills and high-potential academics, owing to their inability to compete for talent in the global market. Mokgojwa et al. (2018) concur that the attraction of quality academics into HEIs remains a key hurdle. Recent empirical research (Bozalek & Boughey, 2014; Kissoonduth, 2017; Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018; Postma, 2016; Salau, 2017; Zulu, 2016) suggests that HEIs are no longer attractive to most employees. Numerous factors account for this, including student protests, poor remuneration, discrimination, political influence, limited government funding, and lack of infrastructure.

Research (Thiriku & Were, 2016; Cappelli & Keller, 2014) shows that there are several strategies for attracting high-potential employees into an organisation, including recruitment and selection, the reputation of the organisation, and organisational attractiveness. However, as far as this study is concerned, there seems to be limited research on TM practices that contribute to the attraction of novice and highly talented academics into South African institutions. Moreover, it appears that little attention is paid to job analysis and employer branding as HR strategies for identifying attracting academics into universities. Therefore, this study seeks to identify the TM practices that influence talent attraction into South African HEIs.

3.2.1 Recruitment and selection practices and processes

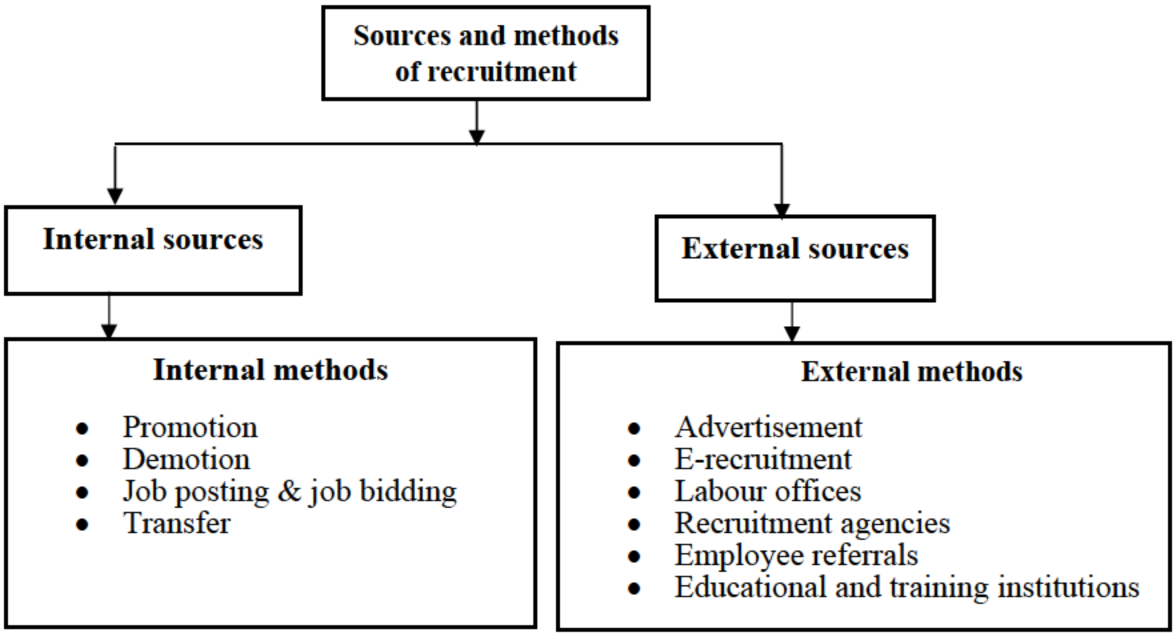
Early writers such as Herriot (1989), Montgomery (1996) and Plumbley (1985) advocate that recruitment and selection practices pay much attention to aligning the capabilities with the inclination of the job applicants rather than with the demands and rewards for a specific job. It is suggested that recruitment and selection are important TM attraction strategies required to achieve a competitive advantage (Aaker, 1989; Judge & Ferris, 1994; Raghuram & Arvey, 1996; Walker, 1992). Scholars such as Lewis (1984) and Terpstra (1996) argue that the costs of ineffectual commercial viability occur because of an ineffective recruitment and selection. The quality of applicants that are attracted into an organisation depends on the effectiveness of the recruitment and selection practices (Anderson & Shackleton, 1986; Smith, Gregg & Andrews, 1989).

Williamson, King Jr., Lepak and Sarma (2010) believe that the strategies adopted by an organisation to attract candidates during the initial phase of the recruitment process will have a significant bearing on the development of quality HR. This suggests that recruitment and selection practices play a pivotal role in the attraction and retention of human capital within an organisation. Recruitment involves attracting and stimulating a large number of job seekers to apply for vacancies in the organisational hierarchy. On the other hand, selection consists of choosing the most suitably qualified applicants from the pool of applicants to occupy the vacant position (Mondy, 2010; Weihrich & Koontz, 1994). Sangeetha (2010) contends that the rapidly changing business environment and vigorous competition for talent demand new recruitment and selection strategies. Al-Dubai and Gopalan (2019) contend that recruitment involves a series of arrangements which enable the prospective applicant to understand the company’s decision to make an appointment, facilitating the process to allow the most suitably qualified ones to provide relevant information demonstrating their suitability for the vacancy. However, selection comprises the procedures that help to examine the applications received, thereafter determining how well the job applicants meet the job specification (Al-Dubai & Gopalan, 2019).

i. Recruitment sources and methods

There are two main sources of recruitment applied by an organisation, including internal and externa recruitment. The former denotes the process of attracting and encouraging already existing employees to compete for new openings within the organisation. The latter involves the process of attracting and stimulating a pool of applicants from outside the organisation to apply for job openings. DeVaro (2020) claims that, although both internal and external recruitment sources are used in most organisations, employers frequently show bias favouring insiders. The sources and methods of recruitment are shown in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1 Sources and methods of recruitment



Source: Adapted from Prashant (2009)

Promotion has been described as the movement of an employer from a lower position to a higher position within the organisational hierarchy (Dessler, 2008; Otoo, Assuming & Agyei, 2018). Promotion often results in a rise in the employee's salary, with a concomitant span of authority and control (Baker, Jensen & Murphy 1994). Moreover, Lazear and Rosen (1981) contend that promotion is a tool for rewarding high-performing employees for meeting the organisational goals. Bernhardt and Scoones (1993) infer that, in a highly competitive environment, promotion can be used as a tool to assist competing firms to attract the most productive employees from their rivals.

Demotion denotes the downward movement of an employee within the organisational hierarchy, resulting in loss of authority and/or responsibility, either with or without a reduction in salary (Carson & Carson, 2007; More, 1962; Van Dalen & Henkens, 2018). There are two main types of demotion − voluntary and non-voluntary demotion. The former refers to the downward movement instituted by the individual employee, which leads to moving to a lower position that better suits the employee's needs. The latter is initiated by the organisation (Carson & Carson, 2007). Over the years, the introduction of new technologies, economic recession, and now the COVID-19 pandemic, have presented severe consequences not only for organisations but also for employees.

Demotion (career mobility) seems to be one of the areas most critically affected as a result of organisational changes and global phenomena. Scholarly research seems to focus mainly on promotion, while little attention is paid to demotion (Hennekam & Ananthram, 2020). Currently, many firms consider demotion an integral part of their strategic plan. Research (De Vos & Van der Heijden, 2017; Spreitzer, Cameron, & Garrett, 2017; Verheyen & Guerry (2018) shows that demotion in most organisations is influenced by several factors, including economic downturns, poor work performance, employer branding, an aging workforce, and flexible work arrangements.

Warnich et al. (2018) see job posting as a process whereby the employer provides information on job openings, with potential employees responding by applying for such openings. The employer may use methods such as traditional bulletin boards, email, telephone voicemail-based messages, or the intranet to communicate job openings to the existing employees. However, the last three options provide diverse benefits over the traditional bulletin boards. For instance, email, telephone voicemail and intranet are more easily accessible by all employees than are the traditional bulletin boards. Moreover, these methods of job posting reduce paperwork (Warnich et al., 2018). Job bidding is a method of recruitment that allows only the already existing employees to apply for new openings within the organisation so long as they have the skills, expertise, knowledge, and abilities required to successfully perform the job in question (Warnich et al., 2018). This method of internal requirement is very effective in the sense that it encourages competition among employees.

DeVaro (2020) claims that 17% of internal vacancies are filled through transfers. Transfer, also known as employee mobility, refers to the inter-organisational movement of employees (Rao & Drazin, 2002; Singh & Agrawal, 2011; Song, Almeida, & Wu, 2003). Research (Carnahan & Somaya, 2013; Somaya, Williamson & Lorinkova, 2008) reveals that employee mobility influences important organisational outcomes such as innovation, learning, capability acquisition and divestiture, and the employer-employee relationship. Mawdsley and Somaya (2016) suggest that employee transfer influences the competitive advantage of both the destination and source firms. Carnahan and Somaya (2013) postulate that employee mobility creates a relational impact for the destination organisation. The relational advantage built through the source organisation has the potential to create competitive advantage for the destination organisation. Further studies (Budhwar & Sparrow, 2002; Martinez & Ricks, 1989; Rosenzweig & Nohria, 1994;

Smale, Björkman & Sumelius, 2013) show that most organisations, especially multi-national corporations, engage in transfer of employees for diverse reasons. Such reasons include the need to improve coordination, the need to enhance organisational learning owing to economies of scales, the need to promote corporate culture, and employment equity laws. By contrast, Raffiee (2017) argues that transfer can erode competitive advantage through the facilitation of inter-firm knowledge. Saviour, Kofi, Yao and Kafui (2017) consider advertisement as the most common and effective external method of recruitment. Early writers (Redman & Mathews, 1995) contend that advertisement helps in the attraction and hiring of potential employees, especially within the public sector. Kaplan, Aamodt and Wilk (1991) posit that advertisement shows a positive response with regard to the job applicants' pool. Frandsen, Walters and Ferguson (2014) and Kapp, Peters and Oliver (2013) aver that advertising media such as Facebook have been found an exclusive method of recruiting a pool of applicants, especially women between the ages of 35–49 years in the USA health sector. However, De Alwis and Umayangana Kulasekara (2015) propose that, for employers to obtain the maximum benefits from advertisement, two important issues must be addressed: choosing the appropriate advertising medium, and developing advertisement construction effectively and efficiently.

Of recent times, the traditional methods of recruitment have been revolutionised by the wave of advanced technologies such as the Internet (Kapse, Patil & Patil, 2012). E-recruitment is found to be the driving force behind an effective recruitment strategy in most organisations (Ramaabaanu & Saranya, 2014). E-recruitment, which is also known as online recruitment, refers to the practice of adopting new technologies and web-based resources to identify, attract, screen, and hire new applicants (Singh, 2017). Research (Anand & Chitra, 2016; Singh, 2017) suggests that e-recruitment can reach a large pool of applicants, attract competent employees, and facilitate the selection process.

Labour offices are considered the important avenues for the supply of labour worldwide. According to Saviour et al. (2017), labour offices are the source of specific types of labour from which a pool of skilled labour can be hired.

Recruitment agencies, also known as labour brokers, are found the speediest and most efficient method of recruiting candidates for specialised positions within an organisation (Saviour et al., 2017). Labour brokers differ considerably in terms of the type of services they render, costs, policies, and calibre of applicants they supply to organisations. These days, most organisations, especially large corporations, have outsourced their non-core functions such as recruitment and selection process to labour brokers, because these activities are time consuming and expensive. In the US, for instance, research shows that about 40% of companies have outsourced their hiring process to subcontractors, particularly in India and the Philippines (Cappelli, 2019).

Saviour et al. (2017) observe that employee referrals is a method of external recruitment in which existing employees recommend prospective applicants for specific jobs within the organisation. In most organisations, the HR practitioners rely on present employees for references on the most suitably qualified candidates for specific job openings. This method of recruitment is very effective as it reduces costs and time required for appointment of employees (Saviour et al., 2017).

In most countries, including South Africa, campus recruitment has been found to be the cheapest, and most effective and efficient method of recruitment (Turban & Dougherty, 2017). On the contrary, Otoo et al. (2018) contend that campus recruitment is fairly expensive; and candidates, in most cases, lack industrial experience in the sense that organisations incur additional costs in terms of training.

ii. The relationship between recruitment, selection and talent attraction

Recruitment and selection practices are integral part of staffing practices and strategies, which help in the identification and attraction of human capital for the survival of an organisation (Elwood & James, 1996). According to Dessler (2000), recruitment and selection create a talent pool of applicants, which assists in the selection of the most suitably qualified candidates for the job. Furthermore, research (Obikeze & Obi, 2004; Okoh, 2005) shows that recruitment and selection procedures provide for the attraction of a large pool of qualified applicants, which has substantial effects on the calibre and type of skills possessed by new recruits. Ezeali and Esiagu (2010) postulate that, through recruitment and selection practices, the most talented applicants can be attracted into the organisation.

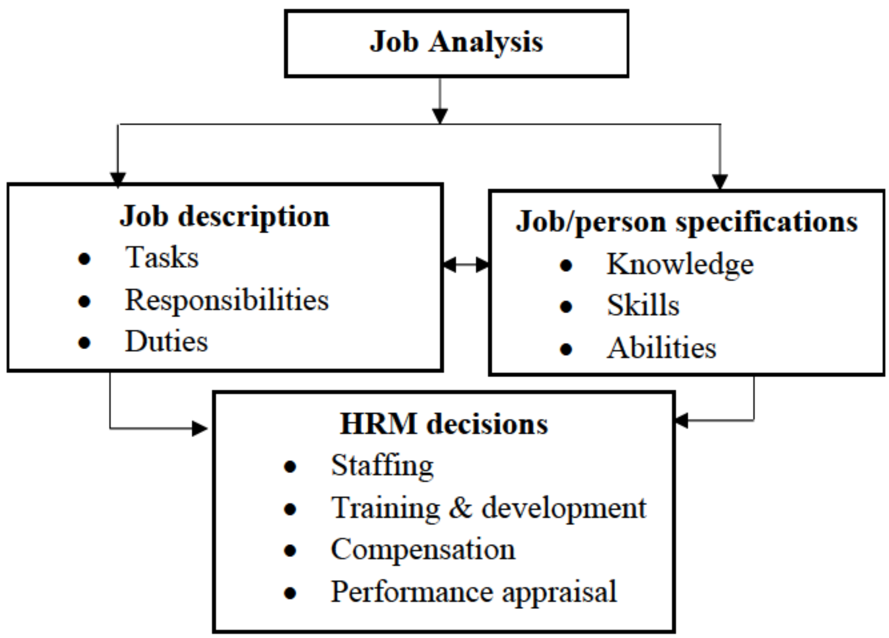
Silzer and Church (2010) comment that recruitment processes aim to sustain and retain candidates that are selected. Gamage (2014) concurs that recruitment aims at creating a large number of suitably qualified candidates to enable the selection of the most qualified for the organisation. Recruitment and selection also provide opportunities for an organisation to attract more and more employees to apply for job openings. Tomer (2016) believes that hiring the wrong candidates could spell doom for an organisation, recruitment and selection being expensive HR activities. Tomer (2016) discovers that effective and efficient recruitment and selection practices may result in organisational outcomes such as the attraction of candidates with unique talent. Alic (2016) admits that to achieve competitive advantage, many firms are now concerned with identifying and adopting the most effective recruitment practices and methods, with the aim of attracting top professionals and talent. By contrast, Priyanath (2006) contends that most organisations still struggle to recruit and select employees with the requisite knowledge, skills and qualifications to help achieve the desired goals.

3.2.2 Job analysis

Siddique (2004) argues that early studies on job analysis paid attention to only the methodological issues of job analysis. Nevertheless, this current study will make an important contribution to how job analysis can be used as a tool to identify and attract high potential employees into organisations. Scholars (Bowin & Harvey, 2001; Dessler, 2003) stress that job analysis, as an HR tool, contributes to an organisation in many ways. For instance, Dessler (2003) argues that job analysis is the vehicle through which an organisation can obtain a competitive advantage. Schuler and Jackson (1996) and Sherman, Bohlander and Snell (1998) consider job analysis the cornerstone of all HR functions. From these perspectives, it can be argued that job analysis is the cornerstone of the rest of the HR functions.

Job analysis provides rich and detailed information about a particular job and jobholders required to execute the job (Adams, 2000). For Redmon (2003), job analysis is used in making important HR decisions such as the identification of training needs, compensation, selection processes, and performance appraisal. It is suggested that job analysis is used to discover the nature of a given job (Brannick & Levine, 2002). Moreover, Mapira, Katsuro, Chazuza, Mlingwa, Mukondiwa, Mutambatuwisi and Machigere (2013) emphasise that job analysis answers questions such as the task to be performed and the information required to perform the task. A critical look at the above definitions suggests that job analysis produces two outcomes − job description, and employee specifications. Cross (2004) claims that job description identifies the tasks, responsibilities and duties of the job holder, whereas employee or job specifications entails the knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) required by the job holders to execute the task. Recent studies (Ele, Umana, Inyang & Eneh, 2019; Kshatriya 2016; Sharif & Karim, 2017) reaffirm that job analysis, as the cornerstone of the rest of the HR functions, is used to identify tasks, responsibilities, and duties, and human attributes such as knowledge, skills, and abilities required by job holders to perform the job. Figure 3.2 provides useful information about job analysis within an organisation, and outcomes of such analysis.

Figure 3.2 Job analysis and human resource management decisions



Source: Adapted from Mapira et al. (2013)

As depicted in Figure 3.2, job analysis can be used to make HR decisions such as staffing practices, training and development, compensation, and performance appraisal. Notwithstanding this, the current study aims to establish what kind of relationship exists between job analysis and talent attraction within HEIs.

i. The relationship between job analysis and talent attraction

According to Rattanavong, Sychareun and Xing (2015), the information gathered from the analysis of current jobs is used to identify highly talented employees required to perform a specific job. Edien (2015) asserts that job analysis enables an organisation to acquire new skills. Morgan and Hunt (1996) argue that the information gathered from job analysis can be useful in determining the future staffing needs of an organisation. Sharif and Karim (2017) aver that the concept of job analysis is not popular in most organisations; hence some employees have negative perceptions about this aspect. The review of literature suggests that, although job analysis serves as a useful tool for identifying skills and abilities of the employees required to occupy certain positions in organisations, there is limited research in the South African context that establishes the relationship between job analysis and talent attraction.

3.2.3 Employer branding

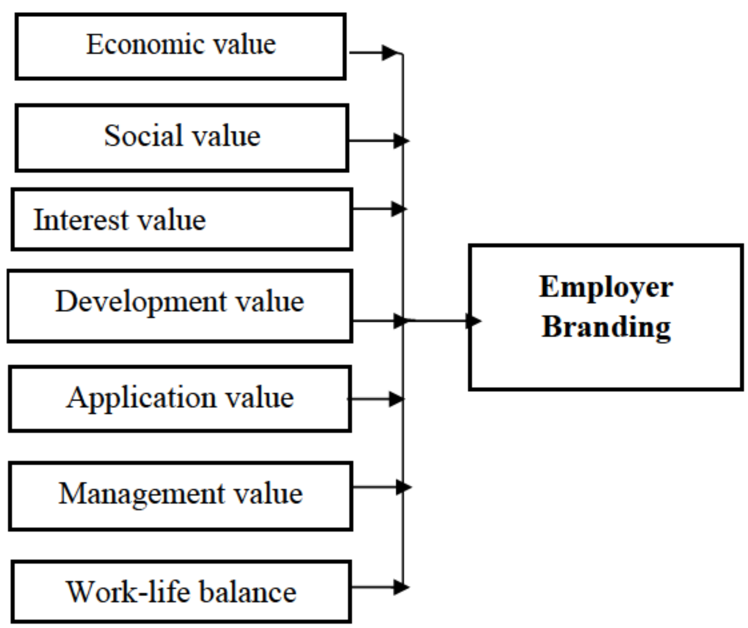
Hadi and Ahmed (2018) believe that, owing to the competition for talent, many firms are struggling to become the top employer of choice. Moreover, Ahmad, Khan and Haque (2020) argue that, given the global competition for talent, it becomes necessary for organisations to attract and retain a talented pool of intellectual capital. From the perspective of the human-capital theory and KBV of the firm, human resources has proven to be the vehicle through which organisations can obtain competitive advantage. Owing to the strategic importance and contribution of human capital, many organisations have over the years adopted several strategies, including employer branding to attract human capital. Theurer, Tumasjan, Welpe and Lievens (2018) contend that, recently, scholarly interest in employer branding has gained momentum.

Employer branding is a term coined by Ambler and Barrow (1996), depicting a set of functional, economic, and psychological assistance offered through employment, and acknowledged by the hiring firm. Scholars such as Kotler (1992), and Morgan and Hunt (1994) perceive employer branding as a strategy that associates the extension of relationship marketing principles that set the requirement to form attraction and retention ways from the natural markets through closer relationships. Sullivan (2004) sees employer branding as the targeted long-term organisational strategy that aims to manage employees' awareness and perceptions, potential candidates, and relevant stakeholders of an organisation. From the theoretical point of view, employer branding refers to the effort made by an organisation to inform its employees that it is the employer of choice (Ewing, Pitt, De Bussy & Berthon, 2002; Lloyd, 2002). According to Backhaus and Tikoo (2004), employer branding is the firm's effort to promote the image of what makes it a very distinctive and preferred employer. For Saxena (2014), employer branding is a strategy which provides a distinction between competitors and makes a better image for an organisation to attract talented employees, while retaining existing ones. Ahmad and Daud (2016) view employer branding as a contemporary approach which keeps up a firm's image to attract and retain employees.

i. Dimensions of employer branding

Ambler and Barrow (1996) suggest that employer branding consists of five primary dimensions: interest value (measures the extent to which the employer provides a work situation with innovation and creative opportunities); social value (determines the appeal of an employer in providing an accommodative work environment, a welcoming team spirit, and in establishing a good mutual relationship among employees); economic value (measures the amount of attraction of an employer for offering worthy remuneration and profits); development value (measures the degree of attractiveness in providing career development to employees); and application value (measures the attractiveness of an employer in providing the employees an opportunity to transfer the skills and knowledge acquired through training). Moreover, Dabirian, Kietzmann and Diba (2017) have added an additional two dimensions to employer branding − management value (the extent to which good or biased influence of the supervisor determines the retention of employees) and work-life balance. These dimensions of employer branding are depicted in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 Dimensions of employer branding



Source: Adapted from Ambler and Barrow (1996), Dabirian et al. (2017)

This study suggests that these dimensions, when properly considered, will help build a good image in the minds of potential candidates within the labour market, thereby contributing to the attraction and retention of talent.

ii. The relationship between employer branding and talent attraction

Research (Byrne & Neuman, 1992) shows that employer-branding messages are like glue which affects organisational culture through the process of self-selection and similarity attraction. Thus, a strong and persuasive employer-branding message conveys to job applicants a true picture of life in a specific firm. Such can attract skilled and talented candidates who will strengthen the organisational culture. It is suggested that potential applicants are likely to apply for job openings in firms that take social responsibility for employees, rather than in companies with poor social-performance reputations (Greening & Turban, 2000). Likewise, Collins (2006) argues that the beliefs of potential employees concerning a firm as the employer of choice strongly influence their interest in applying for the job openings and in actual application behaviour.

Sokro (2012) concurs that a firm's brand name significantly influences the decision of job seekers to join and remain working with the firm. Sokro (2012) concludes that organisations should create a conducive working environment to serve as a motivational factor for employees' attraction. Moreover, Chhabra and Sharma (2014) confirm that a strong brand image positively impacts the attraction of job seekers. Khoshnevis and Gholipour (2017) admit that employer branding contributes to recruiting and retaining the best candidates for the job. Khoshnevis and Gholipour (2017) further argue that there is a strong link between employer branding and dimensions such as rewards, brand and image, authority, work environment, and employee retention. Likewise, Dabirian et al. (2017) opine that employer loyalty and retention depend largely on the image that the employer has developed in the minds of the workforce, critical to attracting new recruits. A more recent study (Adeosun & Ohiani, 2020) suggests that firms can leverage on brand name to attract and recruit quality talent. It can therefore be argued that a positive image developed by an employer through employer branding acts as a predictor for attracting high-potential job seekers into an organisation.

3.2.4 Total rewards

Bussin and Toerien (2015) contend that the world of work is changing rapidly. The nature of relationships between employees and employers has also changed dramatically, resulting in the altered type of rewards that employees prefer. In recent times, many organisations have shifted their attention towards total rewards as a tool for motivating employees and improving employee engagement (Giancola, 2007). Given the economic conditions worldwide, the traditional reward systems are no longer adequate for employees who require rewarding for the value that they add to the organisation. This perspective has resulted in the shift from either the extrinsic or intrinsic rewards, towards the concept of total rewards (Jacobs, Renard & Snelgar, 2014).

Total rewards is the sum of the value of each element of the employee's reward package, including everything that employees consider vital and of value within the job (Bussin & Van Rooy, 2014; Fernandes, 1998). For Reilly and Brown (2008), total rewards is the value proposition the business offers to its employees. From the above definitions, it can be observed that total reward is a multifaceted concept which includes financial and non-financial reward. In view of this, it is suggested that the rewards that employees receive should be of value to them, addressing their needs (Snelgar, Renard & Venter, 2013).

i. The relationship between total rewards and talent attraction

According to Bergmann and Scarpello (2001), organisations that rely mainly on remuneration or monetary compensation as a reward will face a significant challenge in sustaining their employees' motivation. On the contrary, studies conducted by Horwitz, Heng, and Quazi (2003) and Schlechter, Hung and Bussin (2014) reveal that competitive total compensation packages influence talent attraction and retention. Moreover, Bhengu and Bussin (2012) found that basic monetary compensation influences talent attraction within organisations. Nienaber, Bussin and Henn (2011) concur that basic pay is the most significant factor in talent attraction. Phillips and Gully (2012) also admit that competitive wages and benefits serve to attract and retain employees. Adeosun and Ohiani (2020) argue that firms can leverage on salary to attract and recruit quality talent.

3.3 Capacity-building/talent development strategies

Fajčíková, Fejfarová and Urbancová (2016) believe that capacity building constitutes the modern approach to HRM which focuses on developing potential and competencies of employees to obtain competitive advantage. TM is gradually becoming an important part of the personnel strategy of organisations worldwide (Fajčíková et al., 2016). According to Younas and Bari (2020), owing to the competition talent, it is important for employers to implement TM practices to develop and retain their own talent. Levenson (2011) made a similar suggestion by advocating that organisations protect their human capital from being eroded, by ensuring that their employees' skills, knowledge, and experiences are constantly and regularly developed.

Davis, Cutt and Flynn (2007) see talent development as the process of changing an organisation through both planned and unplanned training, with the purpose of achieving and maintaining competitive advantage now and in the future. It also refers to HRM practice that enhances the capabilities and behaviour of people to enable the organisation to meet its desired goals (Ku & Yuen-Tsang, 2013). For Bolander, Werr and Asplund (2017), talent development is a technique which nurtures talent. Talent development is considered an organisational activity aimed at maintaining and enhancing employees' career, skills, and knowledge in order to align them with the organisational strategic goals (De Vos, De Hauw & Van der Heijden, 2011; Forrier, Sels & Stynen, 2009). TM practices that contribute to building the capacity of employees are discussed as follows.

3.3.1 Training and development

Training refers to a planned and systematic effort of workers to achieve superior performance in a range of activities (Ahmad & Bakar, 2003). The purpose of training is to address the gap between the requirements of a job and the present competence of the worker in relation to job security and skills of the job holder (Spr, Nor, Kadiresan, Kumar, Mohamed & Rethinam, 2015). Research (Babu & Reddy, 2013; Jehanzeb, Rasheed & Rasheed, 2013) uncovers that employee training contributes to intangible organisational outcomes, such as increase in self-esteem, organisational commitment, and improvement of employee knowledge.

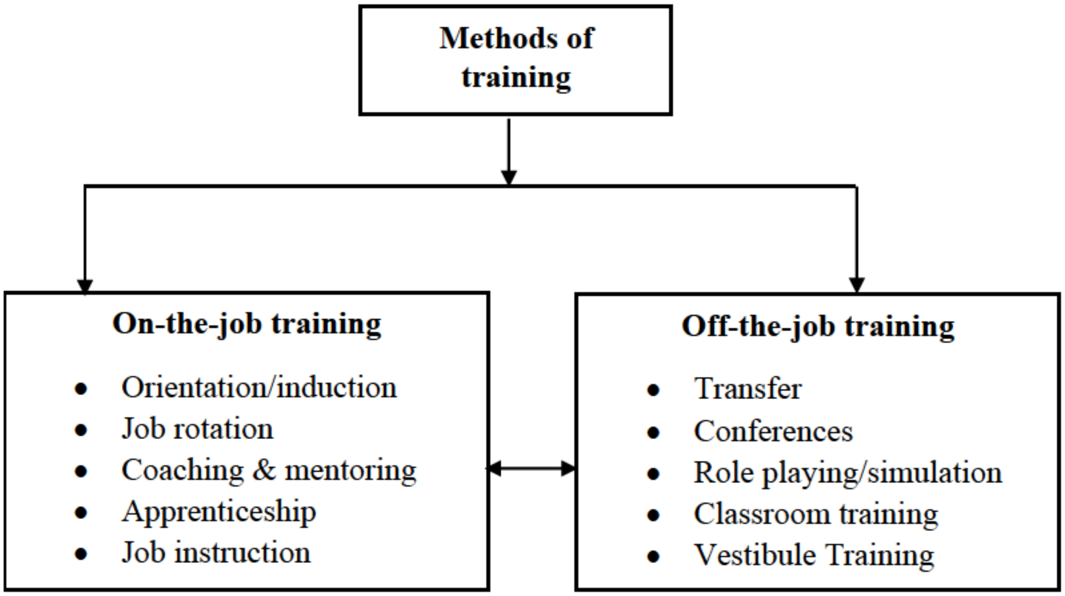
Development has been defined as an approach to studying whereby managerial employees acquire and utilise their knowledge, skills, attitudes, and insights to perform their responsibilities in the most effective and efficient manner (Lamba & Choudhary, 2013). For Obeidat and Abdallah (2014), training and development aimed to increase and update the skills, knowledge, competencies, and experiences of employees. The next section discusses the methods of training and development.

(i) Methods of training and development

There are two methods of training − on-the-job, and off-the-job training (Capelli, 1996; Hamilton, 1990; Harris & Simons, 1999; Venables,1974). The former refers to the method of training which takes place within the organisation, whereas the latter takes place outside the organisation. Baum and Devine (2007) suggest that on-the-job training is a useful method which allows the transfer of knowledge from one employee to another within the organisation. A more recent study (Oni-Ojo, Salau, Oludayo & Abasilim, 2014) suggests that on-the-job training contributes to organisational success, and increases employee performance as they learn and perform the tasks within the same organisation.

By contrast, Hamilton (1990) believes that off-the-job training adds extra value to the training undertaken by employees, especially the young ones. For instance, it provides them with the opportunity learn about practices in other companies and to learn skills that might not be utilised in the particular workplace. Rackham (1979) claims that off-the-job training methods are useful for attaining ‘knowledge’ outcomes. On the other hand, research (Mohd Said, Jahya, Mazlan, Omar Ali & Mohammed Yusof, 2016) shows that off-the-job training allows employees to take part in the study without disruption, the training environment being often arranged in a manner that allows for full concentration of the employees. Ramya (2016) opines that off-the-job training is well structured with a proper agenda which improves learning duration and provides systematic learning experience. Recent evidence (Mdhlalose, 2020) suggests that both methods of training positively influence performance within an organisation. Irrespective of the training method adopted, the most effective and efficient training occurs if the trainees possess the prerequisite knowledge and skills required. Figure 3.4 summarises the various methods of training.

Figure 3.4 Methods of training



Source: Adapted from Oni-Ojo (2014), Tukunimulongo (2016), Varghese and Edward (2018)

Orientation reflects an important method of on-the-job training promoting organisational effectiveness. Hina (2014) believes that employee orientation programmes are designed purposely to make new recruits comfortable with the organisational rules, systems, work role, and corporate culture. McKersie (2003) argues that employee orientation produces two outcomes, that is to say, it increases both job satisfaction and employee retention. Varghese and Edward (2018) state that orientation programmes provide employees with the ability to develop profitable and long-lasting relationships with customers. On the contrary, Hina (2014) discovers that orientation programmes provided by universities in Punjab were ineffective for developing work-role clarity.

Kampkötter, Harbring and Sliwka (2018) describe job rotation as the lateral transfer of employees between differing jobs within an organisation. Game (2007) opines that job rotation aims at breaking boredom and monotony of work within the organisation. Oparanma and Nwaeke (2015) observe that job analysis has a significant impact on organisational performance through the knowledge obtained by the employees in working on different tasks. Furthermore, research (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly & Konopaske, 2012; Van Wyk, Swarts & Mukonza, 2018) proposes that job rotation increases job satisfaction among employees.

Werner and DeSimone (2009) describe coaching as a process which aims at helping people to change behaviours that threaten to derail a valued manager. Blanchard and Shula (2001) argue that coaching is a technique that assists people to develop and learn new skills in order to improve upon their performance. Coaching allows the coach to share his capabilities in assisting the learners to develop their skills. Mentoring, on the other hand, is used to explain relationships between less experienced individuals called 'mentees' and a more experienced person, the 'mentor' (Dessler, 2011). According to CIPD (2015), coaching and mentoring are development activities based on the use of one-to-one discussion, with the purpose of improving individuals' skills, knowledge, or performance. Coaching and mentoring are discussed in detail in the subsequent section.

Apprenticeship is a method of training new-generation practitioners of a skill (Raheja, 2015). Apprenticeship takes place in those trades, crafts, and vocational fields in which several years are required in order to gain proficiency. With this method of training, the apprentices work under the direct supervision of their masters (trainers). Raheja (2015) opines that the main purpose of this method of training is to produce all-round craftsmen from the apprentices.

Raheja (2015) postulates that, in terms of job instruction, a qualified trainer prepares the trainees for a specific job and position within the organisation. Vasanthi and Basariya (2019) argue that this method of training is more preferable for teachers and educators in that it helps to deliver step-by-step instruction.

Transfer is also known as employee mobility, which refers to the inter-organisational movement of employees (Rao & Drazin, 2002; Singh & Agrawal, 2011; Song et al., 2003; Tuan, 2011). Although transfer leads to organisational flexibility and employee development (Brett, 1984; Brett, Stroh & Reilly, 1993), research (Dalton, 1997) shows that it creates serious disruptions within the organisation.

Conferences are the traditional and direct method of instruction. Raheja (2015) contends that every training programme starts with conferences. Conferences refer to meetings of diverse people to discuss any subject matter. With this method of training, each employee contributes to analysing and discussing issues that relate to the subject matter.

With regard to role play, trainees are assigned a role and are required to act out the situations given to them. Vasanthi and Basariya (2019) argue that this method of off-the-job training is more suitable for customer interaction. Raheja (2015) concurs that role play provides trainees with opportunities to learn the content of the course and other perspectives of the course.

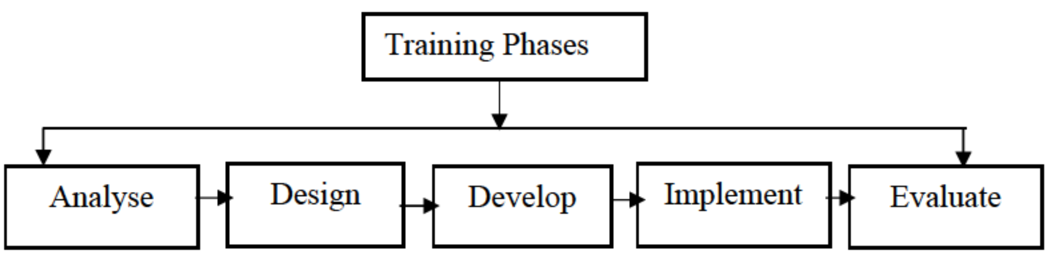
Raheja (2015) posits that classroom training is the common traditional and direct method of training. Vasanthi and Basariya (2019) believe that this method of training can be used for large-group audiences taught at one session to ensure that cost per person will be low. However, the major drawback of this method of training is that it is a one-way communication.

Raheja (2015) suggests that, with vestibule training, the organisation supplies the trainees with the necessary tools and machinery, but the training actually takes place outside the work environment. This method of training is often conducted when advanced machines are introduced into the organisation (Vasanthi & Basariya, 2019). The next section describes the phases of training design.

(ii) Phases of training design

There are several phases of training design. However, this study considers the five most common phases of training design, as shown in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5 Phases of organisational training



Source: Adapted from Welty (2007)

The first phase of organisational training design is called needs analysis. According to Welty (2007), this phase places much emphasis on the identification of the performance gap, the discrepancy in the standard provided in the standard operating procedure and employee performance. Denby (2010) suggests that the prerequisite to any training investment should be needs analysis. Training-needs analysis is the methodical evaluation of a firm's present and future performance levels, focusing mainly on the ability of the workforce and their support network (Denby, 2010). There are three levels of training-needs analysis: 1) organisational analysis (determines whether training should be done within the organisation and when it can be conducted); 2) task analysis (determines the job to be performed and the knowledge required); and 3) individual analysis (determines the knowledge, skills and abilities that are required by the job holder to perform the job) (Bansal & Tripathi, 2017; Mazhisham, Khalid, Nazli, Manap & Hussain, 2018).

The design phase follows the needs analysis, in which a planned approach is designed and implemented to address the performance gap (Welty, 2007). The design phase is characterised by a decision-making process. At this phase, three main decisions may be taken. These include the decision on the kind of learning required, and how the knowledge acquired through learning should be transferred to the job. Also, there is the decision about what should be taught and instruction methods to be adopted. Finally, there remains the decision on how the trainees should demonstrate the competency required to do the job.

The development phase is dependent on the first two phases. Aldoobie (2015) argues that at this phase the instructional designers should incorporate technology into the educational setting and process. Welty (2007) contends that the development phase is where the learning materials and assessment materials are developed to address the gap in performance.

The implementation phase is that in which the use of actual learning experience takes place. Khalil and Elkhider (2016) suggest that this phase involves the process in which trainees are prepared, and instructional context and technology are secured. At this stage, training and assessment materials are rolled out, on a provisional basis, with the view to assessing their impact. Aldoobie (2015) points out that at this phase three important steps should be followed − providing training for instructors, preparing the trainees, and arranging the learning environment.

The evaluation phase is the last stage in the training life cycle. Here the overall training programme is assessed to determine whether the desired goals have been achieved (Goldstein & Ford, 2020). There are four criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of a training programme. Criteria include reaction (determines how trainees react to the training programme); learning (determines the knowledge, skills and experiences acquired during the training); behaviour (measures whether there is a change in behaviour and attitude of the trainees); and results (determine whether training objectives and goals have been achieved).

3.3.2 Organisational learning

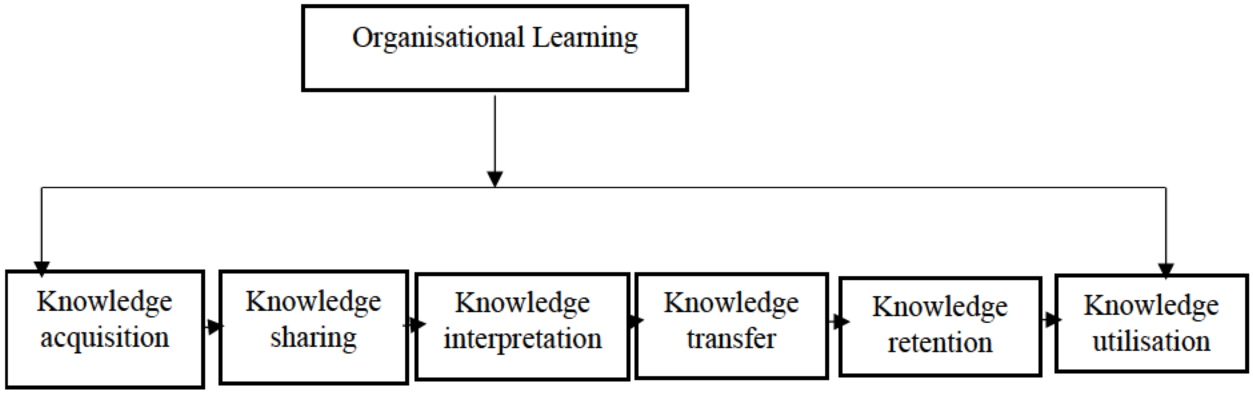
The purpose of learning is to enhance the employees' knowledge and skills, contributing to developing and growing the organisation, and building a flexible, dynamic learning organisation. Learning refers to the acquisition of knowledge, knowledge transfer and sharing, and utilisation of knowledge (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009). Moreover, learning involves a permanent change in cognition and behaviour. Organisational learning refers to the change in a firm's knowledge base that occurs because of past experience (Fiol & Lyles, 1985). For Huber (1991), organisational learning is the acquisition of knowledge. Other scholars (Castaneda, 2015; Castaneda & Rios, 2007; Chiva, Ghauri & Alegre, 2014) perceive organisational learning as the integration of knowledge acquisition and organisational change through action.

From the organisational knowledge-creation point of view, organisational learning has been perceived as a dynamic knowledge process relating to both tacit and explicit knowledge (Cheng, Niu & Niu 2014; Loermans, 2002; Real, Roldán & Leal, 2014). The former comprises technical know-how and mental models that shape how people perceive the world around them. The latter is articulated, codified, and communicated through symbols and languages (Nonaka, 1991).

(i) Processes involved in organisational learning

Scholars have different assumptions about the processes involved in organisational learning. For instance, research (Argote, 2011; Argot & Hora, 2017; Argote, Mcevily & Reagan, 2003; Liebowitz, 1999; Lin, 2014; Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995) suggests that there are three sub-processes of organisational learning. These refer to knowledge creation, knowledge retention, and knowledge transfer. On the contrary, Castaneda, Manrique and Cuellar (2018) found two main processes of organisational learning, including knowledge creation and knowledge acquisition. However, Huber (1991) identifies four processes of organisational learning − acquisition of knowledge, knowledge sharing, interpretation of information, and organisational memory. According to Flores, Zheng, Rau and Thomas (2012), organisational learning is divided into sub-processes: information acquisition; and distribution, interpretation, integration, organisational memory, and institutionalisation of knowledge. Figure 3.6 describes the common processes involved in organisational learning.

Figure 3.6 Processes involved in organisational learning



Source: Adapted from Argote (2011), Flores et al. (2012), Huber (1991)

Knowledge acquisition is the first step in organisational learning whereby information is obtained from both inside and outside sources (Huber, 1991). Knowledge sharing, also known as information distribution, constitutes the second process in organisational learning. Such involves the process through which people, groups, or different departments within an organisation share information among themselves (Huber, 1991). Knowledge interpretation is the process whereby a firm makes meaning out of the new information acquired and distributed (Levinthal & March, 1993; Weick, 1979). Knowledge transfer or integration occurs when different interpretations are combined to form a unified understanding. Integration deals with the establishment of shared observations, brainstorming, and understanding among people (Crossan, Lane & White, 1999; Crossan, Maurer & White, 2011; Daft & Weick, 1984). Knowledge retention refers to planned actions and sustained efforts aimed at maintaining high performers. Knowledge utilisation involves the process of integrating learning by individuals and groups into the firm's systems, strategies, processes, and cultures (Crossan et al., 1999).

(ii) The relationship between organisational learning and capacity building

The purpose of organisational learning is to create, transfer, and integrate knowledge, thereby modifying the behaviour of employees to reflect the current cognitive situation. This will lead to enhancing their performance (Jerez-Gomez, Cespedes-Lorente & Valle-Cabrera, 2005). Likewise, Dodgson (1993) postulates that organisational learning deals with the manner in which a firm builds and organises knowledge and routines which relate to their operations, with the view to achieving organisational efficiency through enhancing broad skills of employees. Sessa and

London (2006) observe that continuous organisational learning which occurs outside the realm of formal training and development is critical to the development of intellectual capital. Kraimer, Seibert, Wayne, Liden and Bravo (2011) discovered that organisational learning contributes to employees' personal growth and career opportunities. From the above discussion, it can be argued that organisational learning influences capacity building, since it contributes to employee talent development.

3.3.3 Succession planning

Robb (2006) sees succession planning as a continuous dynamic process that enables an organisation to align its goals and human capital needs. Butler and Roche-Tarry (2002) identify three primary goals of succession planning: identification of critical management positions in the organisation, identification of future vacancies, and identification of managers who fit into the vacancies. Couch (2013) and Rothwell (2001) consider succession planning a planned and systematic effort by an organisation which aims at ensuring leadership continuity. Such would cover strategic positions, especially, with the purpose of retaining and developing intellectual and knowledge capital required for the future. Bolander et al. (2017) point out that the purpose of succession planning is to assist firms to manage and retain their talent pipeline. Adebola (2019) posits that succession planning reduces costs associated with recruitment and selection. Mattone (2013) concurs that succession planning plays a unique role in combating the loss of key personnel within an organisation.

(i) Approaches to succession planning

Succession planning has three approaches. First, there is the strategic leader-development approach, followed by the emergency approach, and the departure-defined approach (Rothwell, 2010). The strategic-leader-development approach to succession planning focuses on defining and establishing strategic vision, determining the managerial skills required to execute the vision, and attracting and retaining talented employees who are capable of developing their own skills. This approach creates development plans to attract a large number of talented candidates within the existing workforce who have the potential of meeting future leadership needs of the organisation (Wolfred, 2008). The emergency approach focuses on preparing the organisation for unexpected departure of strategic leaders (Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, and Poisat. Sono & Schult, 2012). This approach ensures that key leadership and administrative functions continue without disruption when in the situation of unplanned or temporary absence of a manager (Wolfred, 2008). According to Nel et al. (2012), although the emergency approach ensures continuity in the event of leaders leaving an organisation, this approach creates some expectations for their deputies, who assume that the positions will automatically be theirs since they are shadowing the leader.

The departure-defined approach aims to build leadership strengths within the organisation in order to reduce over-reliance on the skills, charisma, and relationships of the current job holder, and to ensure continuity when the leader leaves the organisation. Unlike other approaches, the departure-defined approach provides an organisation with the opportunity of attracting and developing the new successors to acquire the leadership and managerial skills required to perform the job (Nel et al., 2012).

(ii) The relationship between succession planning and capacity building

Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart and Wright (2004) advocate that succession planning promotes talent development within an organisation. It provides a set of development experience required by managers for anyone to be considered for a top managerial position. Rothwell (2010) concurs that succession planning is a driver of career success which influences the attitude of employees to learning, training, and development. Succession planning also creates career development plans to attract a pool of talented candidates within the existing workforce who have the potential of meeting future leadership needs of the organisation (Wolfred, 2008). On the contrary, Day (2007) argues that succession planning only focuses on forecasting, with no attention to development issues.

3.3.4 The relationship between coaching and mentoring and capacity building

Coaching and mentoring have already been discussed in the previous section under on-the-job training. This section of the chapter provides a discussion on the effects of coaching and mentoring on talent development. Cheese, Thomas and Craig (2008) found that coaching and mentoring are part of HRM practices that contribute to capacity building. Hobson and Sharp (2005) and Searby and Armstrong (2016) postulate that coaching and mentoring focus on leadership development in schools. Kutsyuruba and Godden (2019) assume that coaching and mentoring in education have two common purposes. These are personal support and professional learning. Carmel and Paul (2015) observe that coaching and mentoring provide psychosocial assistance for workers within the workplace, which helps to address role ambiguity, role conflict, and perceived uncertainties within the work environment. Carmel and Paul (2015) conclude that coaching and mentoring provide opportunities for employees in terms of career development, confidence building, collaborative culture, and goal setting. Daloz (1986) found that mentoring is a critical development activity which influences personal growth and professional development of mentees. In a similar study, Gardiner (2005) argues that mentoring plays a critical role in developing lecturers at educational institutions. Within the context of HE, research (Burke & McKeen, 1997; De Vries, 2005; Higgins, 2001; Hobson, 2016) shows that mentoring is linked to career development, increased self-confidence, and personal growth.

Sharma (2017) proposes that the intangible outcomes of coaching have the potential to help organisations achieve their people strategies, especially leadership development and engagement of employees. From the developmental perspective, coaching has a wider and more forward-looking orientation, focusing on building the capacity of employees (Cox & Jackson, 2014; Hawkins & Smith, 2014). Developmental coaching pays critical attention to the personal development by allowing coaches to define their career goals and long-term change. Werner and DeSimone (2009) state that coaching has been accepted by many organisations as a tool for leadership development. Fletcher and Mullen (2012) also argue that coaching is an aspect of mentoring which contributes to skills development, and psychological and social well-being of coaches.

3.3.5 Career planning and development

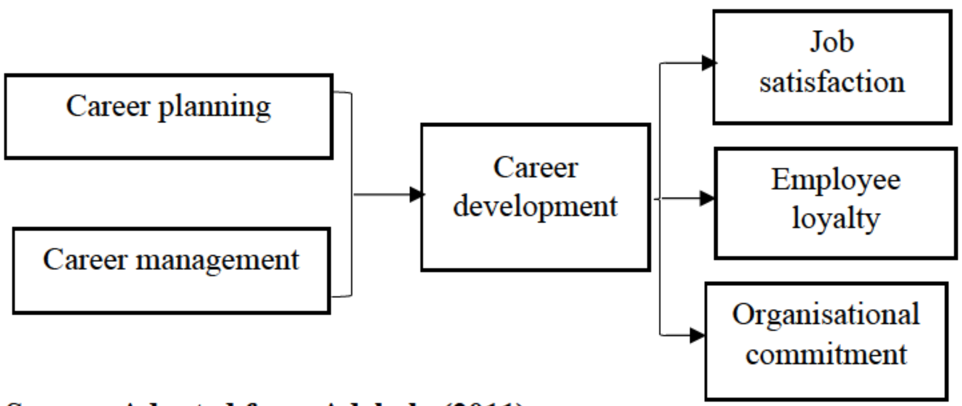
Nowadays, organisational life has been characterised by more dynamic and interactive approaches to career development. Scholars such as Briscoe, Hall and DeMuth (2006) and Hall (1996) express the view that the traditional approach to career development has been replaced by a ‘protean’ approach in which people now take responsibility for their own career development. Lawler and Finegold (2000) suggest that the new approach to career development should continually build new competencies that will enable employees to adapt to the changing demands of the workplaces across different work situations and organisations. Chetana and Mohapatra (2017) believe that an effective career-development process can only be achieved through the integration of career planning and organisational career management. Chetana and Mohapatra (2017) maintain that an organisation that focuses on achieving competitive advantage and long-term career stability of the workforce is capable of enhancing individual career growth.

Arthur (2008) conceptualises career as a process evolving sequences of an individual's work experiences over time. This suggests that career does not only relate to an individual's job, but it relates to the process, attitude, behaviour, and situation within the individual's work life of achieving the desired career goals. Career planning refers to the process whereby employees identify their individual skills, knowledge, and abilities, taking steps to achieve their career goals (Chetana & Mohapatra, 2017). There are five steps involved in career planning: 1) self-evaluation; 2) research into career opportunities; 3) setting career goals; 4) action planning; and 5) evaluation. Research (Mayrhofer, Meyer, Iellatchitch & Schiffinger, 2004) uncovers that firms that depend on career planning attempt to align their career plans with career management. Career planning helps an organisation to ensure that their workforce has the capabilities required for specific jobs (Martín, Romero, Valle & Dolan, 2001). Furthermore, MacDonald and Arthur (2005) express the opinion that career planning helps in aligning organisational objectives with individuals' goals. Most firms pay more attention to career planning because this contributes to organisational success (Arokiasamy, Ismail, Ahmad & Othman, 2011; Tlaiss & Kauser, 2011).

On other hand, career management is an important component of career development. It involves the preparation, development, implementation, and monitoring of career plans and strategies adopted by employees (Hall & Associates 1986; Greenhaus, Callanan & Godshalk, 2000). There are two types of career management − individual, and organisational career management. The former is initiated and managed by employees to advance their career goals and to take part in career decision-making process. The latter refers to programmes offered by an organisation to support the career success of employees (Kong, Cheung & Zhang, 2010). The organisational career management suggests that techniques like training and opportunity for education, performance appraisal and mentorship programme can help in managing employees' careers. Organisational career management has a positive correlation with employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Kong, Cheung & Song, 2012; Hsiao & Chen, 2012). Additionally, Power (2010) argues that firms that implement modern career-management approaches are more likely to improve the skills and knowledge of their workforce.

Career development refers to an on-going process of planning and effort towards individual growth, work, and life goals (Simonsen, 1997). Organisational researchers (De Vos, De Hauw & Van de Heijden, 2011; Kong et al., 2012; McQuade & Maguire, 2005) believe that career development focuses on developing the interpersonal and technical competencies of employees in order to enhance their employability. Sirbu, Popa and Pipas (2014) point out that dynamic career development involves three processes. These are the expansion of an early career; career stabilization paths, and career maturity. Sirbu et al. (2014) articulate that, through these processes, managers are able to understand ways in which employee careers evolve. Figure 3.7 provides a theoretical link between career planning and management and career development and organisational outcomes.

Figure 3.7 Career Development and Organisational Outcomes



Source: Adapted from Adekola (2011)

Information from Figure 6.7 suggests that career planning and management are the two most important components of career development. The conceptual model further suggests that career development leads to employee job satisfaction, employee loyalty and organisational commitment.

i. The relationship between career development and capacity building

Research (Kong et al., 2012; McQuade & Maguire, 2005) reveals that career development has positively impacted the development of employees' competencies, thereby promoting their employability. Church (2014) suggests that career development plans that comprise transparent and promising succession plans will contribute to addressing skills shortages within an organisation. Schein and Van Maanen (2016) found that career development is a critical tool for retaining and encouraging employees to enrich their skills and commitment to the organisation.

Brown (1998) argues that most organisations offer structure, opportunities, support, and tools to their employees to help them to develop their skills and maintain their employability.

3.4 Talent management practices for retaining talent

Talent retention involves the science of maintaining employees in their current jobs within the organisation for a longer period (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). According to Dibble (1999), employee retention normally begins long before employees are recruited; that is, when describing the position to be filled. For Hausknecht, Rodda and Howard (2009), employee retention encompasses steps taken by the employer to stimulate and inspire talented workforce to remain working with the organisation for a longer duration.

Given the competition for talent, talent retention has become a critical issue for many firms, and an equally challenging situation for most employers. The estimated cost of employee turnover ranges between 1 to 2.5 times the employee's salary (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Research (Oladapo, 2014) shows that American companies faced the challenge of replacing 70 million experienced and highly talented employees over the last decades through retirement of baby boomers. This challenge occurred as a result of a paradigm shift in the American ethnic composition of the workforce, globalisation, economic downturns, and unemployment. Furthermore, studies (Scullion et al., 2010; Tarique & Schuler, 2010) confirm that many companies currently face the difficulty of retaining talent in competitive labour markets. Evidently, according to (Barkhuizen, Schutte & Nagel, 2017; Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen & Schutte, 2018b), nearly half of academics in South African HEIs have considered leaving their jobs. Against this background, Oladapo (2014) challenges managers and employers to develop stable and long-term TM strategies to attract, hire, and retain their talented employees. Moreover, Bhattacharyya (2015) suggests that firms should develop strategies to attract, develop, and retain top talent. Part of this current research aims to identify TM practices that contribute to the retention of talent in HEIs.

3.4.1 Promotion

As already discussed in the previous section, there are different indicators of promotion in any organisation. These indicators vary from profession to profession, occupation to occupation, or organisation to organisation. However, this study focuses only on the criteria for promoting lecturers within HEIs. Research (Jolson, 2017; Rice, Raffoul, Ioannidis, Moher, 2020) shows that the common criteria for faculty promotion include teaching competence, amount of grant or funding attracted into the university, research productivity and publications, non-academic accomplishments, contributions to the university, contributions to society, and quality of personal habits.

i. The relationship between promotion and talent retention

Parry and Kelliher (2009) claim that the possibility of promotion influences the behaviour of employees in the organisation, stimulating them to greater ability to move forward. Furthermore, research (Gomez, 2002; Prasad, 2001) suggests that promotion leads to greater organisational efficiency and high employee morale, resulting in the retention of employees. In a similar study, Saporta and Farjoun (2003) found that, irrespective of occupational affiliation, promotion minimises the possibility of employees leaving the organisation. Singh (2012) concurs that promotion increases the morale of employees and encourages them to take more interest in their work. Netswera and Rankhumise (2005) postulate that the opportunity for promotion is an important reason for most workers remaining in their job, particularly those young and enthusiastic. Sitati, Were and Waititu (2016) assert that promotion influences talent retention within an organisation. However, it is suggested that promotion should be based on merit, and should be accompanied by a rise in salary and additional benefits. A study conducted by Ekabu, Nyagah and Kalai (2018) also confirmed that promotional prospects significantly impacted employee retention within organisations.

Contrary to the above, De Vito, Brown, Bannister, Cianci and Mujtaba (2018) suggest that university staff are the building blocks for any university; however, at times they are denied the opportunity of promotion and pay rise. It can be suggested that institutions that fail to promote or offer adequate remuneration to their staff could lead to job dissatisfaction and intentions to resign.

3.4.2 Work-life balance

Work-life balance (WLB) is becoming a critical issue for many employees, tending to affect turnover intention in many organisations. Presently, many employees are interested in flexible working arrangements which will enable them to balance their private and professional lives. The term WLB was coined by Lockwood (2003), becoming very popular in modern times, especially during the COVID-19 era. Osterman (1995) explains that WLB practices consist of institutionalised, structural, and procedural work arrangements, and formal and informal practices that assist people to easily manage both their work and family lives. For instance, the most common statutory and discretionary policies which promote WLB include maternity benefits, flexitime, telecommuting, and job sharing.

i. Factors affecting work-life balance

Research (Chiang, Birtch, & Kwan, 2010; Saif, Malik, & Awan, 2010) shows that the common factors which influence WLB are job satisfaction, telework, work overload, and job demands. Moreover, it has been found (Goleman, 2001; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Thorndike, 1920) that emotional intelligence is the most critical factor affecting WLB. Thorndike (1920) argues that a strong and positive emotional intelligence denotes one's ability to comprehend and manage others, and to act in a professional manner. In their study, Roehling, Roehling, and Moen (2001) identify the predictors of WLB: salary, flexible working hours, family-friendly work policies, and supervisor support. Furthermore, scholars such as Schaufeli, Salanova, Gonzalez-Roma and Bakker (2002), Stawarz, Cox, Bird, and Benedyk (2013) and Vogel (2012) suggest that factors which affect WLB include job satisfaction, organisational support, and work overload.

ii. The relationship between work-life balance and talent retention

According to Loan-Clarke, Arnold, Coombs, Hartley and Bosley (2010) jobs that offer an employee the opportunity to attend to family responsibilities increase the employee's motivation to remain with the organisation. It has been found that the emotional support offered by the employer to the employee through WLB has the potential of minimising the possibility of high turnover intention within the organisation (Karatepe, 2013). Furthermore, research (Mita, Aarti & Ravneeta, 2014; Singh & Dubey, 2016) reveals that WLB has impacted the decision of employees to continue working in their organisations. Singh and Dubey (2016) argue that most employees leave their organisations because they feel that their emotions and passions have not been recognised. These aspects of WLB serve as deciding factors for employee intention to either resign or to remain working with the organisation. Moreover, Hashim, Azman, Ghani and Sabri (2016) found that a strong link exists between WLB and employee retention. Fayyazi and Aslani (2015), in their study, observe that WLB positively impacts employee job satisfaction, while negatively impacting employee intention to quit. Recent evidence (Shockley, Smith & Knudsen, 2017) further suggests that WLB contributes to the retention of talented employees belonging to an organisation.

3.4.3 Employer-employee relationship

Given the growing incidence of workplace conflict and labour dispute globally, a good employer-employee relationship is considered a panacea for shaping the employment situation. Rose (2008) suggests that an effective employer-employee relationship is critical to building industrial peace. A good employer-employee relationship is also important because it encourages employees to work better and to achieve increasingly good results (Burns, 2012). An employer-employee relationship denotes the kind of interaction that exists between the employer and employees within an organisation. Torrington and Hall (1998) conceptualise the employer-employee relationship as a framework of organisational justice which comprises organisational culture and management styles and rules as well as procedures dealing with employee grievances. Gennard and Judge (2002), on the other hand, view the employer-employee relationship as rules, laws, and agreements which regulate the employment relationship. For Armstrong (2005), employment relations refer to the management of the interaction between the employer and employees with the purpose of achieving optimum productivity. In other words, the employer-employee relationship concerns the socio-economic relationship that forms and revolves around the contract of employment between the parties, such that the employees are expected to perform their work in return for remuneration either in cash or kind (Perkins & Shortland, 2006).

i. Critical success factors influencing the employer-employee relationship

Ivancevich (2001) and Shweitzer and Lyons (2008) propose that employee empowerment enhances the employer-employee relationship because it contributes to achieving organisational objectives. Gomez-Mejia, Balkin and Cardy (2001) announce that the factors that contribute to building good employer-employee relationships are trust, respect, confidence building, freedom of association, improving career and salary track, retirement packages, and retention strategies. Building a harmonious working relationship among parties to the employment is the initial step in preventing workplace conflict. The purpose of an employer-employee relationship is to create a platform for building mutual respect, cooperation, and trust within the workplace. Shweitzer and Lyons (2008) identify key factors which promote the employer-employee relationship, including employee empowerment, employee involvement and participation, conflict and grievance management, collective bargaining and agreement, employee training and development, teamwork, and transparent communication. Sahoo and Saho (2018) observe that the predictors of cordial employment relations include interpersonal relationships, work environment, and employee welfare.

ii. The relationship between employer-employee relationships and employee retention

Oruh, Mordi, Ajonbadi, Mojeed-Sanni, Nwagbara and Rahman (2020) investigated the link between a managerial relationship and employee retention in Nigeria. The study adopted the qualitative approach to research. The results of the study revealed that managerialist employment relations had a negative effect on the retention of doctors in Nigeria. On the contrary, Kim, Tam and Kim and Rhee (2017), in their study, discover that organisational justice and organisation-employee relationship quality have a negative association with turnover intention. Evidently, it can be argued that there are mixed reactions among scholars apropos of the impact of an employer-employee relationship on talent attraction. Therefore, this thesis will address the gap in research by establishing the link between the employer-employer relationship and talent retention.

3.5 Intangible outcomes of talent management practices

Empirical research reveals that various benefits can be derived from effective TM within an organisation (Bethke-Langenegger, Mahler & Staffelbach, 2011; Boichenko, 2015; Chitsaz-Isfahani & Boustani, 2014). However, this study explores the intangible outcomes of TM by focusing on organisational trust, employee engagement, teaching and learning, research, collaboration, employee humility, skills shortage, and competitive advantage.

3.5.1 Organisational trust

The construct 'trust' has been approached from different fields such as the economic (Sako, 1992), and from sociology (Luhmann, 1979) and psychology (Blau, 1964). Trust could also be approached from various theoretical perspectives, including the transaction cost theory (Williamson, 1975), the RBV of the firm (Barney, 1991), and the agency theory (Blau, 1964; Eisenhardt, 1989). From the psychological perspective, the concept of trust has been defined as an intended behaviour or action similar to judging and choosing (Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt & Camerer, 1998). From the economic point of view, Cummings and Bromiley (1996) argue that trust reduces transaction costs, influences the kind of interaction which exists between people, and reduces the insecurity of cooperative behaviour. According to Mineo (2014), the theory of a great workplace suggests that the starting point of a great workplace is created through credibility (for example, open and accessible communication, ability of the organisation to manage all resources including intellectual capital, and integrity in achieving the strategic vision); respect (recognition, appreciation, opportunity for personal growth, collaboration, employee well-being), and fairness (fair and adequate rewards, absence of favoritism in appointment and promotions), which are the core elements of trust. Moreover, Mayer, Davis and Schoorman (1995) identify three main dimensions of trust − ability (competence trustee possesses in a particular area); benevolence (willingness on the part of the trustee to do good to the trustor), and integrity (the ability of the other party to discharge his or her responsibility).

Krot and Lewicka (2012) state that trust constitutes the willingness of the employer and employee to be vulnerable to each other. In other words, trust is the willingness to increase the resources invested in a person, as a result of positive expectations emerging from the previous positive mutual interaction (Tzafrir & Eitam-Meilik, 2005). On the contrary, Morgan and Hunt (1994) refer to trust as the conviction by both parties to the employment relationship never to behave in a manner that will cause harm to each other. Moreover, trust is the willingness of the parties to depend on each other in a risk condition (Currall & Epstein, 2003). Trust can also be perceived as the expectations and confidence that both parties will express to achieve mutual benefits. Trust and mutual cooperation can be improved by meeting the expectations of mutually beneficial behaviour in the present. Trust improves relationships, interactions, and cooperation among parties. It also creates added value in the workplace. In addition, it enhances the flow of information and knowledge creation within the organisation (Connell, Ferres & Travaglione, 2003; McElroy, 2002). Trust promotes efficiency and effectiveness of communication within an organisation (Blomqvist, 2002). Moreover, it enhances organisational cooperation and collaboration (Tyler, 2003).

Ellonen, Blomqvist and Puumalainen (2008) identify three types of trust − horizontal, vertical, and institutional trust. Horizontal trust occurs between co-workers in an organisation. Vertical trust, on the other hand, appears between managers and employees or workers and their managers. Institutional trust is seen between workers and the organisation. Ellonen, Blomqvist and Puumalainen (2008) explain further that institutional trust denotes the trust workers have in the organisation’s procedures, technologies, management goals, mission, vision, competence, and justice. Vertical trust is more complex than horizontal trust, given that the worker feels more vulnerable as a result of managers having considerable influence over the allocation and distribution of resources (Ellonen et al., 2008). Owing to this, employers are in a position to take decisions that have considerable implications for the workers. For example, employees rely on their managers for promotion, performance appraisal, and work assignments. Research (Wang & Clegg, 2002) shows that trust improves the working relationship between subordinates and their managers. It has also been found that vertical trust impacts on employee actions when making decisions (Aboyassin, 2008). Likewise, Paliszkiewicz (2013) admits that trust is crucial. Trust allows people to establish relationships with one another and to depend on one another for care, support, love, and advice.

Chitsaz-Isfahani and Boustani (2014) found a positive link between TM and organisational trust, and employee retention within HEs. Altınöz, Çakıroğlu and Çöp (2013) examined the impact of TM on organisational trust in Ankara hotels. The researchers found that changing mid-range and senior hotel managers' perceptions of TM in a positive way will have a significant effect on trust within the organisation. Although research (Altınoz et al., 2013; Chitsaz-Isfahani and Boustani, 2014) shows that TM is positively correlated with organisational trust, such studies are very limited in South African HEIs.

3.5.2 Employee engagement

Kahn (1990, p.610) sees employee engagement as "the harnessing of organisation members" to their individual roles. Employee engagement comprises three conditions: acceptable work standard, social and organisational security, and availability of various distractions to make the work enriching (Kahn, 1990). Employment engagement can be perceived as the extent to which the employee is emotionally and intellectually committed to the organisation. Other scholars, such as Bakker and Schaufeli (2015) Martel (2003), and Schaufeli and Bakker (2010) conceptualise employee engagement as a positive state of mind adopting elements such as vigour (the extent to which engaged employees are full of energy), dedication (degree to which employees are deeply involved in their work), and absorption (the extent to which workers fully concentrate on and are happily occupied with their work activities). Bakker and Schaufeli (2015) propose that employee engagement can be improved through a number of factors such as job design, job rotation, and changing jobs. The researchers argue that job rotation, in particular, often leads to higher employee engagement levels, as such inspires or encourages employees, and stimulates learning and professional development.

Similarly, Bhatnagar (2007) believes that employees are more engaged when they find motivation for their work, having received positive organisational and interpersonal support, and functioning in a more conducive work environment. Likewise, Branham (2005) argues that employees are more engaged with a work environment that allows them to put in their best efforts.

Studies (Barkhuizen et al., 2014; Gandossy & Kao, 2004) establish that TM positively influences employee engagement. Moreover, Barkhuizen et al. (2014) found that TM dimensions positively correlate with work engagement. Kamel (2019) also discovered that TM has a positive significant effect on employee engagement and performance. Pandita and Ray (2018), in their study on TM and employee engagement, decided that the most effective tool for ensuring the engagement and commitment of employee is TM. In a related study, Dhanalakshmi and Gurunathan (2014) observe that an effective TM strategy improves employee engagement, resulting in improved organisational performance. Dhanalakshmi and Gurunathan (2014) argue that highly engaged workers are more likely to create a positive impression of the organisation, thereby influencing such variables as quality service delivery, customer satisfaction, sales, productivity, and profitability. In a more recent study (Hongal & Kinange, 2020) it is suggested that, if organisations implement TM strategies effectively, enhancing employee engagement, this will result in higher productivity. Mohammed (2016) assessed the relationship between TM and employee engagement, retention, and valued addition in improving organisational performance. The researcher found that there was a positive association between all the variables.

Ayub (2017) also agrees with other scholars that TM has a positive correlation with employee engagement as well as organisational performance. Alias, Noora and Hassan (2014) support the view that employee engagement acts as the interplay between TM practices (examples, career development, rewards and recognition) and employee performance. Furthermore, studies (Azmy, 2019; Ezam, Ahmad & Hyder, 2018; Hoque, Awang, Siddiqui & Sabiu, 2018; Jain & Khurana, 2017; Khurotin & Afrianty, 2018) suggest that TM practices (example, training and development, compensation and benefits) contribute to employee engagement. By contrast, Tymon Jr, Stumpf and Doh (2010) establish no relationship between TM and employee engagement.

3.5.3 Humility

Ever since Owens and Hekman (2012) developed the model of humble leader behaviour, the concept of humility has gained popularity, particularly from leadership researchers. Scholarly research shows that a leader's humility offers strategic value to the organisation (Vera & Rodriguez-Lopez, 2004), fosters better teamwork (Owens & Hekman, 2016), promotes personal growth and development of followers (Owens & Hekman, 2012), reinforcing organisational learning orientation, job satisfaction, employee engagement, and performance (Owens, Baker, Sumpter & Cameron, 2015).

Vera and Rodriguez-Lopez (2004, p.395) conceptualise humility as "the mid-point between the two negative extremes of arrogance and lack of self-esteem". Humility has been further defined as "the accurate view of a person's strengths and weaknesses; and being interpersonally other-oriented rather than self-focused, which is backed by the ability to restrain egotism in the manner that maintains social acceptance" (McElroy, Rice, Davis, Hook, Hill, Worthington Jr & Van Tongeren, 2014, p.20). For Ou, Waldman and Peterson (2018), humility is a prepositional quality of a person that reflects the self-opinion that something beyond the self exists. Jankowski, Sandage and Hill (2013) and Owens, Johnson and Mitchell (2013) believe that a humble person possesses the capabilities that pit him or her against excess, promoting pro-social tendencies. Such prevents human vices that have the tendency to result in dysfunction, including hubris.

According to Argandona (2015), the concept of humility is not recognised as one of the chief virtues in the world of business, despite its contribution to moral quality, as well as the development of intellectual capital. From the perspective of the social learning theory, it is suggested that a leader's humility enhances employees' feedback-seeking behaviour, thereby improving their psychological safety and job insecurity (Qian, Liu & Chen, 2020). Moreover, Yang and Chen (2019), in their study, found that a leader's humility enhances followers' trust. Li, Liang and Zhang (2016) also discovered that humble leader behaviour positively influenced the retention of employees. Although much has been written about TM and humility, as far as this study is concerned, limited research was found on the link between the two concepts. This study will help to address the gap in research by shedding more light on how TM practices influence employee humility in HEIs.

3.5.4 University-industry collaboration

Nowadays, major HEIs are responding to global competition and changes through their integration with industry and partnerships in their programmes. Partnership between universities and industries is a collaborative effort between the two entities which is aimed at sharing their resources in the most effective and efficient manner. This is to achieve mutually compatible goals such as technological innovation, enhancement of global competition, and the promotion of economic growth (Ahmad & Junaid, 2008). Recent evidence shows that collaboration between HEIs and industries is considered a strategic tool for improving innovation through knowledge exchange (Ankrah & Omar, 2015). Such strategic tools as collaborations and partnerships between academic institutions and industry help to strengthen the ability of the institutions to conduct high quality, innovative, and relevant research, as well as to enhance the capability of the industry to compete internationally. Liyanage and Mitcheil (1994) concur that collaborations are seen as vehicles that promote a higher level of competitiveness among firms and academic institutions. Davis (1996) argues that collaborative effort between the two entities helps to transform firms' businesses by converting them into serious learning organisations.

According to Tumuti, Wanderi and Lang'at-Thoruwa (2013), the increased competition resulting from globalisation and rapidly changing technological innovations requires HEIs to collaborate with industries to improve knowledge sharing. Collaboration also increases research and development, patenting of innovations, and building the country's organisational capacity. Al-Tabbaa and Ankrah (2015) posit that the collaborations and partnerships between universities and firms have a long tradition in many countries, in which academic institutions are expected to play a critical role towards the socio-economic growth in today's knowledge-based economies. Research (Marhl & Pausits, 2011; Perkmann, Tartari, McKelvey, Autio, Broström, D'Este, Fini, Geuna, Grimaldi, Hughes, Krabel, Kitson, Llerena, Lissoni, Salter & Sobrero, 2013) shows that, these days, decision-makers and universities aim to develop their mission statements in addition to their traditional core missions of research and teaching. Such development will commercialize academic knowledge through continuing education programmes, patenting, and technology transfer offices. Science has intensified the relevance of such collaborations.

Evidence suggests that universities enjoy other benefits such as funding and patenting income resulting from collaboration between them and industries (Barnes, Pashby & Gibbons, 2002).

South African universities are expected to collaborate and engage with other stakeholders with the view to promoting socio-economic development in their local communities (Bergman, 2015). According to Dooley and Kirk (2007), the opportunities for collaboration are expanding in the South African landscape, which has the potential to produce world-class science. An important reason for collaborative effort between universities and industry in South Africa is as a result of a shortage of skilled personnel, such as scientists, engineers, artisans, and managerial experts (Dooley & Kirk, 2007). However, Ndlovu (2017) argues that, despite university-industry collaborations serving as the foundation for the pathways to the transfer of knowledge and technology from academia to industry and *vice-versa*, at times, the two entities are not satisfied with the ability to extract value from the partnerships. It is argued that, while industry in most cases is seeking for immediate solutions to existing problems, HEIs, on the other hand, only value quality research outputs in the form of publications (Ndlovu, 2017).

For HEIs to achieve a competitive edge over other rivals in the knowledge society where creativity and innovations are considered critical, their academic structures must be reviewed or redesigned (Gumport & Snydman, 2002; Harley, 2003). Currently, an important way in which HEIs are responding to global challenges and changes is through their collaboration with industry. University-industry collaboration is a collaborative effort between the university and industry aimed at sharing their resources in the most effective and efficient manner to achieve mutually compatible goals. Such goals include technological innovation, enhancement of global competition, and promotion of economic growth (Ahmad & Junaid, 2008). This study, therefore, aims to identify the effect of TM practices on university-industry collaborations. According to McCauley and Wakefield (2006), TM is an approach which requires collaboration from all the managers and employees in an organisation. A study by Martin and Bourke (2009) reveals that TM encourages collaboration between HR managers and other functional units on how to achieve the business needs. The study further shows that collaboration provides HR managers with insight into what matters to the business, helping them to align TM efforts with those needs (Martin & Bourke, 2009). Throughout the review, it appears that there is a paucity of research on TM practices and university-industry collaboration. Notwithstanding, this current study believes that one critical role TM could play in building university-industry collaboration is through the process of nurturing talent pipelines. Moreover, it is assumed that TM practices such as recruitment and selection, competitive rewards, and opportunities for personal growth and development could play important roles in attracting, developing, and retaining academics required for successful collaborations between the university and industry.

3.5.5 Teaching and learning

Teaching and learning is one of the main components when it comes to educational planning. However, in South Africa and other parts of the world, quality teaching and learning is affected by a myriad of factors (Klug, Bruder, Kelava, Spiel & Schmitz, 2013). Also, there is a general concern about the low level of throughput and high attrition rates, particularly among first-year students in South African HEIs (Akoojee & Nkomo, 2007). Moreover, research (Omolara, 2008) shows that one of the major challenges facing teaching and learning, as well as students' performance, is qualifications of teachers. Barber and Mourshed (2007) concur by admitting that quality education cannot exceed the quality of teachers. Chong and Ho (2009) agree with other scholars that quality of lecturers is a critical factor that shapes the learning and growth of students. This study, therefore, seeks to determine the effect of TM practices on quality teaching and learning in HEIs.

Tewari and Ilesanmi (2020) believe that quality of teaching and learning depends on quality of lecturers. Therefore, more experienced academics, irrespective of their nationality, need to be continually recruited to support teaching and learning (Tewari & Ilesanmi, 2020). For Badat (2010), teaching and learning challenges in South African HEIs can be addressed through creating a new generation of talented and high-potential academics. It is suggested that HEIs should develop and retain a new generation of academics, simultaneously transforming the workforce composition of academics. To transform South African HEIs, a new generation of academics with capabilities is required to assist in quality teaching and learning. It is important for HEIs to invest in talent-development programmes (for example, training and development, coaching and mentoring, and career planning and development) to assist the new generation of academics to acquire the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other capabilities required for quality teaching and learning. TM plays an important role in this regard.

According to Nicholls (2005), teaching and learning practices of academics depend on the socio-political, ideological, and educational contexts, particularly during the era of change. Presently, academics are not only contributing to the production of knowledge, but are offering practical solutions and, more importantly, research skills. A study (Bradley, 2016) reveals that TM can provide a theoretical support for improving performance of universities by aligning their strategies with performance metrics and the-day-to-day administration system. Preeti (2015) asserts that TM can be used as a vehicle to enhance the competency and talent of faculty members in order to deliver their core responsibilities such as research, teaching, and learning. Divekar and Raman (2020), in their study, argue that prudent TM could be a useful strategy for developing a conceptual model to argument performance in HEIs in the long run, by aligning the institution's strategy with performance metrics.

Lorange (2006) opines that quality academic fraternity is critical for the delivery of high-quality education. Today, many HEIs are adopting TM practices such as recruitment and selection, competitive rewards, promotion, employer branding, flexible work arrangements, and career planning and development to attract, develop, and retain highly talented academics who will contribute to quality teaching and learning. Research (Hazelkorn, 2017; Horseman, 2018; Lynch, 2015; Refozar, Buenviaje, Perez, Manongsong & Laguador, 2017) shows that university rankings are based on key indicators such as talent of high-potential faculty members. These talented staff members contribute significantly to the institutional performance through professional teaching and research. From the literature reviews, there is a lack of research within the South African HEIs that establishes the direct relationship between TM and teaching and learning.

3.5.6 Research output and productivity

Tierney and Lanford (2016) claim that HEIs are currently confronting global forces that require innovative research, innovative pedagogies, as well as innovative organisational structure. Aithal (2016) suggests that HEIs can only face the enhanced global competition if they learn to pay critical attention to knowledge production through curriculum-oriented research and publications to improve their research productivity. Knowledge production is only possible if students and staff are allowed to participate in research activities, publishing the new knowledge discovered for the benefit of the society and the industry. Naser (2010) asserts that quality education depends on several issues such as knowledge creation. Innovative research is considered the only tool to create knowledge and to enhance existing knowledge (Naser, 2010). For research to be considered good in the strong sense, researchers should be able to articulate some sound linkages between their research and a robust and justifiable conception of human well-being (Hostetler, 2005). The view expressed by Hostetler (2005) underscores a similar observation made by Naledi Pandor, who questioned the quality standard of some journals in South Africa because some of them are not internationally recognised (Brits, 2011). For example, of 255 accredited South African research journals, only 23 are found in the international index, and more than third are not.

The Department of Higher Education and Training [DHET] (2019) reports that, during the 2017 assessment of research output, 25 out of 26 public HEIs submitted their research output. The data and pattern-analysis presented by various institutions showed a positive growth of publications from year to year (DHET, 2019). Despite the positive increase in research output, the department has noted with great concern the number of papers in possibly predatory journals as published in the South African Journal of Sciences by some researchers (DHET, 2019). In a similar study conducted by Botha and Simelane (2007) it was found that, in some cases, research in most HEIs was neither published nor digitised, making such research inaccessible. Similarly, Moahi (2008) discovered that, in Botswana, most studies only utilised mere descriptive statistics, and as a result, they cannot make any significant contribution to national development. Zakri (2008) observes that there are three main challenges affecting research production in Africa universities, including capacity, research productivity, and research facilities. Mutula (2009) also found that the key challenges affecting research output in HEIs in Southern Africa include, but are not limited to, delay in giving feedback, inadequate supervision guidelines, poor research supervision, lack of mechanisms for redress, heavy teaching loads for faculty, and inadequate preparation for postgraduate study. Against this background, the current study aims to investigate the extent to which TM practices contribute to quality and innovative research in HEIs.

Tewari and Ilesanmi (2020) suggest that quantity and quality of research output largely depend on the quality of academics recruited into the institution. In view of this, many HEIs across the globe are adopting TM practices to attract, develop, and retain highly qualified academics, thus contributing to quality and quantity of research output. For instance, in Germany, institutions such as the UoC and the CUAS have introduced TM practices to attract early-stage researchers. The UoC considers a TM programme a key strategy for interdisciplinary research, at the same time strengthening the mobility of international researchers (Walk, Schinnenburg & Handy, 2013). The TM practices and policy at the UoC provide full support to scientists, inventors, and startup researchers, in terms of their ideas that relate to intellectual property rights, European Union programmes, and advice on legal aspects (Elena & Pook, 2013). Similarly, the CUAS also initiated a TM policy and strategy which focuses on attraction, capacity building, and retention of highly qualified researchers, and on fostering research culture. Eghbal, Hoveida, Seyadat, Samavatyan and Yarmohammadian (2017) found that the components of TM and organisational justice contribute to 61 % of the variance of the research performance variable at the University of Isfahan, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, and Isfahan University of Technology. Nevertheless, there is limited research to establish the link between TM practices and innovative research in the South African context.

3.6 The relationship between talent management practices and scarcity of skills

Universities all over the world are facing a significant shortage of critical or scarce skills. This situation also prevails in South African HEIs in the sense that they are unable to attract and retain talented academics (HESA, 2011; Mokoditoa, 2011; Robyn, 2012). Several factors have accounted for skills shortage in South Africa. Amongst them, brain drain has been found the major contributing factor to the skills gap in South African HEIs (HESA, 2011; Mlambo & Adetiba, 2019; Netswera & Rankhumise, 2005; Staff Writer, 2016). This research seeks to establish the type of relationship between TM and scarcity of skills in South African HEIs.

Research (Michaels et al., 2001) reveals that the term the 'war for talent' was coined in response to skills shortage within the labour market, reflecting the need for firms to make serious efforts towards TM. Hongal and Kinange (2020) observe that capacity-building strategies such as learning and growth opportunity, not only attract and retain high-performing employees, but also develop competitive skills. According to Benit, Mojzisch and Soellner (2014), most organisations rely on TM to identify high-potential and high performers who are considered competent, engaged, and striving to become effective leaders, and who have already displayed these skills. Bhatnagar (2007) found that some firms adopt a TM strategy for managing talented and skilled employees. Aiman-Smith, Bergey, Cantwell and Doran (2006) postulate that there is a paradigm shift in TM staff retention towards, for example, the global skills shortage for organisations.

Research (Holland, Sheehan, Donohue & Pyman, 2007) indicates that the global shortage of critical skills has resulted in the competition for talent, forcing many firms to develop and initiate strategies to retain their top talent. Evidence (Kates, 2006; Bersin, 2007) suggests that through talent development the capabilities of any workforce can be developed. A recent study

(Maheshwari, Gunesh, Lodorfos & Konstantopoulou, 2017) further shows that TM practices such as employer branding help in attracting and retaining highly skilled workers.

3.7 The relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage

Researchers (Barney 1991; Penrose 1959; Rumelt 1984) believe that competitive advantage represents the firm-internal non-imitable resources. According to Barney (1991), competitive advantage is associated with a firm value creating strategy, whose value cannot be imitated by rivals in the present or future. Moreover, Porter (1985) defines competitive advantage in three ways: cost, differentiation, and focus with rivals who desire to set themselves apart from those perceived as 'stuck in the middle without competitive advantage. Porter's (1985) definition suggests that the ability of a firm to produce a product at a lower cost can lead to a competitive advantage. The other two dimensions of the definition relate to the value perceived by the customers who either see specific attractive elements in the offering (differentiation) or feel that all their needs are being met by that competitor offering (focus) (Henderson, 2011).

For Rofaida (2016), competitive advantage is the ability of a firm to obtain and maintain good market share within the industry. David and David (2013) share a similar opinion that competitive advantage is obtained when a firm does something better than its rivals, or owns something that another firms desires. Alma, Al-Shalabi and Aljamal (2013) also see competitive advantage as the benefits obtained by a firm over its counterparts, owing to lower prices and provision of quality services. However, in this modern competitive market, competitive advantage is not only obtained by doing something better than other competitors or through lower prices and quality product. Rather, it can be obtained through the ability of the organisation to attract, develop, and retain high-performing employees. This notion underscores the position of the RBV of the firm theory, which states that firms can obtain competitive advantage through intellectual capital (Barney, 1991; James Sunday Kehinde, 2012; Kogut & Zander, 1992). Rathod (2014) admits that enterprises can only obtain sustainability by tapping into their talent and learning how to effectively organise and lead it.

Ibrahim and Zayed (2018) believe that competitive advantage can only be obtained by having the right people within the firm. Scholarly research (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Egerová, 2013) suggests that an integrated TM is the best approach to gaining competitive advantage. Scholars (Terry, 2008; Avedon & Scholes, 2010; Nouman, Kousar & Tanzila, 2015) argue that firms can obtain competitive advantage by integrating human resources into the strategies of the business. Moreover, another group of researchers (Al Ariss, Cascio & Paauwe, 2014; Bali & Dixit, 2016) explain that the integration of the corporate culture into the TM is a mandatory step to obtaining sustainable competitive advantage.

Furthermore, Rathod (2014) found that talent represents the most valuable resource of an organisation in achieving strategic goals and competitive advantage. Similarly, research (Abd Nasir, Hassan, Embi & Rahmat, 2012; Rabbi, Ahad, Kousar & Ali, 2015) shows that TM practices are required to achieve organisational success because of the increasing pressure from both the internal and external business environment. Evidence (James Sunday Kehinde, 2012; Iqbal, Qureshi, Khan & Hijazi, 2013) further establishes a strong correlation between TM and productivity as well as competitive advantage. In their study, Rudhumbu and Maphosa (2015) found that TM in HEIs is a relatively new and untapped opportunity although its significance in offering HEIs a proven and practical way of gaining competitive advantage. Daraei, Karimi and Vahidi (2014), and Gateau and Simon (2017) concur that TM is the primary source of competitive advantage for HEIs. Wandia (2013) confirms that TM positively influences performance and competitive advantage of Symphony (K) Ltd.

Karanja, Namusonge and Kireru (2018) found that talent acquisition contributes to competitive advantage. Similarly, AlMannai, Arbab and Darwish (2017) discover that TM has significantly impacted competitive advantage in Bahrain Post. The findings further indicated that the talent-development strategy impacted competitive advantage the most, followed by the attraction strategy and lastly, the conservative strategy. By contrast, Ahmadi, Ahmadi, and Abbaspalangi (2012) discover a negative relationship between talent management and organisational efficiency.

3.8 The relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage

TM is a primary tool for managing human capital in the 21st century, because the significant resource for firms competing in this century is no longer the tangible assets but the human capital (Ashton and Morton, 2005 & Cappelli, 2008). Diverse benefits can be derived from TM, but this study seeks to establish the relationship between intangible outcomes of TM (organisational trust, employee engagement, employee humility, teaching and learning, and university-industry collaboration) and competitive advantage.

3.8.1 Organisational trust and competitive advantage

Barney and Hansen (1994) identify three types of trust that influence competitive advantage. These are weak, semi-strong, and strong trust. It was discovered that a weak form of trust could only influence competitive advantage when rivals invest in unnecessary and expensive governance mechanisms. Also, the findings revealed that semi-strong trust could only create a competitive advantage when competitors have skills and abilities; and when these skills and abilities are costly to imitate. Lastly, the results indicated that a strong form of trust would only lead to competitive advantage if parties to an exchange behave opportunistically. Pavlou (2002) identifies two forms of trust, namely, credibility and benevolence, that positively influenced competitive advantage. Jones and Judge (2002) found a significant positive relationship between CEO trustworthiness and firm performance. Caldwell and Dixon (2010) admit that management and organisations can create competitive advantage through building high trust and personal connection that unlocks and empowers the untapped capabilities and overcomes the withheld commitment.

In a related study, Caldwell, Floyd, Taylor and Woodard (2014) found a significant positive relationship between benevolence and competitive advantage. Jones, Fawcett, Wallin, Fawcett and Brewer (2014) discovered that firms can gain performance benefits by making a conscious effort to pursue trust-based collaboration and to strategically demonstrate trustworthiness. Butler, Armstrong, Ellinger and Franke (2016) assure that a great workplace environment positively impacts productivity, growth potential, and higher operating profits. Similarly, Ismail, Alam, and Hamid (2017) observe a significant positive correlation between trust and commitment, and performance. Moreover, trust affects competitive advantage through commitment. From the literature review, although a significant relationship exists between trust and competitive advantage, there is a shortage of research that examines the relationship between trust and competitive advantage in academic institutions within the South African context.

3.8.2 Employee engagement and competitive advantage

Lockwood (2007) and Swarnalatha and Prasanna (2013) believe that employee engagement is the main driver for organisational success. The authors argue that high employee engagement enhances talent retention, fosters customer loyalty, and improves organisational outcomes and stakeholder value. Employee engagement researchers such as MacLeod and Clarke (2009) found that firms could increase their competitive advantage and performance through employee engagement. Bedarkar and Pandita (2014) suggest that many firms strive to survive and rise above the stiff competition in the global market. Pillay and Singh (2018) contend that organisations can only obtain competitive advantage by encouraging positive employee engagement. Pillay and Singh (2018) assert that employee engagement is the integral force in driving organisational success. Although empirical literature suggests a positive correlation between employee engagement and competitive advantage, there is a shortage of research in South African HEIs to this effect.

3.8.3 Employee humility and competitive advantage

In their study, Srivastava et al. (2013) discover that humble leaders deliver sustainable competitive advantage for their organisations. Petrenko et al. (2019) concur that firms with more humble leaders will have better market performance because they will derive maximum benefits from the market's expectation discount. Ren et al. (2020) argue that humility, as a virtue, improves firm performance, and promotes its sustainable development in the long run, by providing a trustworthiness climate for top-management team members. Tareque and Islam (2020) also admit that humble leaders deliver sustainable competitive advantage for their organisations. Ye, Tung, Li, and Zhu (2020) found that team humility has a strong relationship with organisational performance in high task-dependent and highly competitive environments. The review of empirical research suggests that, although there is much publication on the concept of humble leadership behaviour and leaders' humility, there is still limited research on humility and competitive advantage within an academic context, particularly in South Africa.

3.8.4 University-industry collaboration and competitive advantage

According to Liyanage and Mitcheil (1994), collaboration could be seen as a vehicle for realising a firm's aims, and promoting a higher competitiveness level. Bruneel et al. (2010) found that collaboration between universities and industries sharpens their competitive advantage. Social capital acknowledges the relationship between the human participants in the partnership, and incorporates the value of the knowledge that flows between the entities to generate organisational value (Archer-Brown & Kietzmann, 2018). These dimensions are interwoven to create value and serve as a competitive advantage.

3.8.5 Teaching and learning and competitive advantage

According to Khasaev and Plaksina (2015), the competitiveness of HEIs depends on their ability to satisfy both the internal and external stakeholders. Supe, Zeps, Jurgelāne and Ribickis (2018) believe that the competitiveness of HEIs, globally, has attracted research interest from many scholars. The scholars argue that the role of competitiveness of HEIs is increasing rapidly in the HE sector. Supe et al. (2018) found that innovation-driven teaching influences competitive advantage in HEIs. Moreover, these researchers discover that the competitiveness of the study process impacts the sustainability of HEIs. Despite these findings, there are still limited studies in South Africa that determine the relationship between teaching and learning in HEIs.

3.8.6 Research productivity and competitive advantage

Kobets and Masych (2015) found that the factors that affect the competitiveness of HEIs depend on educational activity, research publication and quality, financial resources, and economic activity. According to Supe et al. (2018), a well-structured research process impacts the competitiveness of HEIs. Matkó and Szűcs (2012) argue that macro-environmental factors such as research and development influence the competitiveness of HEIs. Although evidence suggests that a significant relationship exists between research and competitive advantage in HEIs, in South Africa such studies are lacking. This research intends to address the gap in existing research.

3.9 Theoretical framework which guides this study

The review of literature leads to the belief that there are several theories on TM. Such would include the talent based-theory, the egalitarian theory, the elitist theory, the psychological-contract theory, the built-to-change theory, the referent cognitions theory, the learning organisations theory, the RBV of the firm, the second-generation of knowledge management, the human capital theory (HC), the KBV of the firm, and so forth (Barney, 1996; Foss, 1996; Grant, 1996; Penrose, 1959). The KBV of the firm is considered the most worthwhile, being a useful theory, which supports this study.

The KBV of the firm has attracted research interest from diverse fields of study, including HRM and organisational learning (Cook & Yanow, 1995). The KBV theory maintains that knowledge is the most crucial resource of every organisation (Barney, 1991; Bontis, 2001; De Carolis, 2002). This theory is considered the modification of the RBV of the firm, which is made possible by capabilities (Barney, 1991; Foss, 1996; Grant, 1996; Kogut & Zander, 1992; Malerba & Orsenigo, 2000). Moreover, Miller (2002) and Narasimha (2000) concur that the KBV of the firm considers firms as entities that generate, integrate, and share knowledge. The KBV assumes that the most important input of production and primary source of value is knowledge (Grant, 1996). The term 'knowledge' has been conceptualised as a strategic resource that does not lose value as do traditional economic productive factors (land, capital, labour, and entrepreneurship) (Alchian & Demsetz, 1972; Wang, He & Mahoney, 2009). Pemberton and Stonehouse (2000) explain that the ability of a firm to create value does not depend on physical or financial resources but depends on a set of intangible knowledge-based capabilities. The KBV of the firm is further based on the premise that competitive success lies in the ability of the firm to develop new knowledge-based assets that create core competencies. From this perspective, it can be argued that the essence of the KBV of the firm is to create competitive advantage for firms through the utilisation of knowledge as a key organisational resource.

There are two subgroups located within the KBV of the firm. The first subgroup, considered closer to the RBV of the firm, suggests that knowledge is a vital strategic resource for firms (Conner & Prahalad, 1996; Grant, 1996; Kogut & Zander, 1992). Although the RBV of the firm acknowledges the strategic importance and role of knowledge in achieving competitive advantage (Barney, 1991, 1996; Wernerfelt, 1984), KBV theorists contend that the RBV does not go far enough. The fact remains that the RBV of the firm considers knowledge a generic resource, rather than having special properties. The RBV subsequently fails to provide a clear distinction between different types of knowledge-based capabilities (Kaplan, Schenkel, von Krogh & Weber, 2001).

The second subgroup shares the views of Spender (1996, 2002) on the relevance of collective knowledge, a knowledge that is tacit and social. This school of thought offers more insight into diverse types of behaviour, individuals' limitations, and the development of firms' knowledge-based activities and procedures, considering that people are limited by their bounded rationality (March & Simon, 1958). As a result of individual limitations, it is suggested that not all knowledge at the level of the firm can be seen in the head of the individual and therefore, hampering the sharing among all members (March & Simon, 1958). The difference between these schools of thoughts has been well explained by Grant (1996) who assumes that knowledge resides at an individual level, which therefore makes knowledge integration the important function for a firm.

According to Ariely (2003), the conceptualisation of knowledge which represents an organisational key resource, provides the theoretical link between the RBV and the KBV of the firm. Conner and Prahalad (2002) concur that the KBV of the firm lies with the RBV of the firm. The KBV of the firm perceives firms as administrative organisations, made up of a set of productive resources and capabilities. These resources are classified into two − physical and human resources (Penrose, 1959). These resources can be combined to provide firms with value-added services. On the other hand, these resources (physical and human) can be put to different use depending on ideas offered for how to apply them. In this regard, Penrose (1959) explains that the knowledge possessed by people within the organisation correlates with the services derived from those resources.

The KBV of the firm pays critical attention to human capabilities or knowledge within the firm to provide explanation of the profit and the firm's value (Barney, 1991; Penrose, 1980; Wernerfelt, 1984). Scholars such as (Barney, 2001), Grant (2002), Guthrie (2001) and Mathews (2003) argue that the KBV of the firm is the most appropriately applied in the current economic situation because it sees knowledge as an intangible resource which contributes to superior performance of an organisation. Hoskisson, Hitt, Wan and Yiu (1999), Marr (2004), Stewart (1997) and Sveiby (2001) concur that the KBV of the firm accepts firms as heterogeneous entities made up of different sets of knowledge.

Knowledge resources, being difficult to emulate, are critical to ensuring that the organisation gains sustainable competitive advantage over its rivals (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2003). The theory also perceives the employees as the core organisational function. The KBV of the firm further categorises organisations as cultural artefacts (Balogun & Jenkins, 2003), people learning through a series of organisational activities, and adapting over time. Cook and Yanow (1995) contend that organisational learning allows firms to attract, change, and preserve their capabilities. The theory credits organisational culture with being a set of knowledge and capabilities, integrated into patterns and recipes of action to address key issues such as attraction and retention of human resources (Schein, 1985). The KBV of the firm assumes that organisational culture is the stock of knowledge, coded or not, integrated into patterns and methods of action to be taken before certain situations (Bontis, & Dragonetti, Jacobsen & Roos, 1999). According to Balogun and Jenkins (2003), organisational routines sometimes change knowledge to that tacit and embedded.

Organisational routine comprises behaviour that can be learned, highly patterned, and found, even if only partly tacit knowledge (Geus, 1988; Winter, 2003).

Hitt, Bierman, Shimizu and Kochhar (2001) suggest that, in addition to the natural resources, a firm's intangible resources present a superior probability to achieving competitive advantage, as these resources are rare, socially complex, and barely imitable. Organisational learning scholars (Bontis, 2002; Garvin, 1998; Senge, 1990) believe that there is knowledge-management literature that associates superior knowledge bases, resulting from organisation learning, with superior firm performances. Research (Levitt & March, 1988; Szulanski, 2003) suggests that organisational capabilities emerge over time through organisational learning. Organisational learning is seen in those firms that desire to establish learning capabilities (DeNisi, Hitt & Jackson, 2003). Organisational learning has further been defined as the changing of organisational behaviour through a collective learning process (Senge, 2006). Likewise, Garvin, Edmondson and Gino (2008) postulate that organisational learning is a unique resource that is critical in today's dynamic and changing environment, and a crucial determinant of a firm's competitive advantage.

The essence of organisational learning is to develop and utilise new knowledge that has the potential of changing the behaviour of organisational members. Such, ultimately, becomes the strength of the organisation's competitive position. Argyris and Schön (1978) claim that firms learn through individuals acting as their agents and through individuals' learning activities, which, in turn, are enhanced by an ecological system of factors. Morgan (1986) opines that firms cannot, themselves, learn; rather learning resides within individuals. Organisational learning capabilities are most strategically crucial in creating and maintaining competitive advantage (DeNisi et al., 2003). Based on this premise, it can be argued that talent is a single resource for creating sustainable competitive advantage. In this regard, Geus (1988) argues that the capacity of a firm to learn faster than other rivals is an important way of creating sustainable competitive advantage.

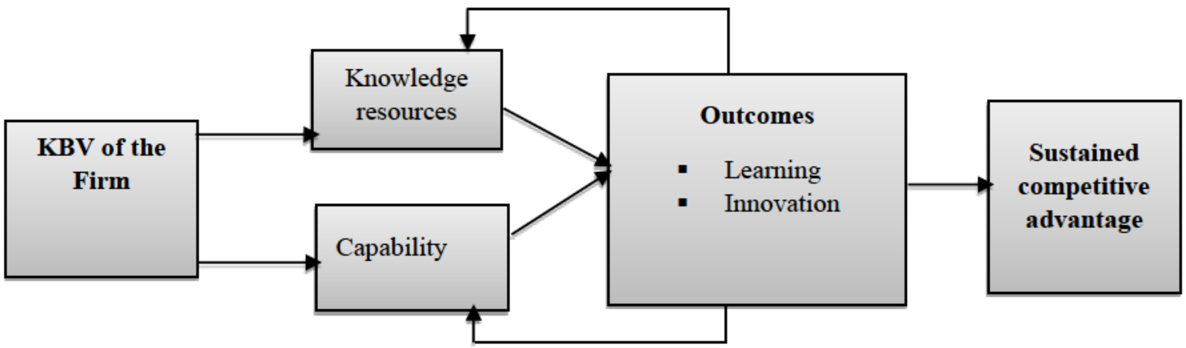
Nonaka (1991) also admits that knowledge is the only source of competitive advantage within an organisation. McEvily and Chakravarthy (2002) acknowledge that there are some non-observable factors that influence a firm's performance, including capabilities and competences. Hitt, Bierman, Shimizu and Kockhar (2001) propose that intellectual capital presents a superior probability for firms to gain competitive advantage, this being scarce, socially complex, rare, and difficult to imitate. Conner and Prahalad (2002) contend that emerging strategic-management literature identifies knowledge as the basis for competition. Helfat and Peteraf (2003) advocate that the RBV of the firm incorporate the temporal evolution of its resources, and the capabilities that sustain competitive advantage. From the perspective of the RBV of the firm, the term dynamic capabilities refers to a firm's ability to integrate, build, and reconfigure internal and external competences to respond to the changing business environments. Lei, Hitt and Bettis, (1996) point out that the RBV of the firm accepts capabilities as the basis for the specific competitive advantage of the firm. The KBV of the firm assumes that, through the use of dynamic capabilities, firms are able to build, integrate, and reconfigure their internal and external capacities to respond to the ever-changing environments (Teece, Pisano & Shuen, 1997).

The interpretation of knowledge and dynamic capabilities as resources has established the theoretical connection between the RBV and the KBV of the firm (Ariely, 2003). According to Malerba and Orsenigo (2000), dynamic capabilities have made that extension. Helfat and Peteraf (2003) stress that the KBV of the firm is the logical evolution of the RBV of the firm. This comes about because it incorporates the temporal evolution of its resources and capabilities, in order to achieve a lasting competitive advantage.

Rugman and Verbeke (2002) suggest that capabilities and capacities help organisations to create sustainable performance. These two factors relate to each other, are non-substitutable and difficult to copy. For instance, it is a difficult task to imitate organisational routines, imitation, or duplication, itself being a capability only developed through execution (Szulanski, 2003; Winter, 2003). According to McEvily and Chakravarthy (2002), the tacit, specific, and dynamic knowledge developed by firms through replication brings long-lasting or sustainable competitive advantage. Cohen and Levinthal (1990) explain that firms can absorb their knowledge, integrating such with knowledge acquired, thus creating new intellectual capital. On the other hand, Gratton and Ghoshal (2003) and Szulanski (2003) suggest that firms can expand their knowledge base by applying pre-existing knowledge. However, Sveiby (2001) claims that a firm's capability has a strong effect on knowledge-based strategic formulation.

Lerro, Linzalone, Schiuma, Kianto, Ritala, Spender and Vanhala (2014), Pöyhönen and Blomqvist (2006), and Smedlund and Pöyhönen (2005) developed a conceptual model of the KBV of the firm to explain how knowledge-based resources and renewal capability influence organisational learning and innovation, resulting in sustained competitive advantage. Figure 3.8 depicts this process.

Figure 3.8 Knowledge-based view of the firm



Source: Adapted from Barney (1991) and Wernerfelt (1984)

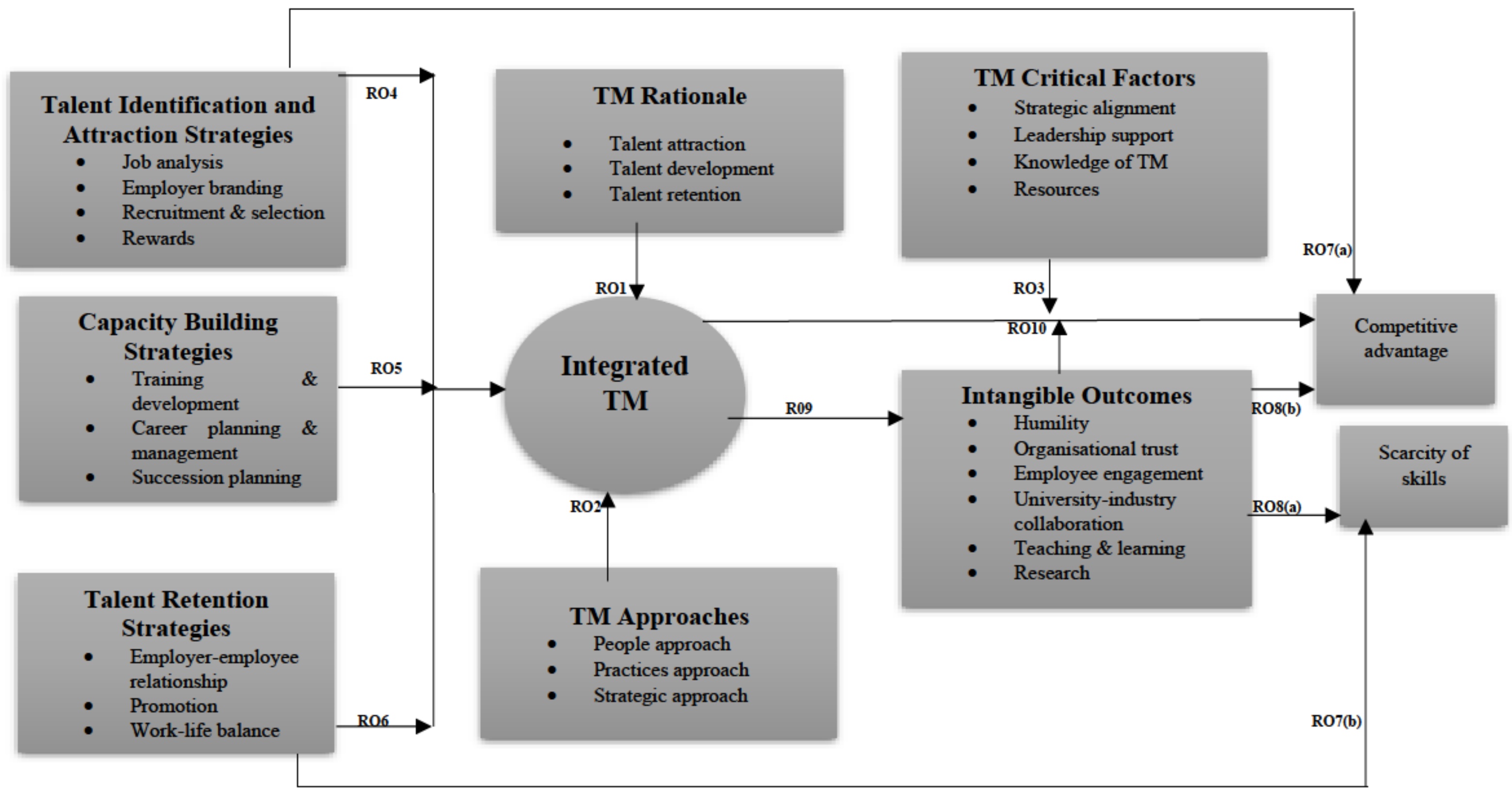
Smedlund and Pöyhönen (2005) suggest that renewal capability relates to organisational characteristics allowing a firm to develop and change its human-resource base to produce a learning and innovation outcome, which in turn results in sustained competitive advantage.

There are several reasons for adopting the KBV of the firm in this study. An important reason is that this theory encourages knowledge production through organisational learning, which could help HEIs to achieve competitive advantage. Moreover, the theory is suitable for this study because it will assist institutions to identify, attract, develop, and retain highly qualified faculty members to engage in teaching, research, community engagement, and other functions.

3.10 Conceptual model that guides the study

This study is motivated by the need to develop a TM conceptual model to assist HEIs to attract, develop, and retain highly talented academics through a set of HRM practices. Figure 3.9 outlines the conceptual model which guides the study.

Figure 3.9 The conceptual model that guides the study



Source: Adapted from Ariely (2003), Barney (1991), Foss (1996), and Grant (1996)

This conceptual model was adapted from existing theoretical frameworks (Ariely, 2003; Barney, 1991; Foss, 1996; Grant, 1996) and empirical research. The constructs in the framework are discussed below.

i. Rationale for talent management

The purpose of TM varies significantly among organisations. For example, Collings and Mellahi (2009) and Lewis and Heckman (2006) argue that TM emerged in universities to identify key positions. Other functions of TM include developing a strategic pool of high-performing employees to fill positions, and facilitating alignment of high potential employees with key positions, and organisational strategy. Moreover, research (Scullion, Collings & Caligiuri, 2010; Sparrow & Makram, 2015) reveals the three rationales for TM as attracting, developing, and retaining talent. Before TM is implemented in HEIs, its purpose must first be determined and agreed upon by management.

ii. Talent management philosophies

As shown in the conceptual model, the effectiveness of a TM programme depends on its ideologies/philosophies. With reference to the literature review, four generic philosophies underpin TM within an organisation. However, this study found that the people, practices, and strategic-pools approaches were the philosophies that underpinned TM in South African HEIs. The people approach to TM pays critical attention to managing small groups of employees who possess unique skills, or those very scarce or rare, and difficult to replace (Guthridge et al., 2006). This approach can be adopted by HEIs in this competitive business environment to attract and retain highly qualified academics required to achieve sustainable competitive advantage.

The practices approach requires advanced and sophisticated HRM practices in managing intellectual capital (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). This approach is unique as it pays attention to talent attract, capacity building, and talent retention in the competitive labour market. The practices approach can deliver sustainable competitive advantage for HEIs since it employs the thinking embodied within the HR architecture literature to attract, develop, and retain intellectual capital.

The strategic-pools approach draws on human capital analytics and strategic human-resource planning (Boudreau & Jesuthasan, 2011; Nahapiet, 2011). This approach focuses on two main capabilities for converting the human-capital-planning cycle to TM architecture. One capability is determining the effect of human capital on the ability of the firm to complete the business activities through its influence on operational outcomes. The other capability is the process of the forward-looking skills required to forecast and predict business outcomes. The strategic-pools approach assumes that the investments in human capital could lead to organisational success and competitive advantage. This perspective underscores the importance of the KBV of the firm which underpins the study. The strategic-pools approach can be utilised to develop human capital in HEIs since it assumes that human capital leads to organisational success.

iii. Talent identification and attraction strategies

The competition for talent places much emphasis on high-performing employees, owing to the shift from an industrial economy to a knowledge-based economy (Aguinis, Gottfredson & Joo, 2012). To attract human capital for achieving a sustainable competitive advantage, it is necessary for organisations, including HEIs, to understand how talented staff or knowledgeable workers are identified and attracted. Various TM practices influence talent identification and attraction within organisations. However, this study focuses only on job analysis, employer branding, recruitment and selection practices, and rewards. Dessler (2013) explains job analysis as the procedure that defines the duties and skills required to perform a specific job, and the calibre of persons to be employed. Job analysis is considered the bedrock of nearly all HRM activities (Fine & Cronshaw, 2009). Adegbami (2013) contends that job analysis assists HR practitioners to prepare staffing strategies, training and development, compensation packages, and health and safety requirements with design based on the job demands and characteristics. To attract high performers through job analysis, HEIs must ensure that their expectations and those of the applicants are clearly defined in the job advertisement.

Employer branding is a relatively new concept in HRM, which aims to attract loyal, committed, and talented employees. Historically, employer branding pays attention to building a distinctive image of an organisation, externally (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004; Love & Singh, 2011; Peters, 1999). However, the current perspective of employer branding is to align the internal practices with the external image to achieve positive employees' engagement and satisfaction (Mosley, 2007). From the HR perspective, the concept of employer branding assumes that intellectual capital creates an added value for an organisation through optimal investment that, in return, enhances performance (Backhaus & Tikoo, 2004). Given the competition for talent, HEIs could adopt employer branding to attract and recruit qualified applicants with a diverse set of soft and technical skills required to obtain sustainable competitive advantage.

Recruitment and selection practices also constitute vital HR activities that influence talent identification and attraction for organisations. To attract qualified and committed employees through recruitment and selection, HEIs must ensure that the vacancies are advertised in the right media. Moreover, HEIs must ensure that the recruitment and selection interviews are conducted by a panel of experts.

In this competitive era, many firms continue to confront the difficulty of tying rewards to TM. Moreover, attracting and sustaining key talent is becoming a major issue, since several firms need to spend on salaries and benefits, but have limited flexibility (Baral, 2014). Firms, including HEIs, can attract their desired talent using a dynamic blend of elements in the total rewards package.

iv. Capacity-building strategies

As reflected in the conceptual model, training and development, career planning and management, succession planning, and organisational learning constitute the capacity-building strategies found in organisations. The most effective way of developing talent is to allow organisational learning and personal development to occur within the organisation. These days, learning and development are considered HR strategies for achieving organisational success. Firms can create and maintain sustainable competitive advantage by providing comprehensive training and development for their current staff. Singh and Mohanty (2012) confirm that development programmes consistent with employees' and organisational goals and needs and aligned with the business strategy will deliver a competitive advantage for the organisation.

Career planning and management are not only crucial in improving employees' talent and skills − they also deliver a competitive advantage for firms (Gyansah & Guantai, 2018). Career planning and development programmes in organisations, including HEIs, should aim at enhancing the talent and capabilities of all employees.

Succession planning has also been considered a capacity-building strategy that results in superior performance. Succession planning is a systematic and deliberate process that ensures the smooth handover of power, and the creation, sharing, and retention of knowledge when managers or experts exit the organisation. Succession planning is required in HEIs to identify and accelerate future leaders' development within the organisation, in an increasingly tight business environment. Succession planning should be recognised as a tool for business survival. It provides competitive advantage in the knowledge-based economy, which should be implemented by every HEI.

v. Talent-retention strategies

Lyons and Kuron (2013) point out that a greater percentage of young and talented employees are leaving their jobs than their predecessors, through lack of job satisfaction. This phenomenon is forcing many organisations, including HEIs, to adopt different strategies to retain their human capital who can make a valuable contribution to the organisation. Xesha, Iwu, Slabbert and Nduna (2014) advocate that business owners and managers who desire to compete in globally competitive markets must understand the human side of their organisations and business operations. Similarly, McDermott and Conway (2013) point out that, to survive and grow in the competitive labour markets, owners of businesses must learn and utilise appropriate intellectual skills to inspire all their employees. These assumptions underscore the importance of the employer-employee relationship. To promote such an employer-employee relationship, organisations should learn to inspire employees, offering them incentives, encouraging teamwork, delegating important responsibilities, creating an atmosphere of trust, and being open and transparent.

Wiradendi Wolor (2020) posits that a WLB remains a vital issue for employees within both the public and private sectors. Abioro, Oladejo and Ashogbon (2018) contend that failure by organisations to implement a WLB will result in low productivity and performance. Research (Chaitra & Murthy 2016; Meenakshi, & Ravichandran, 2013) suggests that present employees place more emphasis on quality of WLB than on remuneration. For instance, in Indonesia, a survey shows that a WLB was the biggest concern for employees, after financial problems (Post, 2019). Most employees in Indonesia believe that a good WLB promotes teleworking, and improves personal lives, particularly for female employees (Mittal, 2017). Moreover, it has been argued that a quality WLB has increased the rate of active people living with disabilities, single workers, and childless couples in the workplace. Throughout the review of literature, it appears that the majority of research (Haar, Russo, Suñe & Ollier-Malaterre, 2014; Kalliath & Brough, 2008; Keeney, Boyd, Sinha, Westring & Ryan, 2013; Sirgy & Lee, 2018) on WLB has focused only on work and family roles. Moreover, research seems to focus predominantly on WLB issues from a gender perspective (Patel, Govender, Paruk & Ramgoon, 2006), from the perspective of employees with parental-care responsibilities, and from that of age (Eikhof, Warhurst, & Haunschild, 2007). However, there is little research concerning the effect of WLB on employee retention within HEIs. To minimise labour turnover, HEIs should place much emphasis on WLB.

In academia, promotion is an essential issue for the selection and placement of employees in the best position. According to Gathungu, Iravo and Namusonge (2015), promotion contributes to employee commitment to an organisation. Malik, Danish and Munir (2012) admit that promotion is the source of employee job satisfaction. Similarly, Razak, Sarpan and Ramlan (2018) argue that promotion influences job satisfaction and employee performance within an organisation. Ekabu, Nyagah and Kalai (2018) discover that promotion has a negative and an inverse relationship with turnover intention among teachers in Kenya. Sitati, Were and Waititu (2016) concur that promotion influences the turnover intentions of employees in an organisation. Likewise, Bibi, Pangil, Johari and Ahmad (2017) assure that remuneration and promotional opportunities impacted employee retention positively in public universities in Pakistan. By contrast, Fairris (2004) argues that employee promotion is actually associated with high turnover. A study conducted by Joarder, Sharif and Ahmmed (2011) reveals that promotion opportunities have an insignificant effect on faculty turnover decision. Although there is mixed reaction among researchers concerning the relationship between promotion and employee retention, this study recommends that the only way HEIs can retain their intellectual capital and achieve sustainability is to pay critical attention to employee promotion. Promotion should be conducted regularly to instill confidence in the faculty members to deliver their responsibilities, such as teaching and research supervision.

vi. Intangible outcomes of talent management practices

From the conceptual model, it is believed that an effective TM contributes to intangible outcomes such as humility, organisational trust, employee engagement, university-industry collaboration, teaching and learning, and research productivity. Ren et al. (2020) found that humility, as a virtue, enhances a firm's sustainability, providing a trustworthiness climate for top-management team members. Zhou and Li (2018) believe that a leader's humility promotes employee commitment and turnover. According to Petrenko, Aime, Recendes and Chandler (2019), firms with more humble leaders will have better market performance, deriving maximum benefits from the expectation discount in the market. A TM could be employed to attract, develop, and retain humble leaders and employees who are capable of adding value to the organisation.

From the perspective of psychology, trust constitutes an intended behaviour or action similar to judging and choosing (Lewis & Weigert, 1985; Rousseau et al., 1998). For Krot and Lewicka (2012), trust denotes the willingness on the part of a party to the employment relationship to be vulnerable to the other party. TM practices can be used to build organisational trust through the attraction, development, and retention of employees who possess qualities such as credibility, respect, trustworthiness, integrity, ability, and benevolence.

Employee engagement is a burning issue for many organisations, especially in this competitive business environment. Babu and Krishna (2016) suggest that engaged employees are more motivated to contribute to organisational productivity than are less engaged employees. Chanana (2020) explains that, during the COVID-19 pandemic, employee engagement received much attention from HR managers and practitioners because of the nationwide lockdown. Given the global impact of the COVID-19 many organisations, including academic institutions, have developed innovative and effective ways of engaging their employees, especially during the lockdown. For example, some of the engagement activities employed by organisations include webinars, video conferences, short online game sessions, online courses, and e-learning modules (Chanana, 2020). Findings from existing research (Barkhuizen et al., 2014; Hongal & Kinange, 2020; Kamel, 2019; Pandita & Ray, 2018) confirm that TM practices impacted positively on employee engagement within organisations. To improve employee engagement, the leadership of HEIs should be concerned about the well-being of all employees.

University-industry collaboration is considered a vital tool allowing both universities and firms to share their resources more effectively and efficiently. In this way, mutually compatible goals are achieved, including technological innovation, enhancement of global competition, and promotion of economic growth (Ahmad & Junaid, 2008). According to Ankrah and Omar (2015), the partnership between universities and industries is increasingly denoted a strategic tool to improve innovation through knowledge exchange. Demircioglu and Audretsch (2019) point out that, these days, many firms are operating in a highly competitive business environment. The current competitive environment requires firms to innovate at a fast pace to offer new products and services to consumers to meet their demands. Collaboration has been perceived as an imperative tool to deal with the challenges faced by firms in the competitive business environment (De Wit-de Vries, Dolfsma, van der Windt & Gerkema, 2019). TM practices could be employed by both universities and industries to improve their partnership, thus attracting, developing and retaining employees with the right skills, knowledge, and experience on collaborations.

Today, an important aim of university reform is to improve the quality of teaching, learning and research. Quality teaching, which is linked to competencies of academics, is gradually gaining its place among quality criteria. In view of this, Marentič Požarnik (2009) suggests that universities shift their focus from the rigid traditional lecture-based teaching methods towards a more student-centred method that encourages active learning. Fung (2017) stresses that encouraging quality and innovative teaching and learning and research should be at the forefront of HE policies. Satsangi (2016) contends that quality teaching in HEIs can be improved through research abilities, communication, courses, and methodologies, curriculum design, advanced technology, leadership, and professional skills. Haseena and Mohammed (2015) argue that dedicated faculty is the vital ingredient of quality education. Contrary to the above pedagogical enhancement techniques, this study suggests that teaching and learning and research productivity in HEIs could be improved by attracting, developing, and retaining scholars to foster teaching and learning and research.

vii. Sustainable competitive advantage

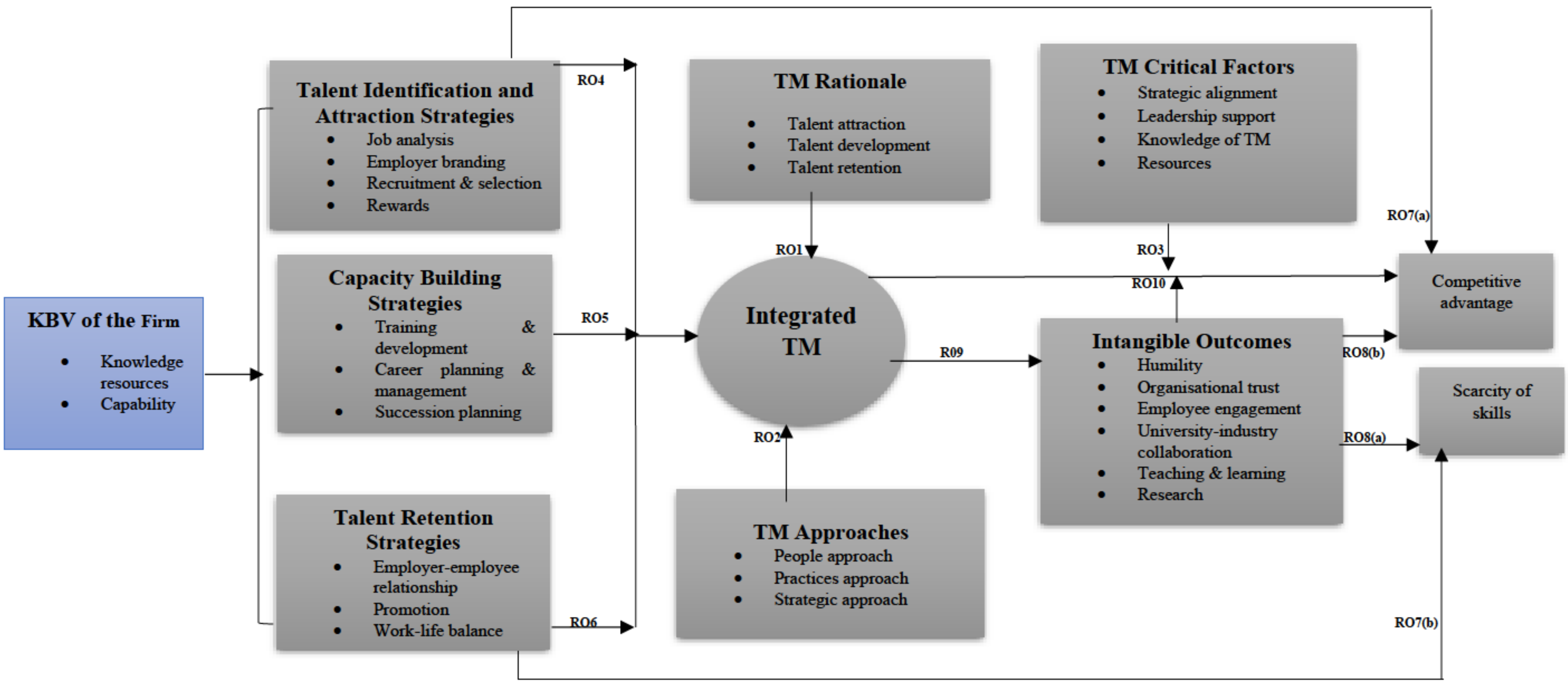
Lee and Yoo (2019) argue that, nowadays, many firms are finding it very difficult to maintain competitive advantage. Ashif (2019) suggests that TM has become a platform through which many organisations obtain competitive advantage. Ibrahim and Zayed (2018) articulate that integrating the business strategies and business culture with TM contributes to sustainable competitive advantage for an organisation. Organisations, including HEIs, can harness TM practices to attract, develop, and maintain intellectual capital required to compete in the global market.

viii. Scarcity of skills

Globally, shortage of critical skills is a common issue facing many organisations and countries (Mateus, Allen-Ile, & Iwu, 2014). For example, in Australia, skills shortage is common in the professional occupations, in skilled trades and in service intensive professions (Mateus et al., 2014). In the US, there is a similar concern about the supply of skills, particularly education-related skills. The situation in Australia and the US also prevail in democratized South Africa. Post-1994, the concept of scarce skills featured mainly in South Africa’s national development discourse (Balwanz & Ngcwangu, 2016). According to Sebola (2015), despite the recruitment of expatriates to most HEIs in South Africa, the situation remains unchanged. To address the shortage of critical skills in South African organisations, particularly in HEIs, much emphasis should be on the development and retention of intellectual capital.

Figure 3.10 combines both the theoretical and conceptual model (integrated mode) that guides the study.

Figure 3.10 A graphical representation of the theoretical and conceptual model



Source: Adapted from Ariely (2003), Barney (1991), Foss (1996), and Grant (1996), Wernerfelt (1984)

3.11 Chapter summary

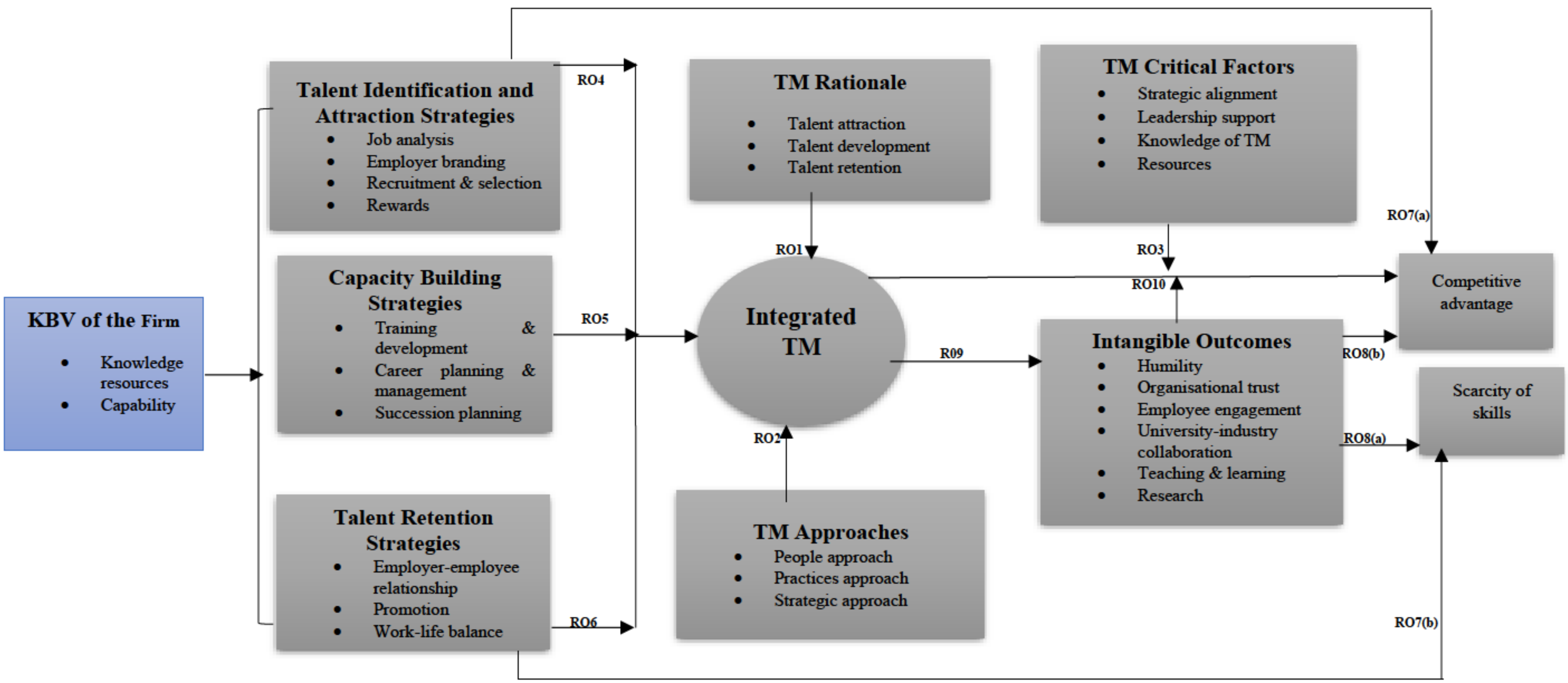
The review identifies three broad strategies of TM, including talent attraction, capacity-building and talent retention. The literature review shows that TM practices positively influenced intangible outcomes such as organisational trust, employee humility, employee engagement, teaching and learning, university-industry collaboration, and research publication and productivity. Additionally, evidence shows a significant positive relationship between the intangible outcomes and competitive advantage. Moreover, the theoretical framework (the KBV of the firm) and conceptual model which underpin the study, also confirmed that a strong positive correlation exists between TM practices, intangible outcomes, competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills. The subsequent chapter describes the research method adopted.

Chapter Four: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the research design, methodology, and methods adopted to empirically investigate the intangible outcomes of TM practices in HEIs in South Africa. The chapter outlines the research paradigm, research design, and research strategy, the research setting, population of the study, the sampling technique and procedures, the data-collection tool, pilot study, data-quality control and data analysis, ethical considerations, and the research limitations. The objectives that guided the development of the conceptual model are shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1 A graphical representation of the theoretical and conceptual model'



Source: Adapted from Ariely (2003), Barney (1991), Foss (1996), and Grant (1996), Wernerfelt (1984)

4.2 Research hypotheses

To achieve the research objectives, the following working hypotheses were empirically tested.

i. H1. There exist several talent management practices that influence talent identification and attraction to higher education institutions;
ii. H2. There exist several talent management practices that contribute to capacity building in higher education institutions;
iii. H3. There exist some talent management practices that affect the talent retention in higher education institutions;
iv. H4. There is a significant relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills in higher education institutions;
v. H5. There is a significant relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills in higher education institutions;
vi. H6. There exists a significant relationship between talent management practices and intangible talent management outcomes; and
vii. H7. Intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage.

In this study, the dependent variables investigated were competitive advantage and scarcity of skills. The mediating variables were, namely, TM outcomes (organisational trust, employee engagement, humility, university-industry collaboration, teaching and learning, research and creativity, and innovation), while independent variables were TM practices (talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent retention).

4.3 Mapping of the research objectives and questions with the tools used in the study

According to Lanzing (1996), the concept of data mapping can be understood as a tool that demonstrates how people visualise relationships between different concepts. In psychology, data mapping is closely related to a cognitive map, which provides a visual representation of dynamic schemes of understanding within the human mind (Mls, 2004). Moreover, Cooper (2016) concurs that mapping is a visual technique that organises and displays knowledge in a visual manner, using for example, flow charts and graphs. Brightman (2003) believes that mapping assists scholars and practitioners in different fields to visualise interrelationships between ideas. Such mapping was used to organise the survey responses that emerged from the study. Furthermore, mapping was adopted to synthesise, organise, and document ideas arising from the research. Table 4.1 shows the data mapping.

Table 4.1 Mapping of the research objectives and questions with the tools used in the study

Research Objectives	Hypotheses	Relevant Question (s) in the Questionnaire	Relevant Theme(s) from Qualitative data	Relevant Question(s) from Interview Grid
i. To establish the rationale behind the implementation of TM in HEIs	N/A	N/A	• Talent identification and attraction • Capacity building • Talent retention	Why was TM introduced into HEIs?
ii. To determine the best approach to the implementation of TM in HEIs	N/A	N/A	• People approach • Practice approach • Position approach • Strategic-pools approach	What is the best approach to TM in HEIs?
iii. To investigate the critical success factors that influence TM in HEIs	N/A	N/A	• Organisational culture • Leadership buy-in	What are the critical success factors that influence TM in HEIs?
iv. To identify TM practices that influence the attraction of talent into HEIs	i. There exist several TM practices that influence talent identification and attraction within HEIs	The university has a good reputation as an employer of choice in the education sector; Candidates are selected for the job based on qualifications, experience, knowledge and skills acquired	• Employer branding • Job analysis • Recruitment & selection	What are the TM practices that influence talent identification and attraction within HEIs?
v. To ascertain TM practices that contribute to capacity building in HEIs	ii. There exist several TM practices that contribute to capacity building within HEIs	The university has a clear policy on training and development; There exist several career opportunities for academics in HEIs	• Training & development • Career planning & management	What are the TM practices that contribute to capacity building in HEIs?

vi. To examine TM practices that affect the talent retention in HEIs	iii. There exist some TM practices that affect the talent retention within HEIs	My line manager respects me	• Employer-employee relationship	What are the TM practices that contribute to the talent retention?
vii. To establish the type of relationship that exists between talent management practices and competitive advantage, and talent scarcity of skills	iv. There is a significant relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills	The university considers academics rare resources which are very difficult for other institutions to acquire	• Efficiency • Value contribution • Competitive advantage	Do TM practices deliver value for HEIs?
viii. To examine the relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage	v. There is a significant relationship between intangible talent management outcomes, and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills	The university recognises academics as key resources which are difficult to replace	• Valuable resource • Work efficiency	Do HEIs consider human resources as strategic assets?
x. To explore the relationship between TM practices and intangible outcomes	vi. There exists a significant relationship between talent management practices, and intangible talent management outcomes	I am willing to acknowledge and appreciate the strengths and contributions of others	• Humility • University-industry collaboration • Teaching and learning • Organisational trust	What are the intangible outcomes of TM?
xi. To evaluate the extent to which intangible outcomes mediate the relationship between TM practices and competitive advantage	vii. Intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices, and competitive advantage	I am easily accessible to my students	N/A	N/A

4.4 Research paradigm

The concept of a research paradigm was introduced by Thomas Kuhn (1962), representing a philosophical way of thinking. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006) argue that the term paradigm describes the researcher's worldview in research. This worldview represents the perspective and ideology, school of thought, or beliefs that inform the data analysis and interpretation. Lather (1986) admits that the research paradigm reflects the researcher's world view. It represents the abstract beliefs, assumptions, and principles that guide the researcher on how to view the world and how to interpret and act in the world. Moreover, Lather (1986) argues that the research paradigm represents the conceptual lens through which the investigator examines the methodological issues, thus determining the research methods utilised, and how data was analysed.

There are various categories of research paradigms, including positivism (Comte1798; Neurath, 1973), interpretivism/constructivism (Guba & Lincoln, 1989), and pragmatism (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a, 2003b; Patton, 1990). This study was firmly rooted in the mixed-methods research, hence pragmatism was adopted.

Pragmatism emerged from a paradigm war which resulted among scholars in their quest for the best approach to be used among scholars in social science and scientific research. Pragmatists argued that the over-reliance on only one research paradigm could not be considered good enough (Alise & Teddlie, 2010; Biesta, 2010). The scholars suggest that a more differentiated worldview is needed to provide research methods most appropriate for exploring the phenomenon at hand. As a result of the paradigm war (Patton, 1990; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003a, 2003b) there was a need for a paradigm that could offer an opportunity to adopt mixed methods as a pragmatic way of comprehending human behaviour hence, the emergence of pragmatism as a paradigm. Gage (1989) posits that pragmatism emerged to end the paradigm war between positivists and interpretivists.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009, p.109) argue that pragmatists assume that the "most dominant position (epistemology, ontology, and axiology) which the investigator adopts depends on the research questions". This premise underscores the importance of pragmatism as a unique paradigm for collecting and analysing multiple data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Morgan, 2007; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). According to Morgan (2007), the pragmatic approach encourages researchers to adopt several techniques in diverse paradigms to focus much attention on shared meanings, and to pursue joint action, as in this study. Pragmatism offers an alternative approach that integrates positivist and constructivist paradigms into one research, thereby determining how quantitative and qualitative methods are used. It also helps to achieve reconciliation between objective and subjective realities.

There are several reasons for adopting pragmatism in this study. From the epistemological point of view, pragmatism helped provide the practical meaning of TM practices and their outcomes. Moreover, pragmatism was adopted because it offers different perceptions, ideologies, assumptions, and approaches producing outstanding research outcomes. Furthermore, it clarifies the balance between deductive and inductive reasoning, which offers practical strategies to merging diverse paradigms. Additionally, pragmatism was adopted because it is very flexible, as such, allowing the use of suitable and multiple research designs to address the stated research questions.

4.5 Research approach adopted to investigate the phenomenon

There are two research approaches, including the deductive approach (Saunders et al., 2009). The study integrated both methods to investigate the intangible outcomes of TM practices in HEIs, empirically. A strong justification for integrating both approaches is that they provide advanced explanatory analysis of the link between two or more variables (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2012).

The deductive approach has its foundation in scientific or quantitative research. Laws serve as the basis for an explanation, allowing the anticipation of the research phenomenon, predicting the phenomenon's occurrence, and permitting the researcher to control the phenomenon (Collis & Hussey, 2003). Scholars (Locke, 2007; Nola & Sankey, 2007) suggest that this approach concerns the shift from general to particular, beginning from a theory through the formulation of hypotheses, testing the hypotheses, and reviewing them. It adopts rigorous scientific methods to gather and analyse numeric data. The data is then subjected to robust statistical analysis, which deductively contributes to the body of knowledge.

Ormerod (2009) expresses that the deductive approach is the most dominant approach to scientific research and advancing knowledge, given the fact that it influences the research phenomenon. The deductive approach was adopted because it helps to identify the theory which underpins the study, testing its implications per its data set. Moreover, this approach was used since it offers the researcher an opportunity to begin from a theoretical base, which helps formulate the research hypotheses.

On the other hand, the inductive approach has its origin in the interpretive paradigm. It aims to obtain a feel of what is taking place, so as to understand the phenomenon better (Saunders et al., 2009). This research approach concerns moving from the specific to the general (Locke, 2007). It is useful when the researcher intends to develop theories required in testing and refining other theories (Harriman, 2010).

The integration of both the deductive and the inductive approach into this study helped to offer a deeper understanding of the subject matter being investigated. The deductive and inductive approaches were combined to address the objective and subjective processes in developing new knowledge of the research phenomenon. Additionally, the deductive and inductive approaches helped to collect and analyse both quantitative and qualitative data.

4.6 Research strategy

Research strategy represents the research method adopted to gather data, thus drawing realistic deductions (Azika, 2008; Creswell, 2009). Various research strategies can be adopted in a study, including descriptive, exploratory, explanatory, experimental, survey, cross-sectional, longitudinal, case study, archival, action, and participatory research. However, as far as this study is concerned, both descriptive and exploratory studies were conducted to explore the intangible outcomes of TM practices in HEIs. The rationale for adopting these research strategies is outlined in the next section.

4.6.1 Descriptive study

Descriptive research has its origin in scientific research and is usually applied to quantitative studies. Siedlecki (2020) believes that a descriptive research aims to adequately describe the events as they occurred in their natural settings. Siedlecki (2020) argues that the researcher does not manipulate the variables with descriptive research but only describes them and the sample. This design examines the characteristics of the population and identifies the problems that exist therein.

Nassaji (2015) contends that descriptive research aims to describe a phenomenon and its characteristics more accurately. This research method focuses on 'what' rather than 'how' or 'why' an event occurred (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007). In descriptive research, qualitative data could be collected through observation and survey tools; but it is often analysed statistically, using statistical analyses to determine relationships between variables (Creswell, 2015).

The descriptive research was conducted to describe the research phenomenon more adequately and accurately. Another justification for choosing descriptive research is that it allows for sophisticated statistics to make sense of the data.

4.6.2 Exploratory study

Exploratory research is useful for a more persistent phenomenon; testing the research feasibility, and designing the research methods (Babbie, 2010, 2013). Scholars such as Dane (2011) and Neuman (2006) explain that exploratory research may be applied in qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods, but is most significant in qualitative research. For Engel and Schutt (2013), exploratory research offers more insight into the nature of a specific subject matter, developing more focused research questions for investigation. According to Hallingberg, Turley, Segrott, Wight, Craig, Moore and Moore (2018), exploratory research can provide vital information to aid more robust evaluations and to reduce costs associated with the study.

The exploratory research was applied in the qualitative phase to provide more satisfactory and conclusive answers to research questions. Exploratory research has two main goals in this study: to increase the knowledge of TM and intangible outcomes, especially in HEIs, and to generate new and exciting research questions about the phenomenon. Also, exploratory research was conducted because it helps to lay the foundation of the entire study. Additionally, this research design was adopted because it helps to provide more insight into the research problem.

4.7 Research method

The methods of research are qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. Qualitative research is concerned with collecting rich information from various sources to understand the research participants' opinions, perspectives, and attitudes regarding the subject matter (Nassaji, 2015). On the other hand, quantitative research aims to measure the phenomenon by collecting and analysing statistical data (Castellan, 2010; Tuli, 2011). Mixed methods use qualitative and quantitative techniques in a single research (Frels & Onwuegbuzie, 2013). Having analysed the three methods, mixed-methods research was utilised to investigate the research phenomenon.

Research (Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Clark, 2017; Onwuegbuzie, Johnson & Collins, 2009; Morgan, 1998; Tashakkori, Teddlie & Teddlie, 1998; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003) suggests that mixed methods emerged as the third approach for collecting and analysing multiple data in one study. Moreover, it integrates different results and draws inferences through qualitative and quantitative methods in one study. Other scholars (Ponterotto, Jaya & Brigid, 2013; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009) also confirm that using mixed methods involves gathering and processing multiple data in a single study. The mixed methods approach has its origin in pragmatism, which offers a researcher an opportunity of addressing a specific research question using both qualitative and quantitative components.

Regnault, Willgoss, Barbic and International Society for Quality of Life Research (2018) point out that mixed-methods research addresses research questions from different perspectives. Moreover, it enhances the creation of a conceptual model and develops new research instruments to explain the results (Regnault et al., 2018). Additionally, the mixed methods approach, when properly conducted, allows the respective strengths and weakness to complement one another. Research (Bryman, 2006; Creswell, 2009; Maxwell, 2010; Molina-Azorin, 2016) shows that the mixed method approach is flexible, because it allows the researcher to combine and integrate qualitative and quantitative methods in one study. Another value of mixed methods is that it contributes to creating new knowledge; and ensures the validity of the research, which could have been missed when relying solely on either the qualitative or quantitative method (Johnson & Christensen, 2019; Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007).

Despite the value of mixed-methods approach, such as the fact that it requires sufficient resources (Bowers, Cohen, Elliot, Grabowski, Fishman, Sharkey & Kemper, 2013), time (Halcomb & Andrew, 2009) and researchers with adequate skills and knowledge beyond purely quantitative and qualitative research (Halcomb & Andrew, 2009). Likewise, Regnault et al. (2018) argue that a critical issue in mixed-methods research is the meta-inference, where qualitative and quantitative strands connect. It is a requirement that this meta-inference should be clearly defined, and the investigator should know the challenges of interpreting conflicting results. Furthermore, mixed-methods research can raise practical issues because it requires additional resources and time to integrate the two sets of results (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Regnault et al., 2018). Another danger of conducting mixed methods is that it is difficult to merge different beliefs or philosophies (Greene, 2007). Notwithstanding these challenges, the value of mixed-methods approach in this current study cannot be underestimated.

Different types of mixed methods exist, but the concurrent mixed approach was adopted. The quantitative and qualitative results were analysed independently, but the interpretation of the results was brought together (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2017). This research method allows the researcher to integrate the results into meta-inferences, after separating the quantitative and qualitative results (Tashakkori, Johnson &Teddlie, 2020).

The use of mixed methods offered more insight into and understanding of TM intangible outcomes that may be missed when relying on a single research method. Also, this method helped to ensure the validation of the findings. Another usefulness of mixed methods in this study is that it provided an understanding of contradictions between the qualitative and qualitative results.

4.8 Study location

The study was conducted in the South African HEIs of UCT, UP, and UKZN. UKZN was formally established on January 1, 2004. UKZN aims to create a value-driven organisational culture that empowers people to achieve institutional goals. Moreover, the university has twenty-one schools located within five campuses: Westville, Howard, Edgewood, Medical School, and Pietermaritzburg.

UCT was established in 1918 as the leading teaching and research institution in South Africa, also the oldest. The UCT has been continuously ranked as the most prestigious university in Africa and among the world's top universities.

On the other hand, UP was officially launched in 1908 with only four academics and 32 students in a little house called Kya Rosa. UP is situated in Pretoria, Gauteng. UP is ranked among the top universities on the African continent and worldwide (University of Pretoria, 2011). These institutions were selected because they are pre-eminent in South Africa, contributing to quality education. Furthermore, these institutions have been chosen because useful and rich information could be collected from the participants.

4.9 Study population

The target population is the full set of cases from which samples are drawn (Saunders et al., 2009). The target population for the study included academics, cluster leaders, deans, and the professional services (HR directors, HR managers, and HR development officers) from the above HEIs. The term HR consultant only applies to the UKZN. Table 4.2 describes the population of the study, 3613.

Table 4.2 Distribution of the population in the various institutions

Institution	Total Population
UKNZ	1363
UCT	1208
UP	1042
TOTAL	**3613**

Source: UCT Website (2019), UKZN Website (2019), UP Website (2019)

4.10 Sampling strategy

Setia (2016) believes that once the research questions have been formulated and designs defined, it is essential to choose the appropriate sample. The method used by a researcher to select the sample is called sampling (Setia, 2016). Sampling strategy is usually employed to reduce the number of cases that should have been chosen for the study. There is consensus among scholars (Sarstedt, Bengart, Shaltoni & Lehmann, 2018; Taherdoost, 2016) that the main sampling strategies include probability and non-probability sampling. Since the study took the mixed-methods route, both sampling strategies were employed.

4.10.1 Probability sampling

Probability sampling is associated with quantitative research, which gives all the population elements an equal opportunity for participation in the study (Etikan & Bala, 2017). Likewise, Wiśniowski, Sakshaug, Perez Ruiz and Blom (2020) postulate that probability involves the process of drawing samples from a target population through random selection, with every element within the population having a known non-zero inclusion probability. It has been argued that probability sampling reduces bias in estimating the population mean, and measurable sampling error (Wiśniowski et al., 2020).

Moreover, Cornesse, Blom, Dutwin, Krosnick, De Leeuw, Legleye and Struminskaya (2020) believe that probability sampling enhances the sample accuracy, and offers a universal validity to the method of estimation. Other scholars (Battaglia, Dillman, Frankel, Harter, Buskirk, McPhee, & Yancey, 2016) also agree that probability sampling is suitably flexible. It is suggested that, in practice, an unbiased estimation cannot be assured, as the response rate in probability surveys can be very low (Wiśniowski et al., 2020). Another challenge associated with probability sampling is the need for large sample sizes for robust estimation, making it very difficult for the researcher to work from a small budget.

Probability sampling comprises various techniques such as, systematic, stratified, cluster, multi-stage, and area sampling. However, given the nature of the population, the stratified method was used to select respondents in the quantitative phase. A stratified method has to do with dividing or apportioning the universe into subgroups (strata) of the homogeneous population rather than the entire population; and selecting the items from each stratum to generate the sample (Etikan & Bala, 2017). Stratified sampling is more useful in obtaining a representative of a good sample. According to Bhardwaj (2019), stratified sampling is subdivided into two, namely, proportionate stratified random, and non-proportionate stratified sampling. The former is used when each strata sample has the same sampling fraction, whilst the latter is employed when the strata sample has an unequal sampling fraction (Bhardwaj, 2019). This study has adopted the proportional stratified sampling, given that each strata sample had an equal sampling fraction.

Through proportionate stratified sampling, the study population was first divided into subgroups (strata), and then decisions were made on which strata were to be included in the study. For instance, the population was categorised into various strata (universities), and samples were drawn from each stratum. The population in each university was divided into schools, faculties, and departments. Thereafter, the sample size of 106 was drawn from UCT, and UKZN respectively, while 105 were drawn from UP.

Stratified sampling was chosen because it gives more reliable and in-depth information about the sample. Additionally, stratified sampling was used because it provides better accuracy of the results than the rest of the probability sampling techniques. Moreover, stratified sampling was chosen in that it helps to establish a relationship between strata. Furthermore, stratified sampling was chosen because it helps to eliminate sample bias.

4.10.2 Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling has its origin in interpretivism and qualitative research. It does not give the participants an equal chance for inclusion in the sample (Battaglia, 2011). Similarly, Bhardwaj (2019) admits that non-probability sampling does not provide each element within the population a known probability of inclusion in the study. According to Wiśniowski et al. (2020), most qualitative studies rely on non-probability sampling because it is cost-effective. Non-probability sampling comprises techniques such as quota, accidental, judgment/purposive, expert, snowball, and heterogeneity sampling (Etikan & Bala, 2017).

The purposive sampling technique was used in this study, in which the investigator consciously selects who should be part of the sample (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016). Moreover, purposive sampling allows the researcher to focus only on elements within the population who have the same or similar information about the subject matter and are willing to share it (Etikan & Bala, 2017). For Setia (2016), purposive sampling is used to select subjects purposively to answer particular research questions. Purposive sampling was used to select the participants (professional services staff, academics and cluster leaders) who have adequate information and knowledge on the intangible outcomes of TM practices in HEIs.

4.11 Determination of the sample size

According to DiGaetano (2013), samples are supposed to be drawn from what is known as the ‘sample frame’ instead of the total population. The sample frame for this study included academics, faculty heads, cluster leaders, deans, DVCs and other professional services staff in the selected institutions. As mentioned above, the total population was 3613. However, it is essential to consider the confidence level and the margin of error in determining the sample. In this study, the 95% confidence level was chosen, with the margin of error at 5%. With the population of 3613, the required sample size selected for the study was, therefore 347 (Saunders et al., 2009), which was sufficient for this research project. For the qualitative research, a sample size of 30 participants (professional services staff, academics, cluster leaders, deans) at the various institutions was selected for the interviews. Academics were involved in the qualitative study to obtain divergent opinions concerning the subject matter. In contrast, 317 respondents (academics) were selected for the quantitative study. The formula for calculating sample size is presented as follows.

$$\frac{\frac{z^2 \times p\,(1-p)}{e^2}}{1+\left(\frac{z^2 \times p\,(1-p)}{e^2 N}\right)}$$

N = total population; Z = confidence level desired; P = estimated percentage of the population needed to be sampled; and E = margin of error. Table 4.3 presents detailed information on the sample size in each of the institutions.

Table 4.3 Distribution of the sample size in the various institutions

Institutions	**Quantitative Phase**	**Qualitative Phase**
UKZN	106	10
UCT	106	10
UP	105	10
TOTAL	**317**	**30**

Certain criteria were employed to select the samples for the study. An essential inclusion criterion used was that the scope of the study was limited to academics, middle management executives, and professional services staff within the three institutions. Moreover, the study included only those with more than 2 years of working experience in each of the selected universities. Additionally, the qualitative research was limited to the participants who have expert knowledge and rich information on the intangible outcomes of TM.

The study adopted certain recruitment protocols. Firstly, written approval was obtained from the three institutions and from the UKZN Research and Ethics Committee. Secondly, the participants' and respondents' email addresses were retrieved from the institutional websites. Thirdly, the participants and respondents were contacted through email. Fourthly, the consent form was uploaded onto the online survey platform to seek respondents' voluntary participation in the study. Lastly, the online survey was sent to the respondents who agreed to participate in the study.

4.12 Data-collection instrument

Researchers such as Paradis, O'Brien, Nimmon, Bandiera and Martimianakis (2016) and Teherani, Martimianakis, Stenfors-Hayes, Wadhwa and Varpio (2015) suggest that data-collection instruments are important, because the data gathered is used to determine the methodology and analytical approach to be applied. Sadan (2017) contends that the data-collection method helps to gather data systematically. However, the primary data-collection instruments used in this study were interviews and questionnaires.

4.12.1 Interviews

An interview is the most common, most viable, and most highly utilised data-collection instrument in qualitative research (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree 2006; Jamshed, 2014), allowing the researcher to conduct a detailed investigation into a specific subject matter (Jamshed, 2014). Moreover, Adhabi and Anozie (2017) describe the interview as a form of data collection in which the interviewer seeks to know more about a subject matter as informed by the interviewees being asked. Interviews are the preferred instrument for qualitative data collection because they allow the researcher to tap into the participants' feelings, experience, and knowledge concerning the chosen phenomenon (Jamshed, 2014).

Given the COVID-19 pandemic, a remote data-collection method was adopted. The interviews were conducted with the participants via Zoom. There are three forms of interview − the structured, the semi-structured, and the unstructured interview (Laksov, Dornan & Teunissen, 2017; Ng Lingard & Kennedy, 2014). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants, from August 2020 to December 2020.

The participants selected for the qualitative study included professional services staff (HRD officers and HR managers), academics, cluster leaders and deans. The interview session with each participant lasted between 30 and 40 minutes. All the interviews were audio- and video-recorded. The interview grid was structured as follows: Section A − Bio-data of the participants; Section B

− Rationale behind TM in HEIs; Section C − Approach to TM in HEIs; and Section D − TM practices that influence the attraction of talent into HEIs; Section E − TM practices that contribute to capacity building in HEIs; Section F − TM practices that affect talent retention in HEIs; Section G − Intangible outcomes of TM practices in HEIs; Section H − Factors that influence the implementation of TM in HEIs; Section I − Relationship between TM practices and intangible outcomes; Section J − Relationship between TM practices and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills; and Section K − Relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage. The data collected was transcribed and stored on the researcher personal laptop, encrypted with password.

4.12.2 Questionnaires

A questionnaire is the most common instrument for collecting data in survey research (Lavrakas, 2008). It comprises a series of items that reflect the research aims (Costanzo, Stawski, Ryff, Coe & Almeida, 2012; Dillman, Smyth & Christian, 2014; Ponto, 2015; Ponto, Ellington, Mellon & Beck, 2010). The questionnaire was self-constructed and made up of 116 items. The items were divided into the following sections: Section A − Demographic information; Section B − Rationale behind TM in HEIs; Section C − TM practices that influence attraction of talent into HEIs; Section D − TM practices that contribute to capacity building in HEIs; Section E − TM practices that influence the retention of talent in HEIs; Section F − Intangible outcomes of TM in HEIs; Section G − The relationship between TM practices and intangible outcomes; and Section H − The relationship between intangible outcomes of TM and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills in HEIs.

The questionnaires were captured on Google Form (https://forms.gle/yiZWjCHjjXZwSmDj7) and were placed amongst the institutions notices. The institutions assisted in the data-collection process by placing the questionnaires on their websites to enable respondents to complete them. The respondents were informed of the date the link would be available. The data-collection process lasted from May 1, 2020 to November 30, 2020. The average time spent by the respondents to complete the online questionnaire was 30 minutes.

4.13 Data quality control

Azeroual and Abuosba (2019) believe that data quality is of great importance in every research. It provides resilient, useful results, and allows for an in-depth understanding of the research data. Azeroual and Abuosba (2019) describe quality data as data which is error-free, complete, accurate, and reliable. According to Wang and Strong (1996), data quality refers to fitness for use. There are different ways of determining data quality in research. Radhakrishna, Tobin, Brennan and Thomson (2012), in their conceptual model, identify eight (8) components of data quality, namely: validity, reliability, objectivity, integrity, generalisability, completeness, relevance, and utility. However, in this study, reliability, validity, and trustworthiness were used to determine the data quality. Reliability and validity were employed to measure the data quality in the quantitative research, while in the case of the qualitative study, the data quality was determined through trustworthiness.

4.13.1 Reliability and validity

Mohajan (2017) observes that reliability and validity are the most effective tools for evaluating research instruments. Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) assert that reliability and validity are prerequisites for enhancing the integrity and quality of the measurement tool. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) concur that reliability and validity are the two most essential tools that enhance the measurement instrument's accuracy, and evaluate the research work. Forza (2002) claims that it is impossible to describe the effect of measurement errors on theoretical relationships if the reliability and validity of the research instruments cannot be determined.

i. Reliability of the research instrument

According to Mohajan (2017), reliability denotes the trust that can be placed in the data collected through the use of an instrument. Thus, reliability measures the degree to which the research instrument controls for random error. Lameck (2013) posits that reliability measures the consistency of the research instrument when used repeatedly. For Chakrabartty (2013), reliability determines the character, precision, repeatability, and trustworthiness of the research. The reliability of the questionnaire was determined using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Traub and Rowley (1991) suggest that the reliability score ranges from 0 to 1, with perfect reliability equaling 1, and no reliability equaling 0. Downing (2004) argues that reliability scores between 0.70 and

0.80 may be acceptable. Similarly, Sekaran and Bougie (2016) believe that a reliability score of 0.70 should be accepted, whereas a score below 0.70 should be rejected. In this study, the reliability scores from 0.70 and above were considered significant, hence acceptable.

ii. Validity of the research instrument

Lameck (2013) argues that validity occurs when a test assesses what it is designed to measure. Other authors (Pallant 2011; Robson, 2011) agree that validity concerns whether the research instrument evaluates what it was supposed to measure. It establishes whether the findings that emerged from the study comply with the scientific research method's requirements. Oliver (2010) alleges that validity is a compulsory requirement for all research, primarily scientific studies. There are different ways of determining the validity of research instruments in quantitative studies, including content, face, construct, and criterion-related validity. These types of validity are classified as either internal or external validity. The former determines whether research findings can be replicated (Willis, 2007). The latter indicates whether the results of the study can be transferred to other contexts.

This study employed the internal validity, which consists of content and construct validity. Moreover, content validity was applied in this study, which measures the degree to which the research instrument covers the content it is supposed to measure (Yaghmaei, 2003). Content validity instils confidence in the readers concerning the research findings. Content validity was used to validate the research instrument. Factor analysis was computed on all the items to determine their validity. Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical tool that reduces many variables into a smaller set of variables (Morgan, Barrett & Leech, 2011; Thompson, 2004). The types of factor analysis adopted in this study include exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and principal components analysis (PCA).

The EFA is usually applied in social science research (Razak, Ma'amor & Hassan, 2016). For Williams and Brown (2012), EFA aims to provide in-depth relationships among variables in a study. The EFA was used to evaluate the relationship between latent variables developing theoretical constructs. The CFA is a popular statistical tool for validating questionnaires. Joseph, Marko, Torstein and Christian (2012) attest that the CFA is used to verify the factor structure of a set of observed variables. The theoretical constructs in the study included TM practices, intangible outcomes, competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills. The CFA was applied to determine the relationship between these variables. In the CFA, pattern matrix using promax rotation was applied to determine the loadings.

The PCA is an analytical tool outlining a data table in which observations are described by several inter-correlated numerical dependent variables (Abdi & Williams, 2010). For Todhunter (2015), the PCA is a statistical data-reduction tool that assesses relationships among different constructs. The data was captured in the SPSS (version 27), and a PCA was carried out on all the items, using a direct, oblique rotation. The principal goal was to achieve a parsimonious solution by describing the original variation of the data set using a few underlying components. Only items with loadings >0.4 were regarded as highly significant when extracting the factors.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test was further employed to test the sampling adequacy. The KMO and Bartlett's measures the adequacy of the sample size, ranging from 0 to 1, reaching 1 when all the items are perfectly estimated without an error: where: ≥ 0.90 = marvelous; ≥ 0.80 = meritorious; ≥ 0.70 = middling; ≥ 0.60 = mediocre; ≥ 0.50 = poor; < 0.50 = unacceptable. According to the rule of thumb, the KMO score should be 0.60 or higher to be significant.

4.13.2 Trustworthiness

The most widely used criterion for measuring data quality in qualitative research is trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Trustworthiness determines the extent to which results of the study can be trusted (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Neuendorf (2002) and Schreier (2012), there are four criteria for assessing trustworthiness: credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability.

i. Credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985), and Polit and Beck (2012) claim that credibility is also known as internal validity in quantitative research, and concerns truth-value aspects. The credibility of the qualitative data was determined through the following means: prolonged engagement with the participants, peer debriefing, and triangulation. Lincoln and Guba (1985) argue that prolonged engagement is a credibility criterion that helps the researcher to test for misinformation, and to build trust. Using this approach, the researcher spent adequate time obtaining relevant and rich information from the participants, and building trust during the interview sessions. Peer debriefing is a common method of establishing credibility of qualitative data, in which the researcher discusses the investigation with peers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The transcribed qualitative data was discussed with peer de-briefers who knew the subject matter and research methodology. The peer debriefers were encouraged to be empathic when providing feedback on the research. The debriefing sessions were documented to serve as a reference for the investigator and assist with the audit trail. Peer debriefing, as a credibility criterion, was used because it helps in the observations and interpretations of the data. Moreover, peer debriefing was used given that it helps to maintain the integrity of the data. It allows the debriefers to provide a critical perspective of the interpretation of the results, as well as to offer alternative interpretations of the data.

Lincoln and Guba (1985) explain triangulation as a credibility criterion that allows an investigator to view an event from multiple perspectives. There are different categorizations of triangulation, including triangulation by the use of multiple and different data methods, investigators, and theories. The study utilised multiple and different data, and methods of triangulation. Such enabled the researcher to use the qualitative and quantitative methods to compensate for the limitations in the quantitative approach. The questionnaire and interviews were used as the data-collection tools to complement the qualitative results by the quantitative results (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Moreover, theoretical triangulation was conducted, which allowed the use of multiple perspectives and frameworks in exploring the intangible outcomes of TM practices.

ii. Transferability

Transferability is also a form of external validity, which concerns the extent to which the research findings can be transferred to other contexts with different participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The transferability of the research findings was achieved through thick description. Holloway (1997) and Schwandt (2001) argue that, although there is widespread use and acceptance of the concept ‘thick description’, there seems to be some confusion concerning its meaning. According to Ryle (1971), thick description involves assigning intentionality to one’s behaviour. Denzin (1989) points thick description provides adequate detail, context, emotion, and a web of social relationships that join people to one another. The study adequately described the researcher, research methods, context of the research, research processes, research participants, and researcher-participants' relationship to determine transferability.

iii. Confirmability

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), confirmability measures how other researchers could confirm the research findings. Confirmability was measured through triangulation and an audit trail. Concerning the triangulation, data was collected using qualitative and quantitative research instruments. Also, multiple perspectives and frameworks were utilised to explore the intangible outcomes of TM practices. Furthermore, mixed-methods research was conducted to enhance the confirmability of the research findings. In terms of the audit trail, the study described the research steps that were followed during the initial stage of the research by developing and reporting the research findings.

iv. Dependability

Dependability relates more to reliability. Dependability relates to the stability or consistency of the results over time (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Thomas & Magilvy, 2011). The dependability of the research findings was determined through an audit trail and peer review. As already explained, the study vividly described the research steps that were followed during the initial stage of the research, through to the development and reporting of the research findings.

4.14 Pilot study

A pilot study is a mini-research exercise that evaluates the suitability of the research processes, methods, and instruments before the full study (Kim, 2011). The self-constructed research instruments were pre-tested before the study. The pilot study was conducted at the Durban University of Technology and the UKZN between 25 February 2020 and 27 February 2020. The questionnaires were administered to 5 participants who were exempted from the actual research. Cronbach's alpha coefficient and factor analysis were used to test the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Tables 4.4 and 4.5 show the results (reliability and validity) of the pilot study.

Table 4.4 Reliability: Cronbach's alpha coefficient

Variables	**Number of items**	**No. of items deleted**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
Talent-attraction strategies	18	N/A	0.840
Capacity-building strategies	22	2	0.983
Talent-retention strategies	14	N/A	0.898
Intangible TM outcomes	39	N/A	0.967
Scarcity of skills	7	N/A	0.635
Competitive advantage	6	N/A	0.963
All Dimensions	**106**	**2**	**0.987**

Table 4.4 showed that the items measuring each research objective such as talent attraction *(a* = 0.840), capacity building (*a* = 0.983), talent retention (*a* = 0.898) and intangible TM outcomes (*r* = 0.967) had Cronbach's alpha scores exceeding the recommended value (*a* = 0.700). The reliability of the overall items measuring all the constructs and research objectives was further computed. The results (*a* = 0.987) showed that the instrument adopted in the study was reliable. Therefore, the research instrument used to collect the data was reliable, and can be adopted by scholars in similar research. The results of the KMO and Bartlett's Test are shown in the Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Validity: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy	0.915
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-square	8159.083
df	769
sig	0.000

From Table 4.5, the result of the MSA was 0.915 (marvelous). Statistically, the data set complied with the requirements of sampling adequacy and sphericity for exploratory factor analysis to be performed.

In the qualitative study, the self-developed interview grid was discussed with the research supervisor before the data collection. Moreover, the interview grid was given to 2 academics within the UKZN for review and comments. This process occurred from January 2020 to February 2020. The supervisor and the pilot study participants gave their expert opinions regarding some of the required review questions. For instance, questions that began with ‘Can you’ and ‘Please’ were revised and replaced with formal language.

4.15 Measurement scale

The Likert scale is a set of statements that allows the respondents in a research project to indicate the level of their agreement or disagreement with a given statement on a metric scale, using options of either strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, or strongly disagree (Likert, 1932). This study has adopted the five-point Likert scale on the weight-scoring: strongly agree (SA) = 5; agree (A) = 4; neither agree nor disagree (NA/DA) = 3; disagree (D) = 2; and strongly disagree (SD) = 1. One benefit of using this scale is that it easily quantifies the response and is subjected to statistical analysis. Another unique benefit of this scale is that it is easy for the response to be coded when accumulating the data.

4.16 Data analysis

Data analysis represents an important stage in research, and involves the systematic process of using statistical and/or local techniques to describe and illustrate the data. For Marshall and Rossman (1999, p.150), data analysis represents the process of “bringing order, structure and meaning to the mass of collected data”. Data analysis and interpretation represent the use of deductive and inductive logic in the research. Shepard (2002) advocates that accurate and appropriate analysis of research findings is an important component of determining data integrity. However, improper analysis of data distorts the scientific results, misleads readers, and negatively affects the public perception of the entire research. The purpose of the data analysis is to offer the readers more insight into the research findings. Albers (2017) observes that the principal goal of data analysis is to display the patterns, trends, and relationships of the study’s contextual issues.

There are different approaches to data analysis, but since the study adopted the mixed-methods approach, the analysis was achieved in two phases. The quantitative data was first analysed, followed by the analysis of the qualitative data.

4.16.1 Quantitative data analysis

There are different statistical techniques for analysing quantitative data. However, in this study, the quantitative data was analysed using SPSS (version 27.0) and AMOS (version 27.0), respectively. The former performs the comparison and correlational statistical tests in the univariate, bivariate, and multivariate analysis for parametric and non-parametric statistical techniques (Ong & Puteh, 2017). The SPSS is the most common and widely used statistical tool for the quantitative research method. The latter was designed by IBM Corporation to confirm a theory through structural equational modelling (SEM) analysis (Byrne, 2010). The SPSS was used to compute descriptive (frequency, mean, and standard deviation) and inferential statistics (Pearson’s correlation, Post Hoc Scheffe’s Test, multiple regression analysis, sample t-test, analysis of variance – ANOVA). In contrast, AMOS was used for the SEM.

i. Frequency

Frequencies is a descriptive statistic technique used with discrete variables (Larson, 2006). Frequency tables were used to display the number of occurrences and their respective percentages of different data-set sections. The tables were employed to describe the demographic characteristics and the results of the study. The frequency was used to determine where the improvement lies in terms of each construct in the study.

ii. Mean

According to Larson (2006) and Wilson (2010), the mean represents a simple arithmetic average of all values. Mathematically, it is the summation of each observation divided by all the observations. The formula for calculating the mean is stated as follows.

$$\overline{X} = \frac{\Sigma X}{n}$$

where:

$\bar{X}$ = mean;

$\sum$ = summation;

X = each observation;

N = total number of observations.

The SPSS was used to determine the mean scores for the various constructs in the data set such as talent attraction, capacity building, talent retention, intangible outcomes of TM, competitive and advantage. The mean scores helped to determine the inter-item consistency of the various constructs that formed part of the study. Using the scale of 1-5, a mean score value of 3.00 and beyond was considered significant, hence acceptable. However, a mean score below 3.00 was considered insignificant.

iii. Standard deviation

Standard deviation (SD) describes the degree to which the data value for the construct is spread around the mean value (Saunders et al., 2009). The SD is used to measure dispersion, which is the square root of the variance that describes the range of variability in the data set (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The formula for calculating the standard deviation is stated as follows.

$$\frac{\alpha \ = \sqrt{\Sigma \mathrm{f}\ (\mathrm{X} - \bar{\mathrm{X}})2}}{\Sigma f}$$

where:

$\alpha =$ standard deviation;

X = mid-point of each data class;

f = frequency of each class;

√ = square root; and

Σ = summation.

The SD was computed on the independent, meditating, and dependent variables in the study. The mean score of the variable was accompanied by the SD in the description of the study sample. The SD provides the dispersion of individual observations concerning the mean.

iv. Pearson's product-moment correlation

Pearson's correlation is a type of inferential statistic which determines the bivariate relationship between two targeted variables (Pallant, 2015; Padilla & Veprinsky, 2014). Moreover, Allen (2017) confirms that Pearson's correlation coefficient determines the association between two variables and the extent to which the variables coincide with one another. This statistical tool was used to determine the direction (negative or positive) and the strength of a link between the latent variables investigated in the study. The Pearson's correlation was computed to determine the relationship between dependent (competitive advantage), mediating (intangible outcomes), and independent variables (TM practices).

v. Multiple regression

Multiple regression is a commonly used statistical technique for analysing data that has multiple independent variables. Multiple regression is a multivariate inferential statistical technique that determines the relationships between a set of independent variables and the dependent variable (Kumari & Yadav, 2018). Multiple regression enables researchers to determine the strength of the relationship between an outcome and various predictor variables (Petchko, 2018). This parametric statistical tool was employed to predict the influence of the TM practices on the intangibles' outcomes. Moreover, it helped to determine the relationship between competitive advantage and intangible outcomes of TM.

vi. Analysis of variance

ANOVA measures the differences between more than two comparison groups of a continuous targeted variable (Bluman, 2012; Kim, 2015; Pallant, 2015). This statistical technique was employed to determine the influence of the demographic variables such as age, race, educational qualification, the position currently occupied, tenure, employment status, institution, and faculty on the latent variables, including talent attraction, capacity building, talent retention, intangible outcomes (humility, teaching and learning, university-industry collaboration), and competitive advantage.

vii. Post Hoc Scheffe's test

Post Hoc Scheffe's Test determines specific differences between the means of three or more groups when the ANOVA *F* test is significant (Allen, 2017). However, Post Hoc Scheffe's Test is not required if the overall *F* test is non-significant. The Post Hoc Scheffe's Test helped identify those specific differences and calculate the significant omnibus *F* test. It was used to assess where the difference lies in terms of the influence of the demographic variables on the latent variables.

viii. Independent t-test

The independent t-test measures the significant differences between two sets of groups in a continuous variable (Field, 2009; Kim, 2015). The study employed a one-sample t-test to determine the influence of gender (male and female) on the latent variables such as talent attraction, capacity building, talent retention, intangible TM outcomes, and competitive advantage.

ix. Structural equation modelling

SEM is a statistical tool that tests the link between variables that have multiple measurement items (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011; Hair, Sarstedt, Pieper, & Ringle, 2012; Lowry & Gaskin, 2014; Noorazah & Juhana, 2012). Moreover, Hair et al. (2012) state that SEM is used to empirically test theoretical frameworks and conceptual models. AMOS was used to compute the SEM, which helped identify the correlation between all the variables within the conceptual model.

4.16.2 Qualitative data analysis

Watkins (2017) suggests that, although qualitative data is used to advance research and practice, the daunting task is attempting to analyse the data rapidly and rigorously. Nazmy (2016) contends that the use of qualitative techniques has become very common over the last few years among qualitative scholars. However, the use of qualitative techniques is dependent on the concept and the objectives and the type of information required to achieve the research objectives. Creswell (2007) describes qualitative research as an approach whereby the research problem is addressed in its natural setting. Ravindran (2019) points out that qualitative data analysis can take the form of both a deductive and an inductive approach. In the former, an attempt is made to establish causal relationships (Ravindran, 2019). Although this approach to data analysis has its roots in quantitative research, it can be employed in qualitative study as a deductive explanatory process. A deductive approach is applied in qualitative research in circumstances where the interest is on an aspect of the phenomenon, and when the research question is focused. The deductive approach in qualitative research permits the investigator to be at a descriptive level, where the research findings are closer to participants' accounts (Ravindran, 2019). The latter is also an approach which involves asking questions of the in-depth and vast data that were obtained from diverse sources concerning the subject matter (Ravindran, 2019).

Although the deductive and inductive process can be combined in a single study, the study only employed the inductive process to assist in the analysis of the qualitative data. The inductive process was adopted because it allows research questions to be more explorative and overarching in terms of understanding the subject matter under investigation. Moreover, the inductive analysis process was chosen because it encourages researchers to rise above the mere description of participants' experience to interpretive conceptualisation and abstraction.

The analysis and interpretation of qualitative data depend on the theoretical approach adopted by the researcher. Various software packages, such as NUD*IST, NVivo, and QualPro have emerged of recent times to assist in qualitative data analysis. These software packages are more efficient for times when qualitative researchers want to keep and analyse data. Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) advocate for the continuous use of manual techniques of qualitative data analysis. Moreover, Hammersley and Atkinson (1995) argue that these software packages do not offer 'automatic' solutions to representation and inherent challenges in qualitative data analysis.

Despite the opposing views, this study utilised the NVivo (version 12.0) to analyse the qualitative data. This version is the improved and expanded version of the NUD*IST (Adongo, Tabong, Azongo, Phillips, Sheff, Stone & Tapsoba, 2014). The NVivo helped to analyse and organise unstructured texts, audio-recordings, and videos from the interviews. There are two ways of analysing qualitative data, including thematic and content analysis. Thematic analysis was employed to identify, analyse, and report patterns in the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The study adopted the six steps proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006), which are discussed as follows.

i. Data familiarisation

Data familiarisation is the initial stage in thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006). At this stage, the researcher was immersed in data content of the data set, becoming acquainted with it in depth and breadth. Immersion involves 'repeated reading' of the data and reading the data in an active manner. The researcher engaged actively in the repeated reading of the data to search for meaning and patterns. The transcript was read several times before the coding. Moreover, notes were taken at this stage of the process to assist in the coding process. The coding was developed and defined throughout the entire analysis.

ii. Generating codes

The second stage of the thematic analysis (generating the initial codes) begins after the familiarisation of data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This stage of the thematic process involves the production of the initial codes from the data set. Boyatzis (1998) explains that codes determine the characteristics of the data set that seem interesting to the analyst and refer to the most basic segment of the raw data on the phenomenon that can be evaluated in a meaningful way. Data coding involves analysing qualitative text data by taking them apart to determine whether they "yield before putting the data back together in a meaningful way" (Creswell, 2015, p.156). According to Creswell (2012), data coding represents the process of fragmenting and grouping text that emerged from the data to form explanations and comprehensive themes. Sutton and Austin (2015) advocate that, having transcribed and checked the interview data, it is important to start the coding process. This step has to do with generating and searching for codes from the data set. At this stage, codes were generated which focused on specific aspects of the data set. The ideas about how the data should be organised were developed at this stage. Important elements of the text were identified and labelled, indexing them since they relate to the data themes.

Moreover, exciting items were identified, which formed the themes across the data set. The codes which emerged from the data set were given explicit boundaries to ensure that they were not interchangeable. A consistent approach was used to analyse and categorise the data into themes to reflect the phenomenon of interest. A provisional template was created to help structure the data set into main and sub-themes.

iii. Searching for themes

The thematic analysis phase commences after the data has been coded and collated (Braun & Clarke, 2006; DeSantis & Ugarriza, 2000). This phase of the thematic process involves sorting the different codes into potential themes, and collating the relevant coded data extracts within the identified themes. At this stage, themes were generated from the data set and the theory which underpinned the study. In searching for the themes, several predefined codes were first identified to guide the data analysis. The themes relevant to the study were identified to build an understanding of the phenomenon under investigation. Mind-maps were used as the visual representation to help sort the different codes into themes. Some of the codes are classified as main themes, whereas others are categorised as sub-themes. Moreover, a set of codes that do not belong anywhere was created and named miscellaneous themes.

iv. Review of themes

This phase involves reviewing themes that were identified in the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The coded data extracts for all the themes were reviewed to assess their coherent patterns. Moreover, the individual themes were examined to decide whether they are the true reflection of the meanings obtained from the data set as a whole. Also, the study ensured that each theme identified was supported with data. Some of the themes were collapsed into one another, while others were placed in separate themes. Furthermore, the data was reduced to a manageable set of relevant themes that succinctly summarised the text.

v. Definition of themes

This phase involves describing the themes that emerged from the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006). A detailed analysis was conducted to identify the story that each theme tells. Moreover, names were assigned to all the themes to enable readers to make sense of the themes. Also, careful consideration was given to ensure that the themes fit into respective stories according to the data set based on the research questions. Additionally, some of the themes were modified and refined to ensure that they corresponded with the research questions and objectives. External experts, who have adequate knowledge of qualitative data analysis and research, were consulted to help establish whether the themes were sufficiently clear and comprehensive. The data was subjected to peer debriefing to assist in the audit trail, and to guide methodological decisions.

vi. Write-up

This phase involves producing the actual report (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The write-up offers a concise, logical, and interesting account of the data within and across various themes. Thorne (2000) suggests that investigators communicate the analytical processes through which the results were obtained in a manner accessible to critical readers, so that the data can be accepted as credible and believable. At this stage, trustworthiness notes, and audit trail notes were kept, easing the reporting process. Moreover, direct quotes from the participants were included in the write-up, in order to achieve an adequate lay-out of specific findings, and to display the prevalent themes. Additionally, more passages of quotes were used to support the themes which emerged from the data set, providing readers with more insight into the original text.

4.17 Ethical considerations

The research protocol (HSSREC/00000852/2019) was approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee. Ethical considerations addressed in this research include a written consent form, confidentiality/privacy, anonymity, bias, and incentives. Regarding informed consent, written permission was obtained from the selected institutions and the participants. A written informed consent form was attached to the research instruments that contained important information such as research methods, procedures for the investigation, categories of the participants, and benefits derived from the study. The participants were requested to sign the form, indicating their acceptance. Concerning the confidentiality principle, the transcribed data were stored on a CD ROM and kept in a secure place to prevent unauthorised access. Moreover, the participants were assured that the information elicited would be used solely for its intended purposes. They were also assured of the confidentiality clause.

Regarding anonymity, the participants names were replaced by pseudonyms in the research and future publication, guarding their personal information. Every necessary step was taken to ensure that participants' identities were not disclosed to third parties. Also, bias was eliminated by giving every element within the population the same opportunity to be included in the study. Moreover, the research involves no incentives that influence the participants and respondents to participate in the study.

4.18 Chapter summary

The pragmatic approach was used to collect and analyse multiple data on the research phenomenon. Moreover, deductive and inductive approaches were combined to provide an in-depth understanding of the research phenomenon. Descriptive and exploratory studies were conducted to accurately describe and provide more insight into the nature of the research phenomenon. Mixed-methods research was conducted to address the research objectives from multiple perspectives. Stratified and purposive sampling techniques were used to select the respondents and participants. Data quality was determined through reliability, validity, and trustworthiness. Data was collected through questionnaires and interviews. The quantitative data was analysed using SPSS and AMOS, while qualitative data was analysed using NVivo. The next chapter presents the results of the quantitative study.

Chapter Five: Presentation and Analysis of Quantitative Data

5.1 Introduction

The chapter covers the quantitative data presentation and analysis based on the respondents' responses given in the fieldwork. A total of 317 respondents was selected for the quantitative phase of the study. Of the total, only 265 completed the online survey. The data was then coded on an Excel sheet and imported into the statistical tools SPSS (version 27.0), and AMOS (version 27.0). The SPSS was used to compute the descriptive and inferential statistics, respectively. On the other hand, AMOS was employed for the SEM. The hypotheses that guided the data analysis are as follows.

- **H_1**. There exist several talent management practices that influence talent identification and attraction;
- **H_2**. There exist several talent management practices that contribute to capacity building;
- **H_3**. There exist some talent management practices that affect talent retention;
- **H_4**. There is a significant relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage;
- **H_5**. There is a significant relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage;
- **H_6**. There exists a significant relationship between talent management practices and intangible talent management outcomes; and
- **H_7**. Intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage.

5.2 Response rate

Although 317 respondents were selected from the three HEIs to participate in the quantitative study, only 265 completed the online survey. The remaining 52 respondents could not take part in the survey. Table 5.1 shows the active and non-response rates.

Table 5.1 Response rate

Total sample	317	100%
Active response	265	83.6%
Non-response	52	16.4%

Table 5.1 shows that the 265 respondents represented an 83.6% active response rate, whereas the 52 represented a 16.4% non-response rate. The next section of the chapter presents the results on the respondents' demographics.

5.3 Demographic information of the respondents

Table 5.2 describes the demographic profile of the respondents, including gender, age, population group, qualifications, institutions, faculties, positions, tenure, and employment status.

Table 5.2 Demographic information of the respondents

Item	Demographic Information	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	134	50.6
	Female	131	49.4
Age	26-30	6	2.3
	31-35	21	7.9
	36-40	43	16.2
	41-50	80	30.2
	51-60	79	29.8
	61 and above	36	13.6
Population group/race	African	81	30.6
	Indian	47	17.7
	Coloured	34	12.8
	White	103	38.9
Qualifications	Masters	69	26.0
	Doctorate	196	74.0
Institutions	A	72	27.2
	B	106	40.0
	C	87	32.8
Faculties	Business/Commerce	76	28.7
	Education	27	10.2
	Health Sciences	40	15.1
	Engineering & Built Environment	26	9.8
	Humanities	34	12.8
	Law	19	7.2
	Science	25	9.4
	Theology and Religion	2	0.8
	Natural and Agricultural Sciences	16	6.0
Positions	Junior lecturers	1	0.4
	Lecturers	83	31.3
	Senior lecturers	74	27.9
	Associate professors	30	11.3
	Professors	77	29.1
Tenure	< 2	22	8.3
	2-5	48	18.1
	6-10	85	32.1
	11-15	58	21.9
	16-20	25	9.4
	21 and above	27	10.2
Employment status	Full-time	197	74.3
	Fixed-term	51	19.2
	Contract	17	6.4

The results revealed that males (50.6%) constituted more respondents than females (49.4%). Moreover, most of the respondents were between 41 and 50 years (30.2%) and between 51 and 60 years old (29.8%). Also, White (38.9%) and African (30.6%) races constituted more respondents than other population groups. The results showed that most of the respondents held doctorates (74%), followed by master's (26%). The results indicated that 40% of the respondents were from Institution B, closely followed by Institutions C (32.8%) and A (27.2%). Most of the respondents were from the faculty of Business/Commerce (28.7%). The results further indicate that lecturers (31.3%), professors (29.1%), and senior lecturers (27.9%) represented the majority of the respondents. The results suggested that 32.1% and 21.9% of the respondents had worked in their respective institutions between 6 and 10 years, and between 11 and 15 years, respectively. Furthermore, the results indicated that most of the respondents were full-time (74.3%) employees within the three institutions. The results of the validity are presented in the following section.

5.4 Validity of the measuring instrument

The EFA and the KMO were applied to evaluate the validity of the measuring instrument (questionnaire). The EFA, using the principal component extraction method, was computed to reduce the number of factors in the structural model. Moreover, the EFA helped to discover and identify the dimensions of the measurement. Items with loadings >0.40 were regarded as highly significant when extracting the factors, making them more interpretable.

Table 5.3 Exploratory factor analysis for talent management practices, intangible outcomes and competitive advantage

Items	Component										
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**
EER1	0.878										
EER7	0.874										
EER5	0.845										
EER2	0.823										
EER4	0.801										
EE1	0.795										
EER3	0.769										
OT3	0.766										
QWL2	0.639										
EER6	0.621										
CA3		0.932									
CA2		0.908									
CA4		0.874									
SS6		0.861									
CA1		0.831									
CA5		0.793									
CA6		0.715									
SS7		0.636									

CM6			0.939								
CM5			0.937								
CM4			0.934								
CM8			0.932								
CM7			0.922								
CM3			0.919								
CM2			0.866								
TL3				0.780							
TL4				0.756							
TL5				0.713							
TL2				0.661							
TL1				0.558							
UIC4					0.845						
UIC5					0.837						
UIC6					0.805						
IR4					0.557						
TD2						0.895					
TD3						0.880					
TD4						0.790					
H2							0.778				
H1							0.754				
H3							0.723				
H4							0.511				
EB1								0.766			
RSP5								0.736			
RSP3								0.569			
JA5									0.790		
JA3									0.707		
JA1									0.662		
P2										0.936	
CPM4										0.507	
SP4										0.459	
SS5										0.425	
SS2											0.770
SS3											0.692
Eigenvalue	**14.50**	**6.23**	**3.31**	**2.89**	**1.91**	**1.65**	**1.40**	**1.32**	**1.19**	**1.18**	**1.10**
% of Variance	**27.35**	**11.75**	**6.25**	**5.46**	**3.60**	**3.12**	**2.65**	**2.49**	**2.25**	**2.22**	**2.08**

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

From Table 5.3, a closer inspection of the scree plot suggests that 11 factors could be extracted. Therefore, an EFA Promax rotation method was computed, indicating 11 underlying factors for the TM practices, intangible-outcomes, and competitive-advantage questionnaire. The results showed that 11 factors could be distinguished in the measuring instrument. These are labelled as follows: talent retention (Factor 1), competitive advantage (Factor 2), coaching and mentoring (Factor 3), teaching and learning (Factor 4), university-industry collaboration (Factor 5), training and development (Factor 6), humility (Factor 7), employer branding and recruitment and selection practices (Factor 8), job analysis (Factor 9), career planning and management (Factor 10), and scarcity of skills (Factor 11). These 11 factors explained 69.20% of the variance of the measuring instrument. The items in the questionnaire indicated acceptable loadings of >0.40. Having completed the EFA, two factors (coaching and mentoring and scarcity of skills) were excluded from the measurement model since their Cronbach's alpha coefficients were below the recommended value (a = 0.70).

Furthermore, the KMO measure was computed to determine the sampling adequacy and sphericity of the item-correlation matrix. As already explained in the previous chapter, the KMO and Bartlett's test measures the sample size adequacy, ranging from 0 to 1, reaching 1 when all the items were perfectly estimated without an error. The results of the KMO and Bartlett's test are shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 Validity: KMO and Bartlett's test

KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy.	0.906
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Approx. Chi-square	9869.737
df	1378
sig	0.000

From Table 5.4, the result of MSA was 0.906 (marvelous). From the statistical point of view, the requirements of sampling adequacy were met. Thus, the sample was adequate for the factor analysis. The next section of the chapter shows the results of the reliability test.

5.5 Reliability of the measuring instrument

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was computed on all the items to assess the reliability of the measuring instrument (questionnaire). Cronbach's alpha is a standard statistical tool used by researchers to demonstrate that the measuring instrument constructed for particular use in research is fit for the purpose (Hoekstra, Vugteveen, Warrens & Kruyen, 2019; Taber, 2018). The Cronbach's alpha score of 0.70 and above was considered acceptable, good, and excellent. Table 5.5 shows the results of the Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Table 5.5 Reliability of the measuring instrument

Constructs	**No. of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha (*a*)**
Career planning and management	4	0.69
Employer branding, recruitment and selection practices	3	0.72
Job analysis	3	0.70
Training and development	3	0.86
Humility	4	0.70
University-industry collaboration	4	0.81
Teaching and learning	5	0.77
Talent retention (employer-employee relationship, and WLB)	10	0.94
Competitive advantage	8	0.95

The results suggested that the constructs such as employer branding and selection practices (a = 0.72), job analysis (a = 0.70), training and development (a = 0.86), humility (a = 0.70), university-industry collaboration (a = 0.81), teaching and learning (a = 0.77), talent retention (a = 0.94), and competitive advantage (a = 0.95) that measure TM practices, intangible TM outcomes, and competitive advantage, had a high level of inter-item consistency, exceeding the recommended score (a = 0.70). However, career planning and management (a = 0.69) had low inter-item consistency, which is less than the recommended value (a = 0.70). According to the rule of thumb, the results indicated acceptable-to-good reliabilities for all the constructs, except for career planning and management.

5.6 Descriptive statistics

The perceptions of the respondents concerning the dependent, mediating, and independent variables were assessed using descriptive statistics (mean, lower bound, upper bound, minimum, maximum, and standard deviation). The respondents were asked to assess each of the items on the questionnaire on a 1 to 5-point Likert scale. Given the scale of 1 to 5, the mean score of 3.00 and above was considered significant, while the score below 3.00 was regarded as insignificant. The results of the study are shown in Table 5.6.

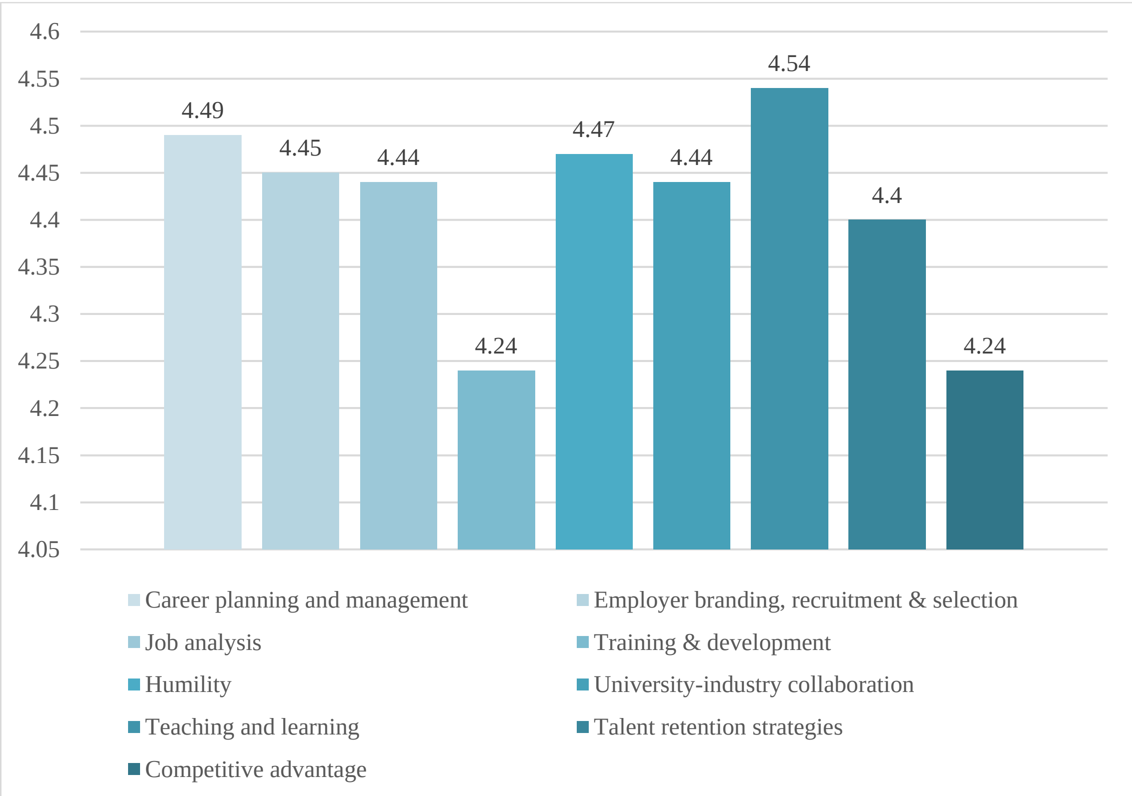
Table 5.6 Descriptive statistics: Key constructs in the study

Variables	**Mean**	**95 % Confidence Interval**		**Std. Dev.**	**Minimum**	**Maximum**
		Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**			
Career planning and management	4.49	4.44	4.55	0.45744	1.00	5.00
Employer branding, recruitment and selection	4.45	4.38	4.51	0.54707	1.00	5.00
Job analysis	4.44	4.38	4.51	0.56275	1.00	5.00
Training and development	4.24	4.15	4.32	0.70717	1.00	5.00
Humility	4.47	4.42	4.52	0.38600	1.00	5.00
University-industry collaboration	4.44	4.42	4.50	0.60656	1.00	5.00
Teaching and learning	4.54	4.50	4.59	0.38647	1.00	5.00
Talent retention	4.40	4.32	4.48	0.65711	1.00	5.00
Competitive advantage	4.24	4.14	4.34	0.79885	1.00	5.00

As reflected in Table 5.6, the items measuring career planning and management (mean = 4.49), employer branding, recruitment and selection (mean = 4.45), job analysis (mean = 4.44), training and development (mean = 4.24), humility (mean = 4. 47), university-industry collaboration (mean

= 4.44), teaching and learning (mean = 4.54), talent retention (mean = 4.40), and competitive advantage (mean = 4.24) had very high mean scores, exceeding 3.00. Statistically, it can be concluded that all the variables that form part of this study are highly significant. The results were significant because most of the respondents responded positively to the majority of the items. The results are graphically depicted in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1 Key constructs in the study



The results reveal that competitive advantage was the weakest, while teaching and learning was the strongest. This suggests room for improvement for all the dimensions, particularly for competitive advantage. To determine the areas in which the improvement lies, frequency analyses were computed.

5.6.1 Job analysis

The study results indicated that 91.2% of the respondents (43% agree + 50.9% strongly agreed) agreed that their duties were set out and defined in the job advertisement. Moreover, 96.2% of the respondents agreed that their expected work experience was clearly stated in the job advertisement.

Furthermore, 92.5% of the respondents agreed that the job title corresponded with the roles and duties they performed.

5.6.2 Employer branding, recruitment, and selection practices

The results reflected that 93.6% of the respondents representing the majority acknowledged that their respective universities had a good reputation as an employer of choice. The results also suggested that 91.4% of the respondents agreed that the job vacancies were advertised in the right media for people to apply. Furthermore, the results revealed that 95.1% of the respondents acknowledged that a panel of experts conducted the interviews.

5.6.3 Training and development

The results indicated that 90.2% of the respondents agreed that there were enough training and development opportunities within the respective universities. Moreover, 88% of the respondents agreed that they were given the opportunity to transfer knowledge after completing training and development programmes. Furthermore, the results showed that 86.8% of the respondents agreed that the training and development opportunities available helped them become more creative and innovative in their jobs.

5.6.4 Career planning and management

The results indicated that 94.8% of the respondents agreed that academics were encouraged to develop their knowledge and skills. Furthermore, 77.7% of the respondents supported the claim that their institutions had included succession planning in their strategic planning processes. The results further revealed that 98.1% of the respondents agreed that research output was considered a promotion criterion. Also, 95.4% of the respondents agreed that there existed several opportunities for training and development for academics in their universities.

5.6.5 Humility

The results showed that 99.2% of the respondents acknowledged that they had an open-minded attitude and a desire to learn from and through others. Also, 98.5% of the respondents indicated that they were willing to recognise and accept others' views and feedback. Moreover, 99.9% of the respondents agreed that they were willing to acknowledge and appreciate others' strengths. Furthermore, 97.4% of the respondents agreed that they understood the diverse roles others play in their universities.

5.6.6 University-industry collaboration

The results suggested that 87.9% of the respondents acknowledged that their universities do consultancy work for the industry. The results also showed that 84.1% of the respondents agreed that their universities undertook joint ventures or joint patents with firms. Additionally, 89.1% of the respondents agreed that their universities and industry engaged in collaborative research and development projects. Furthermore, 96.2% of the respondents acknowledged that their universities had competent and professional academics to increase the research output.

5.6.7 Teaching and learning

The results proclaimed that 98.5% of the respondents agreed that they were easily accessible by their students. Moreover, 99.9% of the respondents agreed that they were satisfied that they informed students of the competencies they were expected to acquire. Furthermore, the results reflected that 95.1% of the respondents acknowledged that they provided students with scientific information to gain a better and more in-depth understanding of the subject matter. Also, 98.1% of the respondents were satisfied that they presented the content of the modules they taught clearly and logically. Also, 99.6% of the respondents agreed that they allowed and encouraged student participation in class.

5.6.8 Talent-retention strategies

The results suggested that 93.2% of the respondents agreed that they found it easy to communicate with their line managers. Also, 90.5% of the respondents agreed that their line managers trusted them even after they had made genuine mistakes. Furthermore, the results showed that 90.7% of the respondents agreed that their line managers were always happy to listen to their recommendations. Moreover, 94.7% of the respondents were in agreement that their line managers were always accessible. The results showed that 93.6% of the respondents considered that their line managers respected them. Also, 91.4% of the respondents supported the assertion that their supervisors provided them with relevant information about their job. The results revealed that 92.4% of the respondents said that they had quality relationships with their line managers. Also, 90.6% of the respondents stated that they were appreciated at work. Furthermore, 90.9% of the respondent acknowledged that their superiors seem concerned about their welfare. The results revealed that 88.6% agreed that their superiors considered their views when decisions were made.

5.6.9 Sustainable competitive advantage

The results indicated that 87.5% of the respondents concurred that their universities recognised academics as valuable resources that were very distinct from other resources. Additionally, the results showed that 83.8% of the respondents agreed that their universities considered academics rare resources that were very difficult for other institutions to acquire. Furthermore, 79.2% of the respondents agreed that academics in their universities were considered resources that other universities could not imitate. The results further reflected that 82.7% of the respondents acknowledged that their universities recognised academics as essential resources that were difficult to replace with another strategic equivalent. The results indicated that 87.1% of the respondents stated that their universities were committed to their well-being. The results showed that 84.2% of the respondents agreed that their skills and knowledge were fully utilised to the best of their advantage. The results suggested that 81.2% of the respondents acknowledged that HRM practices and strategies helped to retain skilled academics in their universities. Lastly, 86.8% of the respondents agreed that their universities considered investing in their training and developmental needs. The next section presents the results using inferential statistics.

5.7 Inferential statistics

To draw meaningful and valid conclusions, inferential statistics such as Spearman's correlations, Post Hoc Scheffe's Test, multiple regression analysis, sample t-test, and ANOVA were applied. The results of the study are presented as follows. To make the analysis very simple, the constructs such as job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection, were grouped together and labelled 'talent identification and attraction strategies'. Moreover, career development and training and development were grouped together and labelled 'capacity building/talent development strategies'. Employer-employer relationship, and WLB were also grouped together and labelled 'talent retention strategies'. Additionally, humility, university-industry collaboration, and teaching and learning, were grouped together and labelled 'intangible outcomes'.

5.7.1 Pearson's correlations

To determine the relationship between the variables in the study, Pearson's correlations were computed. Table 5.7 shows the relationship among the various constructs in the study.

Table 5.7 Correlations between all the variables

Variables	Mean	Std. deviation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.Career planning and management	4.49	0.45744	-							
2. Employer branding and selection practices	4.45	0.54707	.409**	-						
3. Job analysis	4.44	0.56275	.363**	.444**	-					
4. Training and development	4.24	0.70717	.497**	.450**	.404**	-				
5. Humility	4.47	0.38600	.303**	.195**	.214**	.237**	-			
6. University-industry collaboration	4.44	0.60656	.467**	.462**	.436**	.396**	.279**	-		
7. Teaching and learning	4.54	0.38647	.161**	.213**	.207**	.167**	.344**	.311**	-	
8. Talent-retention strategies	4.40	0.65711	.565**	.464**	.433**	.520**	.282**	.462**	.125*	-
9. Competitive advantage	4.24	0.79885	.520**	.414**	.506**	.473**	.240**	.601**	.149*	.587**

*** $p < 0.01$**

As shown in Table 5.7, two variables (scarcity of skills, and coaching/mentoring) were deleted because they are not significantly correlated with other variables (SEM statistical assumption). The results indicated a moderate positive relationship between career planning and employer branding, recruitment and selection (r = 0.409, p <.0.01). Moreover, the correlation coefficient between employer branding, recruitment and selection practices, and job analysis showed a weak positive relationship (r = 0. 444, p < 0.01). Additionally, a moderate positive relationship existed between job analysis and training and development (r = 0.404, p <. 0.01). Furthermore, a weak positive correlation was found between training and development and humility (r = 0. 237, p < 0.01). Also, the results reflected a weak positive relationship between humility and university-industry collaboration (r = 0.279, p < 0.01). A weak positive relationship was observed between university-industry collaboration and teaching and learning (r = 0.311, p <.0.01). Similarly, the correlation coefficient between teaching and learning and talent retention strategies indicated a weak positive relationship (r = 0.125, p < 0.01). Lastly, a strong positive relationship existed between talent retention strategies and competitive advantage (r = 0.587, p < 0.01). The following section describes the relationship between the various variables in accordance with the hypotheses.

i. Hypothesis 1

There exist TM practices that influence the identification and attraction of talent into higher education institutions (Table 5.8).

Table 5.8 Correlations between talent identification and attraction, job analysis, employer branding, recruitment and selection

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2
Talent identification and attraction	4.36	0.49768	-	-
Job analysis	4.44	0.56275	0.864**	-
Employer branding, recruitment and selection practices	4.45	0.54707	0.774**	0.444**

*** p < 0.01**

Table 5.8 shows a strong positive correlation between talent identification and attraction and job analysis (r = 0.864, p < 0.01). Furthermore, a strong positive correlation was seen between talent identification and attraction and employer branding, recruitment and selection practices ($r = 0.774$, $p < 0.01$). The overall results implied that job analysis, employer branding, recruitment, and selection were the major TM practices that influenced talent identification and attraction into South African HEIs. Hypothesis 1 may be accepted.

ii. Hypothesis 2

There exist TM practices that contribute to capacity building in higher education institutions (Table 5.9).

Table 5.9 Correlations between capacity building, training and development and career planning and management

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2
Capacity building	4.38	0.47994	-	-
Training and development	4.24	0.70717	0.880**	-
Career planning and management	4.49	0.45744	0.801**	0.497**

*** p < 0.01**

The results indicated a strong positive relationship between capacity building, and training and development ($r = 0.880$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, there was a strong positive relationship between capacity building, and career planning and management ($r = 0.801$, $p < 0.01$). Statistically, it can be concluded that training and development, and career planning and management, positively impacted capacity building/talent development in South African HEIs. Hypothesis 2 is therefore supported.

iii. Hypothesis 3

There exist some TM practices that affect talent retention in higher education institutions (Table 5.10).

Table 5.10 Correlations between talent retention, employer-employee relationship, promotion and work-life balance

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2
Talent retention	4.40	0.65711	-	-
Employer-employee relationship	4.42	0.64409	0.976**	-
Promotion & work-life balance	4.45	0.58339	0.747**	0.682**

*** p < 0.01**

As reflected in Table 5.10, a strong positive correlation was found between talent retention, and employer-employee relationship (r = 0.976, p < 0.01). Moreover, a strong positive correlation occurred between talent retention, and promotion and WLB (r = 0.747, p < 0.01). The overall results implied that employer-employer relationship, promotion, and WLB were the primary TM practices that influenced talent retention in South African HEIs. Hypothesis 3 is supported.

iv. Hypothesis 4

There is a significant relationship between talent management practices (talent identification and attraction, capacity building and talent retention), and competitive advantage in higher education institutions (Table 5.11).

Table 5.11 Correlations between competitive advantage and talent management practices

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2	3
Competitive advantage	4.24	0.79885	-	-	-
Talent identification and attraction	4.36	0.49768	0.604**	-	-
Capacity building	4.38	0.47994	0.579**	0.655**	-
Talent retention	4.40	0.65711	0.630**	0.613**	0.660 **

*** p < 0.01**

From Table 5.11, the results indicated a strong positive correlation between competitive advantage, and talent identification and attraction (r = 0.604, p < 0.01). Moreover, a moderate positive relationship occurred between competitive advantage, and capacity building (r = 0.579, p < 0.01). Additionally, a strong positive correlation existed between competitive advantage, and talent retention ($r = 0.630$, $p < 0.01$). The overall results suggested that TM practices positively impacted the sustainability of South African HEIs. Hypothesis 4 is therefore supported.

v. Hypothesis 5

There is a significant relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage (Table 5.12).

Table 5.12 Correlations between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2	3
Competitive advantage	4.24	0.79885	-		
Humility	4.47	0.38600	0.240**	-	
Teaching and learning	4.54	0.38647	0.149*	0.344**	-
University-industry collaboration	4.44	0.60656	0.601**	0.279**	0.311**

*** p < 0.01**

The results showed a weak positive correlation between competitive advantage and humility ($r = 0.240$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, the results indicate a weak positive relationship between competitive advantage and teaching and learning ($r = 0.149$, $p < 0.01$). Additionally, the Pearson's correlation coefficient between competitive advantage and university collaboration showed a strong positive relationship ($r = 0.601$, $p < 0.01$). Among the intangible outcomes, the correlation coefficient between competitive advantage and university-industry collaboration was the most significant in South African HEIs. Hypothesis 5 is therefore supported.

vi. Hypothesis 6

There exists a significant relationship between TM practices (talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent retention), and intangible outcomes (humility, teaching and learning, and university-industry collaboration) (Tables 5.13-5.16).

Table 5.13 Correlations between identification and attraction and intangible outcomes

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2	3
Talent identification and attraction	4.36	0.49768	-	-	-
Humility	4.47	0.38600	0.241**	-	-
Teaching and learning	4.54	0.38647	0.247**	0.344**	-
University-industry collaborations	4.44	0.60656	0.528**	0.279**	0.311**

*** p < 0.01**

The results revealed a weak positive correlation between talent identification, and attraction and humility ($r = 0.241$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, the results showed a weak positive correlation between talent identification and attraction, and teaching and learning ($r = 0.247$, $p < 0.01$). Furthermore, a moderate positive correlation existed between talent identification and attraction, and university-industry collaboration ($r = 0.528$, $p < 0.01$). The overall results suggest that, among the intangible outcomes, the university-industry collaboration had the most impact on talent identification and attraction into South African HEIs. The relationship between capacity building strategies and intangible outcomes is shown in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14 Correlations between capacity building and intangible outcomes

Dimension	Mean	Std. Deviation	1	2	3
Capacity building	4.38	0.47994	-	-	-
Humility	4.47	0.38600	0.309**	-	-
Teaching and learning	4.54	0.38647	0.190**	0.344**	-
University-industry collaboration	4.44	0.60656	0.496**	0.279**	0.311**

*** p < 0.01**

The results showed a weak positive correlation between capacity building and humility ($r = 0.309$, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, a weak positive correlation occurred between capacity building and teaching and learning ($r = 0.190$, $p < 0.01$). Additionally, a moderate positive relationship existed between capacity building strategies and university-industry collaboration ($r = 0.496$, $p < 0.01$). Among the intangible outcomes, the correlation between capacity building and university-industry collaboration was the most significant in South African HEIs.

Table 5.15 Correlation between talent retention and intangible outcomes

Dimension	**Mean**	Std. Deviation	1	2	3
Talent retention	4.40	0.65711	-		-
Humility	4.47	0.38600	0.282**	-	-
Teaching and learning	4.54	0.38647	0.125*	0.344**	-
University-industry collaboration	4.44	0.60656	0.462**	0.279**	0.311**

*** p < 0.01**

As reflected in Table 5.15, there was a weak positive correlation between talent retention and humility (r = 0.282, $p < 0.01$). Moreover, there was a weak positive correlation between talent retention strategies, and teaching and learning (r = 0.125, $p < 0.01$). Also, a moderate positive correlation existed between talent retention strategies, and university-industry collaboration (r = 0.462, $p < 0.01$). Evidently, TM practices (talent identification strategies, capacity building strategies, and talent retention strategies) positively correlated with the intangible outcomes (humility, teaching, and university-industry collaboration). Hence, Hypothesis 6 may be accepted.

vii. Hypothesis 7

Intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between TM practices and competitive advantage.

Table 5.16 Correlations between talent management practices, intangible outcomes, and competitive advantage

Dimension	**Mean**	Std. Deviation	1	2
Talent management practices	4.41	0.47888	-	-
Intangible outcomes	4.47	0.33585	0.517**	-
Competitive advantage	4.24	0.79885	0.667**	0.485**

*** p < 0.01**

There was a moderate positive correlation between TM practices and intangible outcomes (r = 0.517, p < 0.01). Moreover, a strong positive relationship existed between TM practices and competitive advantage (r = 0.667, p < 0.01). Furthermore, the results indicated a moderate positive relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage (r = 0.485). Therefore, Hypothesis 7 may be accepted.

5.7.2 Analysis of variance

To assess the impact of the demographic characteristics on the variables (talent attraction, capacity building, talent retention, competitive advantage, humility, teaching and learning, and university-industry collaboration), ANOVA was computed. To make the analysis very simple, certain variables were grouped together and given a unique name. For example, the variables such as job analysis, employer branding, recruitment and selection practices, were grouped together and named ‘talent identification and attraction’. Also, training and development, and career planning and management were grouped together and named ‘capacity building/talent development’. In addition, employer-employee relationship, promotion and WLB were grouped together and termed ‘talent retention’. The results are presented as follows.

i. Analysis of variance: Talent identification and attraction strategies and demographic characteristics

The results concerning the influence of demographic characteristics (age, race, educational qualification, the position currently occupied, tenure, employment status, institution, and faculty) on talent attraction strategies were as follows.

Table 5.17 Analysis of variance: Talent identification and attraction strategies and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	F	P
Age	5.899	**0.000*** **
Race	7.827	**0.000*** **
Educational qualifications	6.718	**0.010** **
Institutions	9.448	**0.000*** **
Facilities	4.160	**0.000*** **
Positions	5.101	**0.001*** **
Tenure	5.711	**0.000*** **
Employment status	7.470	**0.001*** **

*** p < 0.01**

As shown in Table 5.17, there was a significant difference in employees' perceptions, varying by age (F = 5.899, p < 0.01), race (F = 7.827, p < 0.01), qualifications (F = 6.718, p < 0.01), institutions (F = 9.448, p < 0.01), faculties (F = 4.160, p < 0.01), positions (F = 5.101, p < 0.01), tenure (F = 5.711, p < 0.05), and employment status (F = 7.470, p < 0.01) regarding talent identification and attraction strategies. Post Hoc Scheffe's test was applied (Table 5.17) to determine the differences.

Table 5.18 Post Hoc Scheffe's test: Talent attraction strategies and demographic characteristics

Demographic characteristics	Categories of demographic characteristics	N	Mean
Age	26-30	6	4.08
	31-35	21	4.05
	36-40	43	4.32
	41-50	80	4.53
	51-60	79	4.52
	61 and above	36	4.53
Race/population group	African	81	4.29
	Indian	47	4.64
	Coloured	34	4.63
	White	103	4.42
Qualification	Master's	69	4.32
	Doctorate	196	4.49
Institutions	A	72	4.64
	B	106	4.38
	C	87	4.36
Faculties	Business/Commerce	76	4.24
	Education	27	4.34
	Health Sciences	40	4.45
	Engineering & Built Environment	26	4.55
	Humanities	34	4.65
	Law	19	4.47
	Science	25	4.63
	Theology and Religion	2	4.67
	Natural and Agricultural Sciences	16	4.64
Positions	Junior lecturers	1	4.00
	Lecturers	83	4.27
	Senior lecturers	74	4.48
	Associate professors	30	4.61
	Professors	77	4.54
Tenure	< 2 years	22	4.39
	2-5 years	48	4.19
	6-10 years	85	4.56
	11-15 years	58	4.56
	16-20 years	25	4.52
	21 and above years	27	4.28
Employment status	Full-time	197	4.50
	Fixed-term	51	4.37
	Contract	17	4.07

It is evident that the respondents within the ages of 41-50 years (mean = 4.53), 51-60 years (mean = 4.52), and 61 years and above (mean = 4.53) respectively, were more satisfied that job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices influenced the identification and attraction of competent academics into South African HEIs. However, the respondents between the ages of 26-30 years (mean = 4.08), and 31-35 years (mean = 4.05), and 36-40 years (mean = 4.32), respectively, were less convinced that job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices influenced the identification and attraction of highly qualified applicants into HEIs.

Moreover, the results indicated that, while Indians (mean = 4.64) and Coloureds (mean = 4.63) were more convinced that TM practices like job analysis, and employer branding influenced the identification and attraction of talent into South African HEIs, Africans (mean = 4.29) and Whites (mean = 4.42) were less convinced about the influence of these factors on identification and attraction of talent into HEIs.

Furthermore, the results showed that the respondents who obtained doctoral degrees (mean = 4.49) were more convinced that TM practices such as job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices influenced the identification and attraction of talent into the South African universities. On the contrary, those with master's degrees (mean = 4.32) were less convinced that these TM practices influenced the attraction of talent into HEIs.

Additionally, the results revealed that, while the respondents from Institution A (mean = 4.64) were more convinced that job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices influenced the attraction of talent into HEIs, those from Institutions B (mean = 4.38) and C (mean = 4.36) were less convinced about the influence of job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices on talent identification and attraction into HEIs.

The results further indicated that respondents from faculties such as Engineering and Built Environment (mean = 4.55), Humanities (mean = 4.65), Science (mean = 4.63), Theology and Religion (mean = 4.67), and Natural and Agricultural Sciences (mean = 4.64), were convinced that talent identification and attraction strategies had significant influence on highly talented employees in South African HEIs. However, those from Business/Commerce (mean = 4.24), Education (mean = 4.34), Law (mean = 4.47), and Health Sciences (mean = 4.45) were less convinced that job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices influenced the talent identification and attraction into the South African universities.

The results suggested that associate professors (mean = 4.61) and professors (mean = 4.54) were satisfied that job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices had a significant influence on talent identification and attraction. On the contrary, junior lecturers (mean = 4.00), lecturers (mean = 4.27), and senior lecturers (mean = 4.48) were less satisfied with the influence of job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices on talent identification and attraction into South African HEIs.

The results also revealed that the respondents who had worked from 6-10 years (mean = 4.56), 11-15 years (mean = 4.56), and 16-20 years (mean = 4.52), respectively, were more convinced that job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices influenced the identification and attraction of highly qualified and competent academics into South African HEIs. Nevertheless, those who had worked for less than 2 years (mean = 4.39), 2-5 years (mean = 4.19), and 21 years and above (mean = 4.28), were less convinced that job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices influenced the identification and attraction of talent into HEIs.

Lastly, the results showed that, while full-time employees (mean = 4.50) were more convinced that job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices significantly influenced talent identification and attraction, fixed-term (mean = 4.37) and contract employees (mean = 4.07) were less convinced about the influence of these factors on talent identification and attraction. The next section shows the results of the effect of the demographic characteristics on capacity-building strategies.

ii. Analysis of variance: Capacity-building strategies and demographic characteristics

The results pertaining to the influence of demographic characteristics on capacity-building strategies (training and development, and career planning and management) are shown below.

Table 5.19 Analysis of variance: Capacity-building strategies and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	F	P
Age	1.275	0.275
Race	6.327	**0.000*** **
Educational qualifications	0.189	0.664
Institutions	4.689	**0.010** **
Facilities	1.442	0.179
Positions	3.283	**0.012** **
Tenure	3.208	**0.008** **
Employment status	3.601	**0.029** **

*** p < 0.01; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.10**

There existed a significant difference in the perception of the respondents, varying by race (F = 6.327, p < 0.01), institutions (F = 4.689, p < 0.05), positions (F = 3.283, p < 0.05), tenure (F = 3.208, p < 0.01), and employment status (F = 3.601, p < 0.10) concerning capacity-building strategies. However, no significant difference existed in the perception of the respondents varying by age, qualification, and faculties regarding capacity-building strategies. Post Hoc Scheffe's test was then conducted to determine exactly where the differences lay.

Table 5.20 Post Hoc Scheffe's test: Capacity-building strategies and race, institutions, positions, and employment status, respectively

Demographic Characteristics	Categories of Demographic Characteristics	N	Mean
Race	African	81	4.21
	Indian	47	4.50
	Coloured	34	4.55
	White	103	4.42
Institutions	A	72	4.53
	B	106	4.31
	C	87	4.36
Positions	Junior lecturers	1	3.71
	Lecturers	83	4.24
	Senior lecturers	74	4.43
	Associate professors	30	4.47
	Professors	77	4.47
Tenure	< 2 years	22	4.47
	2-5 years	48	4.19
	6-10 years	85	4.45
	11-15 years	58	4.38
	16-20 years	25	4.59
	21 and above years	27	4.29
Employment status	Full-time	197	4.39
	Fixed-term	51	4.45
	Contract	17	4.09

While Indians (mean = 4.50) and Coloureds (mean = 4.50) were more satisfied that training and development, and career planning and management influenced capacity building in South African HEIs, Africans (mean = 4.21) and Whites (mean = 4.22) were less satisfied about the influence of these factors on capacity building. Moreover, the results revealed that the respondents from

Institution A (mean = 4.53) believed that training and development and career planning and management had a significant impact on capacity building in South African HEIs. However, those from Institutions B (mean = 4.31) and C (mean = 4.36) showed less satisfaction about the impact of training and development, and career planning and management on capacity building in South African HEIs.

The results suggested that, while senior lecturers (mean = 4.43), associate professors (mean = 4.47), and professors (mean = 4.47) were more concerned about the influence of training and development and career planning and management on capacity building, junior lecturers (mean = 3.71) and lecturers (mean = 4.24) were less satisfied about the influence of these factors on capacity building. Furthermore, the respondents who had less than 2 years (mean = 4.47), 6-10 years (mean = 4.45) and 16-20 years (mean = 4.59) of work experience believed that training and development, and career planning and management strongly influenced capacity building in HEIs. However, those who had 2-15 years (mean = 4.19), 11- 15 years (mean = 4.38), and more than 21 years (mean = 4.29) of work experience were less convinced that training and development, and career planning and management influenced capacity building. Lastly, while fixed-term employees (mean = 4.45) were more satisfied that training and development and career planning and management had a significant influence on capacity building, full-time (mean = 4.39) and contract employees (mean = 4.09) were less satisfied that training and development and career planning management had a significant effect on capacity building.

iii. Analysis of variance: Talent-retention strategies

The influence of the demographic characteristics (age, race, educational qualification, the position currently occupied, tenure, employment status, institution, and faculty) on talent-retention strategies (employer-employee relationship) is illustrated in Table 5.21.

Table 5.21 Analysis of variance: Talent-retention strategies and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	**F**	**P**
Age	2.449	**0.034***
Race	5.363	**0.001*****
Educational qualifications	0.0559	0.455
Institutions	3.848	**0.023***
Facilities	1.415	0.190
Positions	1.841	0.121
Tenure	2.763	**0.019***
Employment status	4.424	**0.013***

*** p < 0.01; ** p < 0.05; *** p < 0.10**

There existed a significant difference in the respondents' perceptions varying by age ($F = 2.449$, $p < 0.05$), race ($F = 5.363$, $p < 0.01$), institutions ($F = 3.848$, $p < 0.05$), tenure ($F = 2.763$, $p < 0.05$), and employment status ($F = 4.424$, $p < 0.05$) concerning talent-retention strategies. However, there was no significant difference in the perception of the respondents varying by age, qualifications, faculties, and positions regarding talent-retention strategies. The Post Hoc Scheffe's test was applied to assess where the differences lay (Table 5.22).

Table 5.22 Post Hoc Scheffe's test: Talent-retention strategies and age, race, institutions, tenure, and employment status, respectively

Demographic Characteristics	Categories of Demographic Characteristics	N	Mean
Race/population group	African	81	4.23
	Indian	47	4.65
	Coloured	34	4.58
	White	103	4.35
Institutions	A	72	4.58
	B	106	4.35
	C	87	4.31
Tenure	< 2 years	22	4.59
	2-5 years	48	4.13
	6-10 years	85	4.50
	11-15 years	58	4.40
	16-20 years	25	4.49
	21 and above years	27	4.28
Employment status	Full-time	197	4.37
	Fixed-term	51	4.59
	Contract	17	4.08

While Indians (mean = 4.65) and Coloureds (mean = 4.58) were more convinced that TM practices such as employer-employee relationship, promotion, and WLB influenced talent retention in South African HIEs, others, such as Africans (mean = 4.23) and Whites (mean = 4.35) were less convinced about the influence of these factors on talent retention. Moreover, while the respondents from Institution A (mean = 4.58) were more satisfied that employer-employee relationship, promotion, and WLB influenced talent retention, those from Institutions B (mean = 4.35) and C (mean = 4.31) were less convinced about the influence of these factors on talent retention. The respondents who had less than 2 years (mean = 4.59), and 6-10 years (mean = 4.50) of work experience were more satisfied that employer-employee relationship, promotion, and WLB had a significant effect on talent retention. However, those who had 2-5 years (mean = 4.13), 11-15 years (mean = 4.40), 16-20 years (mean = 4.49), and more than 21 years (mean = 4.28) of work experience were less convinced about the influence of these factors on talent retention. Additionally, while fixed-term employees (mean = 4.59) were more convinced that employer-employee relationship, promotion and WLB had a significant impact on retaining talent, full-time (mean = 4.37) and contract employees (mean = 4.08) were less convinced that these factors influenced the retention of talent in HEIs.

iv. Analysis of variance: Humility and demographic characteristics

The impact of the demographic characteristics on humility is presented below.

Table 5.23 Analysis of variance: Humility and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	F	P
Age	0.334	0.892
Race	0.330	0.804
Educational qualifications	0.535	0.465
Institutions	1.262	0.285
Facilities	0.324	0.956
Positions	1.575	0.181
Tenure	0.479	0.792
Employment status	1.069	0.345

As depicted in Table 5.23, the results suggested that no significant difference existed in the perception of the respondents varying by age, race, qualification, institutions, faculties, position, tenure, and humility.

v. Analysis of variance: Teaching and learning and demographic characteristics

The influence of the demographic characteristics on teaching and learning are shown below.

Table 5.24 Analysis of variance: Teaching and learning and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	F	P
Age	3.261	**0.007***
Race	0.167	0.918
Educational qualifications	0.581	0.447
Institutions	1.214	0.299
Facilities	0.397	0.921
Positions	1.782	0.133
Tenure	0.405	0.845
Employment status	1.381	0.253

*** p < 0.01**

There was a significant difference in the perception of the respondents varying by age regarding teaching and learning (F = 3.261, p < 0.01). Unfortunately, there was no significant difference in the perception of the respondents varying by race, qualification, institutions, faculties, positions, tenure, and employment status concerning teaching and learning. The Post Hoc Scheffe's test was further utilised to assess where the difference lay in terms of age, and teaching and learning (Table 5.25).

Table 5.25 Post Hoc Scheffe's test: Teaching and learning and age

Demographic Characteristics	Categories of Demographic Characteristics	N	Mean
Age	26-30	6	4.27
	31-35	21	4.39
	36-40	43	4.65
	41-50	80	4.61
	51-60	79	4.46
	61 and above	36	4.59

The results showed that the respondents between the ages of 36-40 years (mean = 4.65), 41-50 years (mean = 4.61), and those over 61 years (mean = 4.59), respectively, were more satisfied that TM practices influenced teaching and learning in South African HEIs. However, those between the ages of 25-30 years (mean = 4.27), 31-35 years (mean = 4.39), and 51-60 years (mean = 4.59), respectively, were not satisfied that TM practices influenced teaching and learning in HEIs.

vi. Analysis of variance: University-industry and demographic characteristics

Table 5.26 shows the impact of the demographic characteristics on university-industry collaboration.

Table 5.26 Analysis of variance: University-industry collaboration and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	**F**	**P**
Age	5.878	**0.000*** **
Race	4.417	**0.005*** **
Educational qualifications	2.057	0.153
Institutions	6.801	**0.001*** **
Facilities	4.006	**0.000*** **
Positions	0.735	0.569
Tenure	0.962	0.441
Employment status	2.667	**0.071***

*** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.10$**

Evidence from Table 5.26 suggested that a significant difference existed in the perception of the respondents varying by age ($F = 5.878$, $p < 0.01$), race ($F = 4.417$, $p < 0.01$), institutions ($F = 6.801$, $p < 0.01$), faculties ($F = 4.006$, $p < 0.01$), and employment status ($F = 2.667$, $p < 0.10$) regarding university-industry collaboration. However, there was no significant difference in the perception of the respondents varying by qualification, positions, and tenure regarding university-industry collaboration. The Post Hoc Scheffe’s test then was applied to determine where the differences lay.

Table 5.27 Post Hoc Scheffe's test: University-industry collaboration and age, race, institutions, faculties, and employment status, respectively

Demographic Characteristics	Categories of Demographic Characteristics	N	Mean
Age	26-30	6	4.00
	31-35	21	3.75
	36-40	43	4.42
	41-50	80	4.46
	51-60	79	4.42
	61 and above	36	4.42
Race/population group	African	81	4.28
	Indian	47	4.54
	Coloured	34	4.60
	White	103	4.28
Institutions	A	72	4.55
	B	106	4.38
	C	87	4.20
Faculties	Business/Commerce	76	4.08
	Education	27	4.36
	Health Sciences	40	4.41
	Engineering & Built Environment	26	4.53
	Humanities	34	4.55
	Law	19	4.34
	Science	25	4.66
	Theology and Religion	2	4.63
	Natural and Agricultural Sciences	16	4.53
Employment status	Full-time	197	4.35
	Fixed-term	51	4.51
	Contract	17	4.13

The results revealed that the respondents between the ages of 36-40 years (mean = 4.42), 41-50 years (mean = 4.46), 51-60 years (mean = 4.42), and over 61 years (mean = 4.42), respectively, were more convinced that TM practices influenced university-industry collaboration. However, the respondents between the ages of 25-30 (mean = 4.00) and 30-35 (mean = 3.37) were less convinced about the impact of TM practices on university-industry collaboration. Moreover, when it comes to race, the results indicate that while Indians (mean = 4.54) and Coloureds (mean = 4.60) were more satisfied that TM practices had a significant effect on university-industry collaboration, Africans (mean = 4.28) and Whites (mean = 4.28) were less convinced about the impact of TM practices on university-industry collaboration.

In terms of institutions, the respondents from Institution A (mean = 4.55) were more satisfied that TM practices significantly impacted university-industry collaboration. However, those from Institutions B (mean = 4.38) and C (mean = 4.20) had less satisfaction about the effect of TM practices on university-industry collaboration. Concerning faculties, the results showed that the respondents from Built Environment (mean = 4.53), Humanities (mean = 4.55), Science (mean = 4.66), Theology and Religion (mean = 4.63), and Natural and Agricultural Sciences (mean = 4.53), had more conviction that TM practices significantly influenced university-industry collaboration. By contrast, the respondents from Business/Commerce (mean = 4.08), Education (mean = 4.36), Health Sciences (mean = 4.41) and Law (mean = 4.34), had less confidence in the impact of TM practice on university-industry collaboration. Furthermore, while fixed-term employees (mean = 4.51) were more satisfied with the impact of TM practices on university-industry collaboration, full-time (mean = 4.35) and contract employees (mean = 4.13) were less convinced that TM practices influenced university-industry collaboration.

vii. Analysis of variance: Competitive advantage and demographic characteristics

Table 5.28 contains the results of the influence of the demographic characteristics on competitive advantage in South African HEIs.

Table 5.28 Analysis of variance: Competitive advantage and demographic characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	F	P
Age	2.383	**0.039***
Race	6.418	**0.000*****
Educational qualifications	0.126	0.723
Institutions	16.990	**0.000*****
Facilities	4.744	**0.000*****
Positions	1.037	0.389
Tenure	3.975	**0.002*****
Employment status	5.607	**0.004*****

*** p < 0.01; ** p < 0.05**

Information from Table 5.28 suggests a significant difference in the perceptions of the respondents varying by age (F = 2.383, p < 0.05) race (F = 6.418, p < 0.01), institutions (F = 16.990, p < 0.01), faculties (F = 4.744, p < 0.01), tenure (F = 3.975, p < 0.01), and employment status (F = 5.607, p < 0.01). Moreover, there was no significant difference in the perception of the respondents varying by qualification and positions concerning competitive advantage. The Post Hoc Scheffe's test was applied to determine where the differences lay.

Table 5.29 Post Hoc Scheffe's test: Competitive advantage and age, race, institutions, faculties, and employment status, respectively

Demographic Characteristics	Categories of Demographic Characteristics	N	Mean
Age	26-30	6	3.67
	31-35	21	3.77
	36-40	43	4.30
	41-50	80	4.32
	51-60	79	4.30
	61 and above	36	4.25
Race/population group	African	81	4.17
	Indian	47	4.51
	Coloured	34	4.60
	White	103	4.06
Institutions	A	72	4.58
	B	106	4.30
	C	87	3.89
Faculties	Business/Commerce	76	3.94
	Education	27	3.83
	Health Sciences	40	4.24
	Engineering & Built Environment	26	4.45
	Humanities	34	4.52
	Law	19	4.36
	Science	25	4.61
	Theology and Religion	2	4.63
	Natural and Agricultural Sciences	16	4.65
Tenure	< 2 years	22	4.37
	2-5 years	48	3.99
	6-10 years	85	4.41
	11-15 years	58	4.30
	16-20 years	25	4.38
	21 and above years	27	3.79
Employment status	Full-time	197	4.22
	Fixed-term	51	4.49
	Contract	17	3.78

The results indicated that the respondents between the ages of 36-40 years (mean = 4.30), 41-50 years (mean = 4.32), 51-60 years (mean = 4.30), and over 61 years (mean = 4.25), respectively, were more satisfied with the impact of TM practices on sustainable competitive advantage in South African HEIs. However, the respondents between the ages of 25-30 (mean = 4.67) years and 31-35 years (mean = 3.77) were less satisfied with the effect of TM practices on sustainable competitive advantage. Concerning race, while Indians (mean = 4.51) and Coloureds (mean = 4.60) were more convinced that TM practices had a significant influence on sustainable competitive advantage, Africans (mean = 4.17) and Whites (mean = 4.06) were less convinced about the influence of TM practices on competitive advantage. The results revealed that the respondents from Institution A (mean = 4.58) had more conviction that TM practices significantly impacted competitive advantage. However, those from Institutions B (mean = 4.30) and C (mean = 3.89) were less sure about the effects of TM practices on sustainable competitive advantage. When it comes to faculties, the respondents from Engineering and Built Environment (mean = 4.45), Humanities (mean = 4.54), Science (mean = 4.61), Theology and Religion (mean = 4.63), and Natural and Agricultural Sciences (mean = 4.65) were more satisfied with the impact of TM practices on sustainable competitive advantage in HEIs. However, those from Business/Commerce (mean = 3.94), Education (mean = 3.83), Health Sciences (mean = 4.24), and Law (mean = 4.36) had less conviction that TM practices influenced sustainable competitive advantage. Concerning tenure, the respondents who had less than 2 years (mean = 4.37), 6-10 years (mean = 4.41), 11-15 years (mean = 4.30) and 16-20 years of work experience (mean = 4.38) were more satisfied that TM practices significantly influenced sustainable competitive advantage.

On the contrary, the respondents who had 2-5 years (mean = 3.99), and more than 21 years of work experience (mean = 3.79) were less satisfied with the impact of TM practices on sustainability of South African HEIs. The results suggested that, while full-time (mean = 4.22) and fixed-term employees (mean = 4.49) had more satisfaction that TM practices significantly impacted sustainable competitive advantage, contract employees (mean = 3.78) had less satisfaction with TM practices influencing sustainable competitive advantage. The next section describes the results of the impact of gender on all the dimensions.

5.7.3 Sample t-test: All dimensions and gender

A sample t-test was employed to assess the influence of gender on the dimensions such as talent-identification and -attraction strategies, capacity-building strategies, talent-retention strategies, humility, teaching and learning, university-industry collaboration, and competitive advantage (Table 5.30).

Table 5.30 T-test: All dimensions and gender

All Dimensions	T	Df	P
Talent-attraction strategies	84.376	265	**0.000*** **
Capacity-building strategies	79.410	265	**0.000*** **
Talent-retention strategies	59.344	265	**0.000*** **
Humility	104.198	265	**0.000*** **
Teaching and learning	107.132	265	**0.000*** **
University-industry collaboration	63.575	265	**0.000*** **
Competitive advantage	45.658	265	**0.000*** **

*** p < 0.01**

Table 5.30 reveals a significant difference in male and female perceptions concerning talent-attraction strategies, capacity-building strategies, talent-retention strategies, humility, teaching and learning, university-industry collaboration, and competitive advantage, respectively, at the 1% level of significance. The differences were further assessed by computing Post Hoc Scheffe's test (Table 5.31).

Table 5.31 Post Hoc Scheffe's test: All dimensions and gender

Dimensions	Categories of Gender	N	Mean
Talent-attraction strategies	Male	134	4.49
	Female	131	4.40
Capacity-building strategies	Male	134	4.35
	Female	131	4.42
Talent-retention strategies	Male	134	4.42
	Female	131	4.37
Humility	Male	134	4.43
	Female	131	4.51
Teaching and learning	Male	134	4.52
	Female	131	4.57
University-industry collaboration	Male	134	4.40
	Female	131	4.34
Competitive advantage	Male	134	4.29
	Female	131	4.19

The information from Table 5.31 shows that, while males (mean = 4.49) were more convinced that TM practices influenced talent identification and attraction into South African universities, females (mean = 4.40) were less convinced that TM practices influenced talent identification and attraction. Moreover, the results showed that while females (mean = 4.42) were more satisfied that TM practices influenced capacity building in HEIs, males (mean = 4.35) were less satisfied with their influence on capacity building. Moreover, the results suggested that, while males (mean = 4.42) were more convinced that TM practices significantly influenced talent retention, females (mean = 4.37) were not convinced that TM practices influenced talent retention. Furthermore, while females (mean = 4.51) were more satisfied that TM practices significantly affected intangible outcomes, such as humility in HEIs, males (mean = 4.43) were less convinced that TM practices significantly impacted humility. The results showed that, while females (mean = 4.57) had more conviction that TM practices had a significant influence on teaching and learning in

HEIs, males (mean = 4.52) had less satisfaction with TM impact on teaching and learning. Moreover, while males (mean = 4.40) had more satisfaction that TM practices significantly impacted university-industry collaboration, females (mean = 4.34) had less satisfaction concerning the impact of TM practices on university-industry collaboration. Lastly, the results indicated that males (mean = 4.29) were more satisfied that TM practices influenced sustainable competitive advantage in HEIs. By contrast, females (mean = 4.19) had less satisfaction in terms of the impact of TM practices on sustainable competitive advantage.

5.7.4 Linear regressions

To assess the relationship between the dependent (competitive advantage), mediating (humility, university-industry collaboration, and teaching and learning), and independent variables (talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent-retention strategies), linear regressions were computed. The results are presented in the following section.

i. Intangible outcomes as predictors of an integrated talent management

Table 5.32 displays the results of the multiple regressions concerning intangible outcomes as predictors of an integrated TM.

Table 5.32 Intangible outcomes as predictors of an integrated talent management

Mediating variables	R	R-squared value	Adjusted R-squared value	F	Beta	T	P
	0.592[a]	0.351	0.343	47.043	-	-	0.000[b]
Humility					0.192	3.543	0.000
University-industry collaboration					0.521	9.747	0.000
Teaching and learning					-0.031	-0.566	0.572
Constant					-	4.980	0.000

Table 5.32 indicates an R-squared value of 0.592 and an adjusted R-squared value of 0.351. The results suggest that the model (intangible outcomes) predicts 35.1% of the variations in integrated TM. This is significant at 1% level ($p < 0.01$), meaning that a significant positive relationship exists between the intangible outcomes and integrated TM. The results supported the hypotheses that there is a significant relationship between intangible outcomes and TM. The standardised Beta and the corresponding P values for humility and university-industry collaboration ($\beta = 0.192$, $p < 0.001$) and ($\beta = 0.521$, $p < 0.001$), respectively, indicated that university-industry made the most considerable contribution to the model, followed by humility. However, teaching and learning made an insignificant contribution to the model. Statistically, it can be concluded that humility and university-industry collaboration jointly serve as predictors of an integrated TM in South African HEIs. Hence, Hypothesis 6 may be partially accepted.

ii. Talent management practices as predictors of sustainable competitive advantage

Table 5.33 shows the multiple regressions concerning TM practices as predictors of sustainable competitive advantage in South African HEIs.

Table 5.33 Talent management practices as predictors of sustainable competitive advantage

Independent variables	R	R-squared value	Adjusted R-squared value	F	Beta	T	P
	0.697[a]	0.485	0.479	82.048	-	-	0.000[b]
Talent attraction					0.284	4.574	0.000
Capacity building					0.163	2.496	0.013
Talent retention					0.349	4.599	0.000
Constant					-	-2.398	0.017

Table 5.33 indicates an R-squared value of 0.485 and an adjusted R-squared value of 0.479. The results suggest that the model (TM practices) predicts 48.5% of the variations in sustainable

competitive advantage. This is significant at 1% level ($p < 0.01$), meaning that a significant positive relationship exists between the dimensions of TM practices and sustainable competitive advantage. The results supported the hypothesis that there is a significant relationship between TM practices and sustainable competitive advantage. The standardised Beta and the corresponding P values for talent retention and talent-identification and -attraction strategies ($\beta = 0.349$, $p < 0.001$) and ($\beta = 0.284$, $p < 0.001$), respectively, indicated that talent-retention strategies made the most considerable contribution to the model, followed by talent-identification and -attraction strategies. Given these results, it can be argued that talent-retention strategies and talent-identification and -attraction strategies jointly serve as predictors of competitive advantage in South African HEIs. Hence, Hypothesis 4 was supported in this study, having established that there was a significant relationship between TM practices and competitive advantage in South African HEIs. The relationship between competitive advantage and the intangible outcomes of TM practices is presented in the following section.

iii. Intangible outcomes as predictors of sustainable competitive advantage

Table 5.34 depicts the result of multiple regressions on the significance level of the various intangible outcomes of TM practices as predictors of sustainable competitive advantage in South African HEIs.

Table 5.34 Intangible outcomes as predictors of sustainable competitive advantage

Mediating variables	R	R-squared value	Adjusted R-squared value	F	Beta	T	P
	0.609a	0.371	0.364	-	-	51.377	0.000^b
Humility					0.098	1.840	0.067
Teaching and learning					-.069	-1.288	0.199
University-industry collaboration					0.596	11.317	0.000
Constant						0.986	0.325

As shown in Table 5.34, the regression model suggests an R-squared value of 0.371 and an adjusted R-squared value of 0.364. This implies that the model (intangible outcomes of TM practices) predicts 37.1% of the variations in sustainable competitive advantage. This is significant ($p < 0.01$), meaning that there was a significant relationship between the mediating variables of the various dimensions of intangible outcomes of TM practices, and the dependent variable (competitive advantage). The results supported the hypothesis that states that there is a significant relationship between intangible outcomes of TM practices and sustainable competitive advantage. The standardised Beta and the corresponding P values for university-industry collaboration and humility ($\beta = 0.596$, $p < 0.001$) and ($\beta = 0.098$, $p < 0.010$), respectively, indicated that university-industry collaboration made the most considerable contribution to the model, followed by humility. However, teaching and learning made an insignificant contribution to the model. Given these results, it can be concluded that university-industry collaboration and humility jointly served as predictors of competitive advantage in South African HEIs. Hence, Hypothesis 5 may be partially accepted.

5.7.5 Structural equation model

A SEM was employed to test the hypotheses via the IBM SPSS AMOS. This requires both the EFA and the CFA to determine the validity and reliability of the measurement (questionnaire) scales employed in the study before they are used in the structural model. The IBM SPSS AMOS is considered a unique statistical tool to compute the SEM in a survey that requires multivariate data analysis (Duff & Duffy, 2002). The use of content validity through the EFA is vital in evaluating the SEM. As presented in the previous section, the EFA was first computed to purify the data. This helped to ensure the validation of the measuring instrument. After the EFA was applied, some factors were excluded from the model because their Cronbach's alpha coefficients were below the recommended value (a = 0.700) (George & Mallery, 2003).

Moreover, various criteria were applied to determine the model fit. The chi-square value (CMIN) was one of the criteria used to assess the general fitness of the model, and the degree of inconsistency between the sample and covariance matrices (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The normed-chi-square value (CMIN/DF), degree of freedom (DF), and the corresponding P value were the main criteria reported in this study. The CMIN test was computed in terms of the large chi-square values and degree of freedoms, which is the chi-square value divided by the degree of freedom. Statistically, the CMIN/DF should be less than 5.

Additionally, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI) was applied to test the model fit. GFI is the most common statistical tool used in SEM for assessing the degree of variance that emanates from the estimated population covariance (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1982). According to Bollen, Stine, Bollen and Stine (1993), GFI is greater than 1 when the model is misspecified. Research (Gerbing & Anderson, 1992; Marsh, Balla, and McDonald, 1988) suggests that the GFI has a positive correlation with sample size and has a moderate downward bias when it is small. Moreover, La Du and Tanaka (1989) postulate that the GFI is influenced by the estimation method, particularly in a misspecified model. To enhance the GFI's efficiency, the Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) and Parsimony unbiased Goodness-of-Fit Index (PGFI) were introduced, respectively. According to Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen (2008), the value of the GFI and the AGFI ranges between 0 and 1. It is recommended that the acceptable good fit begins from 0.8, ending at a cut-off point of 0.95. Based on the rule of thumb, the model showed an acceptably good fit. Thus, the model should be accepted.

Furthermore, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) is also an essential criterion for assessing a model's fitness. RMSEA determines how well the proposed model suits the population covariance (Tennant & Pallant, 2012). The RMSEA helps to supplement the evaluation of model fit. The RMSEA provides a distinction between well-fitting and badly fitting models (Tennant & Pallant, 2012). The RMSEA value ranges from 0.05 to 0.1, when the values below 0.08 indicate a fit approximation (Katou & Budhwar, 2010). The acceptable model fit is indicated by an RMSEA value of 0.06 or less (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The results of the RMSEA suggested that the model was fit for the study. Thus, the results showed an acceptable model fit.

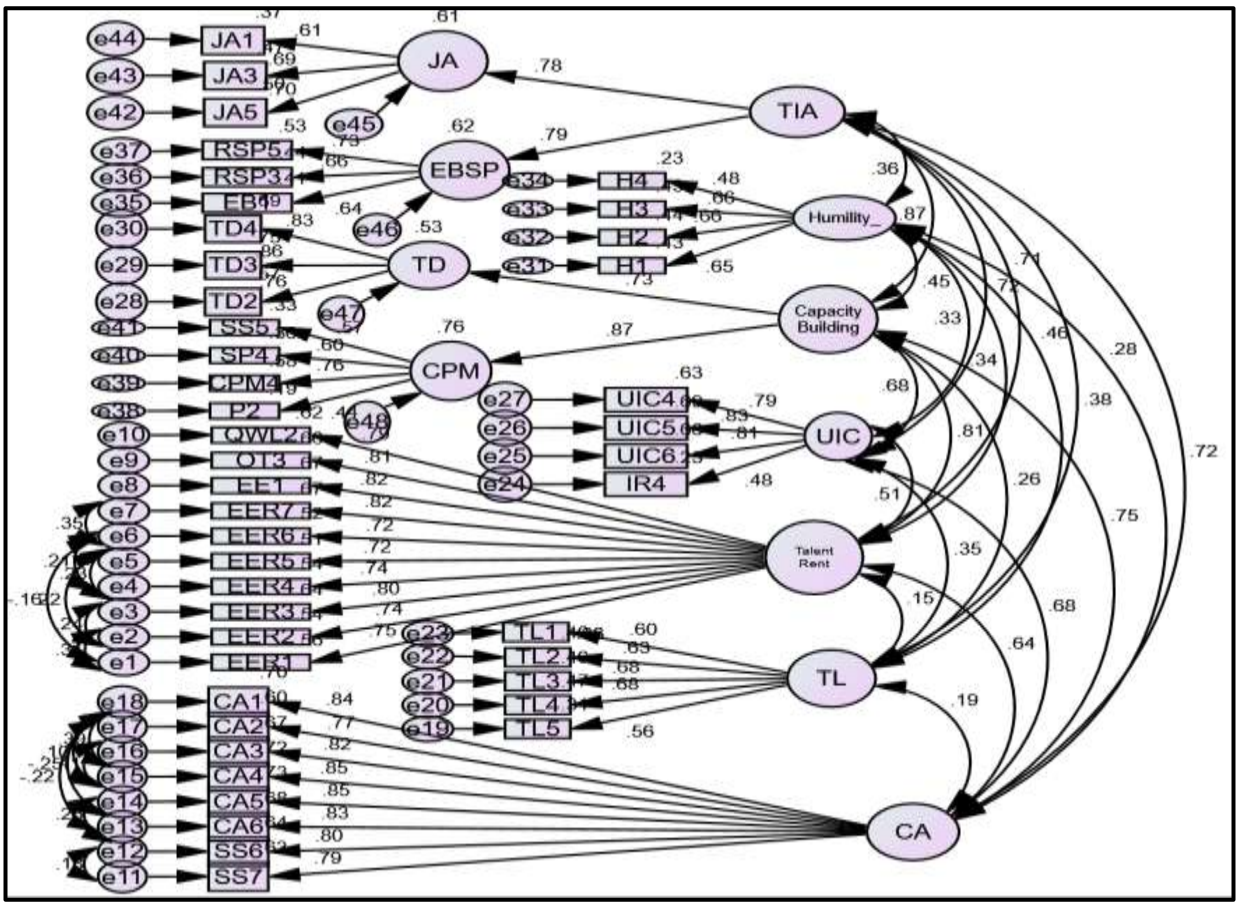
Furthermore, a normed fit index (NFI) was employed to test fitness of models. Hooper et al. (2008) postulate that the NFI assesses fitness of the model by making a comparison between the CIMN values of the model and a null model. Bentler and Bonnett (1980) explain that the NFI values range from 0 to 1. The higher values show better fit. According to the rule of thumb, the NFI value of 0.95 is an indication of "good fit relative to the baseline model" (Kaplan, 2000, p.107). Moreover, it is suggested that the NFI value greater than 0.90 is indicative of acceptable fit (Marsh & Grayson, 1995; Schumacker & Lomax, 1996).

Also, the comparative fit index (CFI), as a revised version of the NFI, was applied to determine the appropriateness of the sample size. Moreover, Bentler (1990) argues that the CFI is the revised version of the relative noncentrality index (RNI) which was developed by McDonald and Marsh (1990) to reduce the underestimation of fit mostly experienced when working with small samples. The CFI ranges from 0 to 1, with the higher values suggesting better fit. According to the rule of thumb, the CFI value of 0.97 is an indication of good fit. Moreover, CFI values greater than 0.95 could be interpreted as an acceptable fit. It has also been suggested that a CFI value greater than 0.90 could be interpreted as an acceptable fit (Bentler, 1990; Bollen, 1990).

The Tucker–Lewis Index (TLI) is another criterion used to assess the fitness of the model. Marsh, Baila and McDonald (1988) suggest that the TL is independent of the sample size. The TLI values range from 0 to 1. The values closer to 1 indicate good fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) argue that the TLI values equal to or greater than 0.95 as the cut-off are indicative of a good model fit, and are widely accepted. The TLI values less than 0.90 are indicative of a need to re-specify the model.

Lastly, the incremental fit index (IFI) was another criterion used to assess the model fit (Bollen, 1989). The IFI values range from 0 to 1. It is recommended that the IFI be equal to or greater than 0.90 to accept the model. This indicates that 90% of the covariation in the data can be reproduced by the proposed model (Raykov, 2000, 2005). Figure 5.2 shows the CFA of the measurement model.

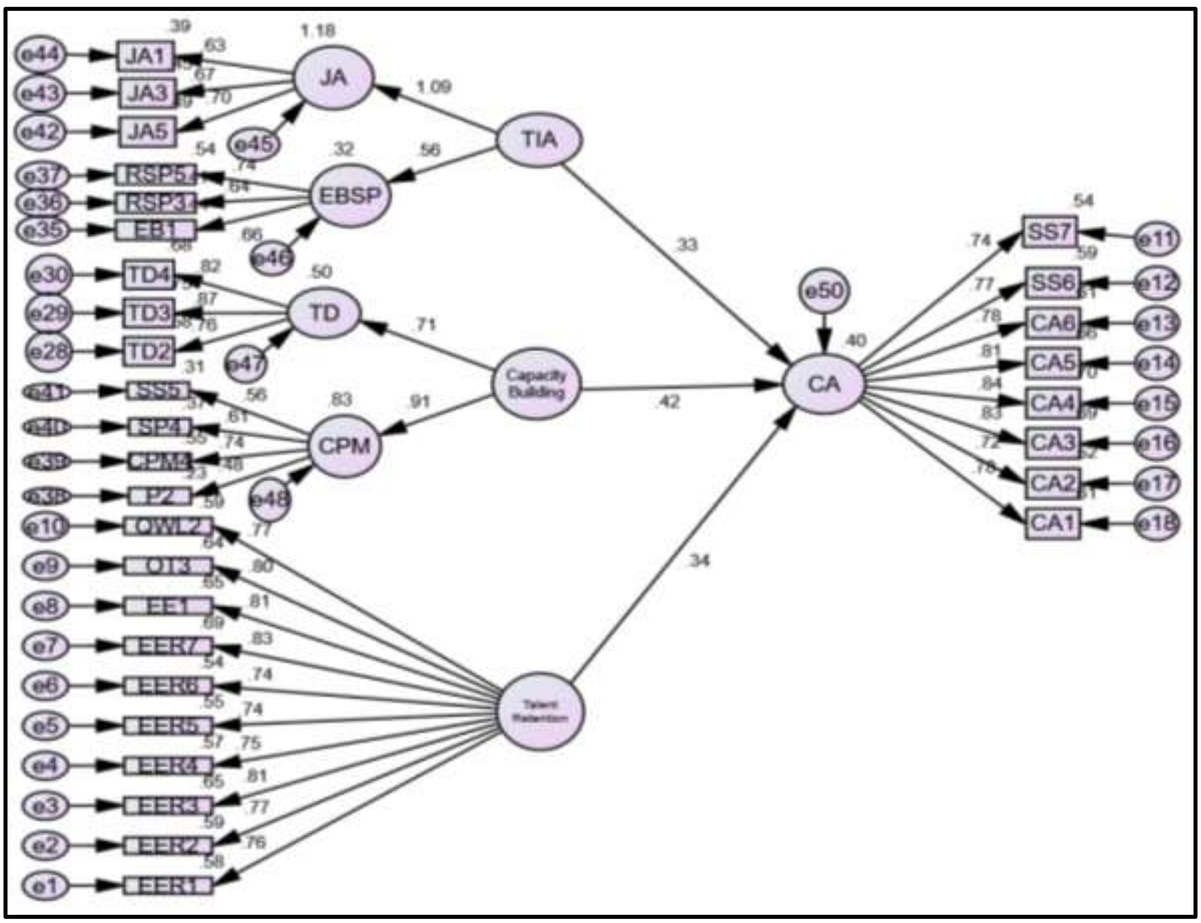
Figure 5.2 Confirmatory factor analysis (measurement model)



Chi-square =1355.315 DF = 86 p-value = 0.000 CMIN/DF =1.570 GFI = 0.819 AGFI = 0.792 NFI = 0.819 IFI = 0.926 TLI = 0.918 CFI = 0.925 RMSEA = 0.046 PCLOSE = 0.890

As already discussed, the CFA is the most effective statistical technique for evaluating the relationship among unobserved variables (Jackson, Gillaspy Jr, & Purc-Stephenson, 2009). Figure 5.2 shows all the unobserved variables that were investigated in this study. The CFA helped to determine goodness-of-fit indexes. These indexes indicated a perfect fit of the constructs with the data set. From the statistical point of view, all the factor loadings in the proposed model showed a high level of significance at $p < 0.001$, which suggested the validity of the measuring instrument or model. This implies that the CFA or psychometric properties of the constructs employed in the study were led by the theoretical propositions, modification indices, and factor loadings (Maiyaki, 2012). Moreover, this is an indication that the indicators of goodness of fit were excellent. Figure 5.3 analyses the relationship between the TM practices and competitive advantage (Hypotheses 1 to 4).

Figure 5.3 Relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage



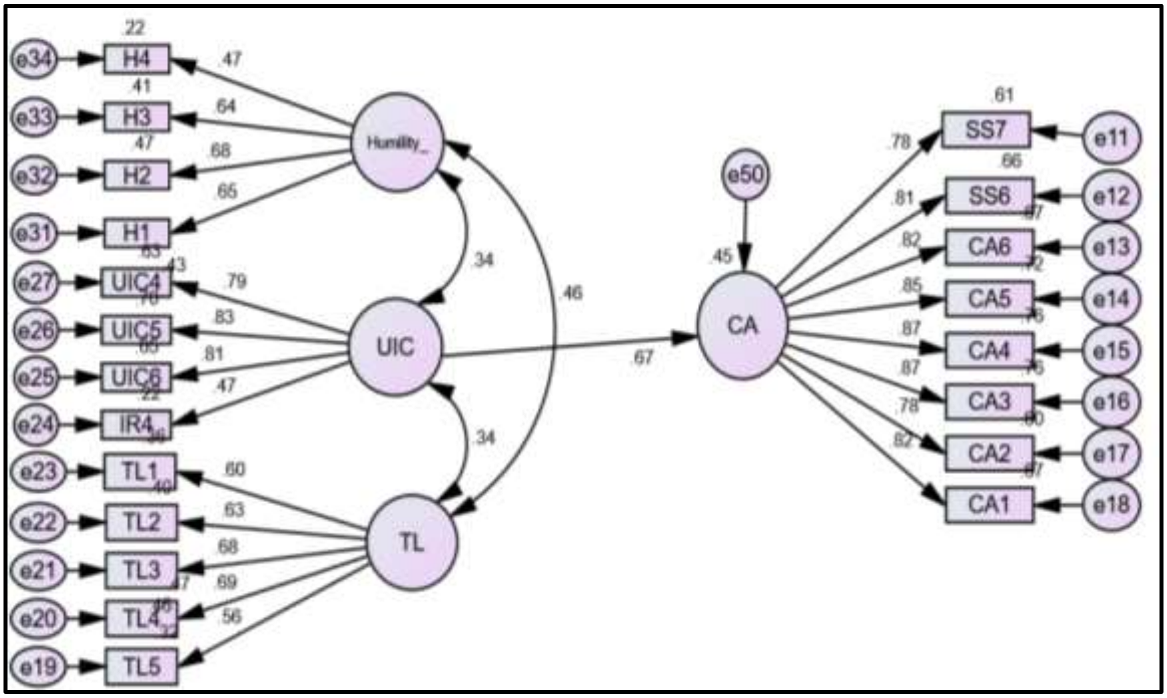
Chi-square = 1188.465 DF = 427 p-value = 0.000 CMIN/DF = 2.783 GFI = 0.779 AGFI = 0.744 NFI = 0.792 IFI = 0.856 TLI = 0.842 CFI = 0.855 RMSEA = 0.082 PCLOSE = 0.000

The boxes in the model represented either independent (exogenous) or dependent (endogenous) manifest variables, whereas the circles indicate their respective latent variables. The arrows which linked latent variables in the structural model are the operational interplays between corresponding variables. As shown in the model, the loadings from one latent variable to another are called Standardised Regression Weights (SRW). The underlying goodness-of-fit indexes show an excellent fit of the model with the data. All the paths in the structural model were significant ($p < 0.001$).

From the structural model, it can be observed that the interplay between the TM practices such as job analysis, employer branding, recruitment and selection practices, and talent identification and attraction were highly significant ($p < 0.001$), suggesting the validity of the measuring instrument or model. Moreover, the relationship between the TM practices such as training and development, and career planning, and management and capacity building was highly significant ($p < 0.001$), which suggested measuring instrument validity. Furthermore, the results indicate that the relationship between employer-employee relationship and talent retention was significant ($p < 0.001$).

The path from talent identification and attraction to competitive advantage (TIA = 0.329, $p < 0.000$) was highly significant. The path from capacity building to competitive advantage (capacity building = 0.417, $p < 0.000$) showed a high level of significance. Additionally, the path from talent retention to competitive advantage (TR = 0.342, $p < 0.000$) was highly significant. The overall results reveal that the interplay between TM practices (talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent retention) and sustainable competitive advantage was highly significant ($p < 0.001$). However, capacity-building strategies had the strongest significant relationship with a sustainable competitive advantage among the TM practices. From the analysis, Hypotheses 1 to 4 may be accepted. Figure 5.4 analyses the correlation between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage (Hypothesis 5).

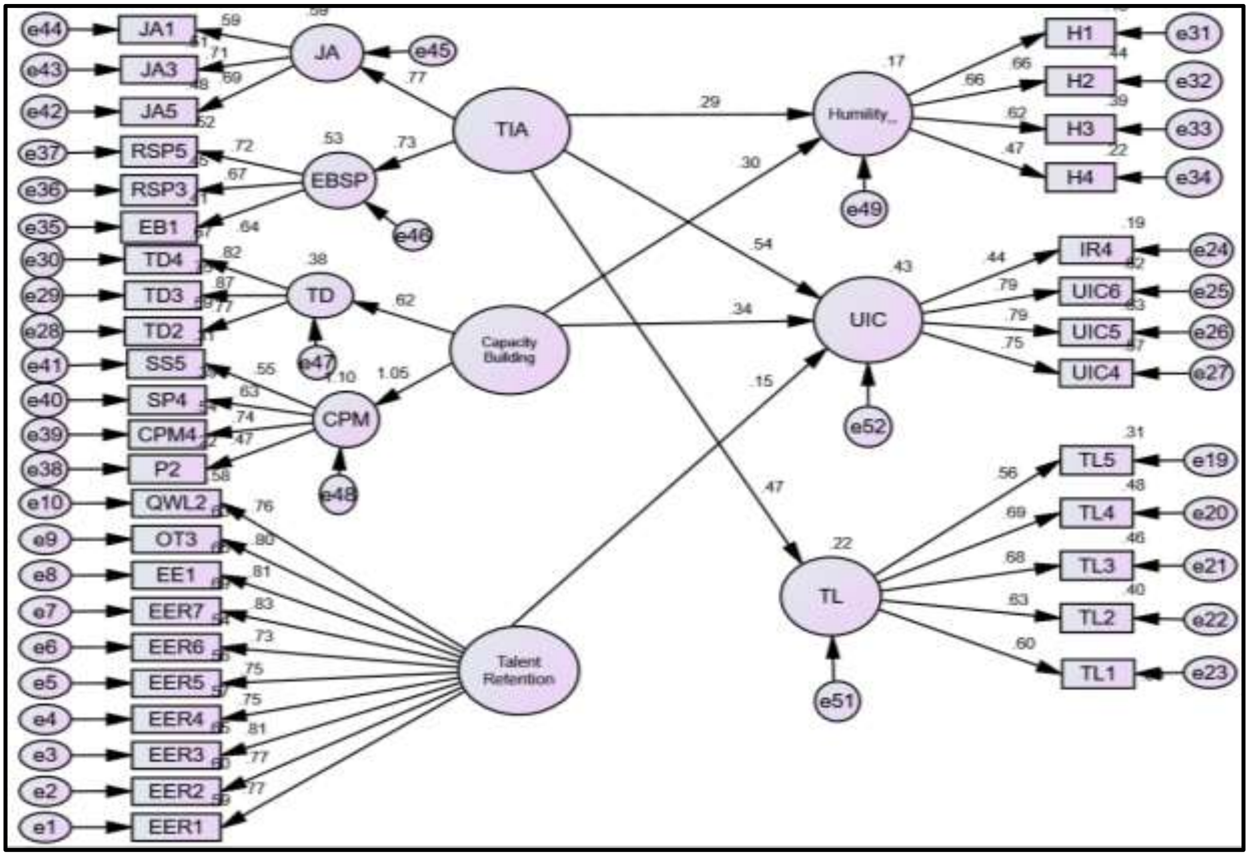
Figure 5.4 Relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage



Chi-square = 396.027 DF = 185 p-value = 0.000 CMIN/DF = 2.141 GFI = 0.874 AGFI = 0.843 NFI = 0.874 IFI = 0.928 TLI = 0.918 CFI = 0.928 RMSEA = 0.066 PCLOSE = 0.002

The model fit indexes indicated that the model relating to the relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive was a good fit with the data. Figure 5.4 shows that only the path from university-industry collaboration to competitive advantage (UIC = 0.672, $p < 0.000$) was highly significant among the intangible outcomes. This implies that the intangible outcomes such as humility and teaching and learning had no direct effect on sustainable competitive advantage, unlike that of university-industry collaboration. This hypothesis could be partially accepted. Figure 5.5 analyses the relationship between TM practices and specific intangible outcomes (Hypothesis 6).

Figure 5.5 Relationship between talent management practices and intangible outcomes



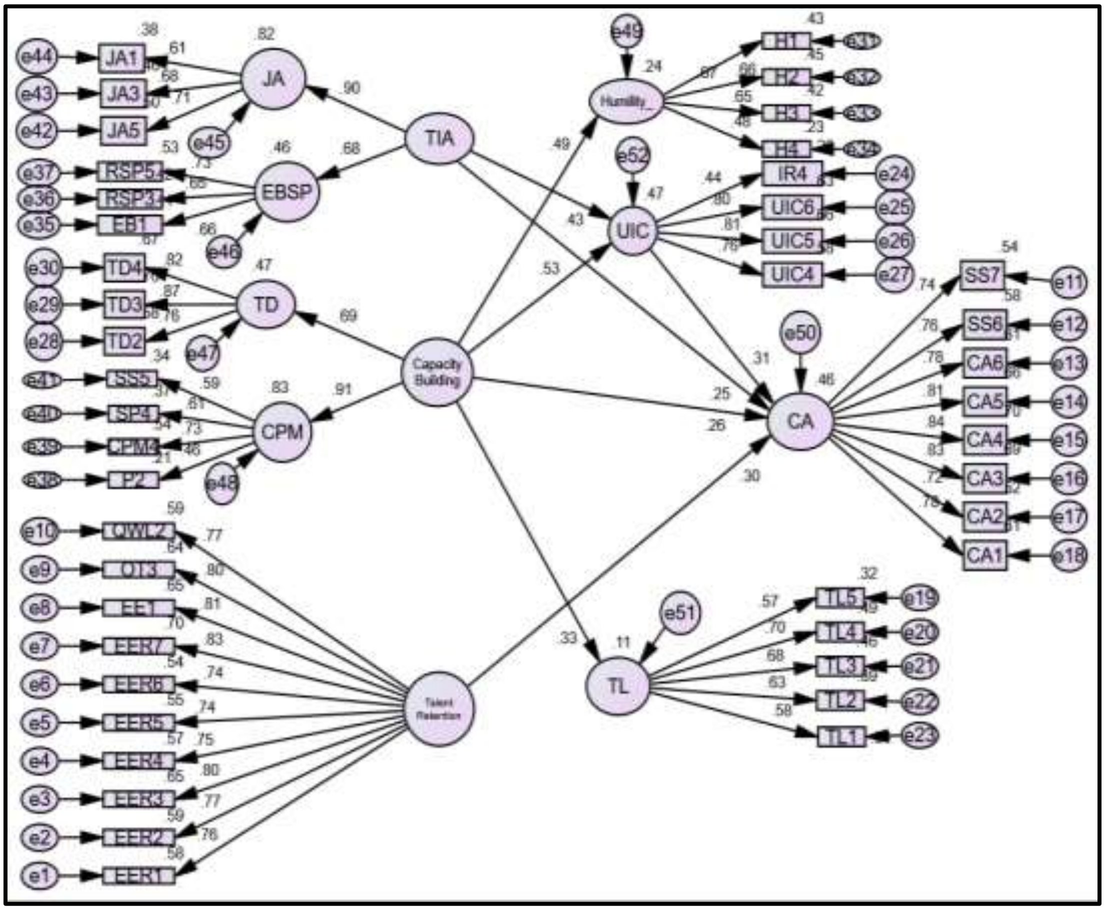
Chi-square = 1253.057 DF = 584 p-value = 0.000 CMIN/DF = 2.146 GFI = 0.798 AGFI = 0.770 NFI = 0.749 IFI = 0.848 TLI = 0.835 CFI = 0.847 RMSEA = 0.066 PCLOSE = 0.000

The model fit indexes suggest that the model on the correlation between TM practices and intangible outcomes fit the data. The results indicated that the path from talent identification and attraction to humility (TIA = 0.294, $p < 0.003$) was highly significant. Moreover, the path from talent identification to university-industry collaboration (TIA = 0.540, $p < 0.003$) indicated a strong significance level. Additionally, the results indicated that the path from talent identification and attraction to teaching and learning (TIA = 0.473, $p < 0.000$) suggested a strong significance level. The results implied that talent identification and attraction strategies such as job analysis, employer branding, and recruitment and selection practices positively correlate with the intangible outcomes: humility, university-industry collaboration, and teaching and learning in South African HEIs.

The results further suggested that the path from capacity building to humility (capacity building = 0.296, $p < 0.005$) was highly significant. The path from capacity building to university-industry-collaboration (capacity building = 0.342, $p < 0.002$) indicates a high level of significance. However, the path from capacity building to teaching and learning showed no level of significance. Based on the results, it can be argued that capacity-building strategies such as training and development, and career planning and management, had a strong positive relationship with intangible outcomes of TM practices such as humility, and university-industry collaboration. However, capacity-building strategies did not affect teaching and learning in South African HEIs.

The results from Figure 5.5 also suggested that the paths from talent retention to humility and teaching and learning, respectively, were not significant. However, the path from talent retention to university-industry collaboration (talent retention = 0.15, $p < 0.020$) indicates a moderate significance. It can be argued that talent-retention strategies (employer-employer relationship) had no relationship with intangible outcomes such as humility, and teaching and learning, unlike university-industry collaboration. Hypothesis 6 may be partially accepted. Figure 5.6 depicts the mediating influence of specific TM outcomes on the interplay between talent management practices and competitive advantage (Hypothesis 7).

Figure 5.6 Intangible outcomes mediate the interplay between talent management practices and competitive advantage



CMIN= 1891.372 DF = 590 p-value = 0.000 CMIN/DF = 2.125 GFI = 0.763 AGFI = 0.736 NFI = 0.747 IFI = 0.848 TLI = 0.837 CFI = 0.847 RMSEA = 0.065 PCLOSE = 0.000

The model fit indexes suggested that the above structural model on the mediating influence of specific TM outcomes on the interplay between TM practices and competitive advantage fit the data. From Figure 5.6, the results indicated that, among the intangible outcomes, only university-industry collaboration positively mediated the relationship between TM practices such as talent identification and attraction, and capacity building and competitive advantage. Hence, Hypothesis 7 may be partially accepted.

5.8 Chapter summary

The study results indicated that TM practices such as job analysis, employment branding, and recruitment and selection practices positively influenced the talent identification and attraction into South African HEIs. Moreover, the results suggested that TM practices such as training and development, and career planning and management, significantly influenced capacity building in South African HEIs. Additionally, the results showed that the employer-employer relationship, promotion, and WLB were the most significant TM practices that affected talent retention in HEIs. Furthermore, the results demonstrated that TM practices had a strong positive relationship with a sustainable competitive advantage in South African HEIs. Additionally, the findings from the SEM showed that, among the intangible outcomes, only university-industry collaboration mediated the relationship between TM practices and competitive advantage in South African HEIs. The results further suggested that talent identification and attraction strategies significantly impacted intangible outcomes such as humility, university-industry collaboration, and teaching and learning. Capacity-building strategies also had a direct positive relationship with humility and university-industry collaboration.

Chapter Six: Presentation and Analysis of Qualitative Data

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and analyses the qualitative data collected from 12 participants (professional services, lecturers, and cluster leaders) through Zoom interviews. The data collected from the participants were transcribed and analysed using NVivo (version 12.0). The NVivo helped to analyse and organise unstructured texts, audio-recordings, and videos from the interviews. Moreover, thematic analysis was employed to identify, analyse, and report the patterns/themes that emerged from the data set. The qualitative data analysis followed the six steps proposed by Braun and Clarke (2006), including data familiarisation, generating codes, searching for codes, reviewing themes, defining themes, and writing-up.

The presentation and analysis of the data are achieved per the stated research objectives, namely:

i. To establish the rationale behind the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
ii. To determine the best approach to the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
iii. To investigate the critical success factors that influence the implementation of talent management programmes in higher education institutions;
iv. To identify talent management practices that influence talent identification and attraction into higher education institutions;
v. To ascertain talent management practices that contribute to capacity building in higher education institution;
vi. To examine talent management practices that influence talent retention in higher education institutions;
vii. To establish the type of relationship that exists between talent management practices and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills;
viii. To examine the relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage;
ix. To explore the relationship between talent management practices, and intangible outcomes of talent management; and

x. To evaluate the extent to which intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage in higher education institutions.

6.2 Demographic characteristics of the participants

The first part of the interview grid was designed to elicit information on the participants' demographic characteristics, such as gender, age, race, educational qualifications, current position, tenure, employment status, institution, and faculty. The results are described in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Demographic characteristics of the participants

Item	Category of Demographic Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	4	33.3
	Female	8	66.7
Age	31-35	1	8.3
	36-40	2	16.7
	41-50	4	33.3
	51-60	5	41.7
Population group	African	6	50.0
	Indian	3	25.0
	Coloured	2	16.7
	White	1	8.3
Qualifications	Postgraduate Diploma	4	33.3
	Masters	2	16.7
	Doctorate	6	50.0
Institutions	A	3	25.0
	B	6	50.0
	C	3	25.0
Faculties	Business/Commerce	10	83.3
	Law	2	16.7
Positions	Professional Services	6	50.0
	Academics	3	25.0
	Cluster Leaders	3	25.0
Tenure	2-5 years	3	25.0
	6-10 years	6	50.0
	11-15 years	2	16.7
	16-20 years	1	8.3
Employment status	Part-time	3	25.0
	Full-time	9	75.0

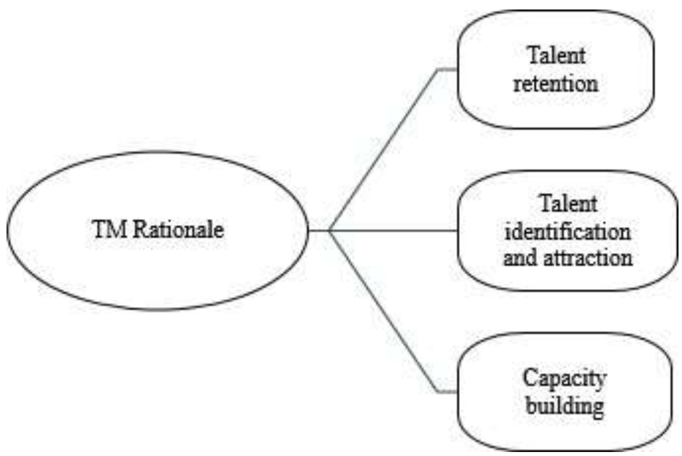
Table 6.1 shows that most of the participants were female (66.7%), while the minority was male (33.3%). Moreover, the findings indicated that most of the participants were between 51-60 years (41.7%), closely followed by those 41-50 years (33.3%). The findings suggested that half of the participants were Africans (50%), compared with Indians (25%), Coloureds (16.7%), and Whites (8.3%). Furthermore, the findings show that most participants were PhD (50%) holders, followed

by those with a postgraduate diploma (33.3%). Additionally, most of the participants were from Institution B (50%). Besides this, it was found that the majority of the participants were from the faculty of Business/Commerce (83.3%). Most of the participants were professional services staff (50%), followed by lecturers (25%) and cluster leaders, respectively. The findings showed that most participants had worked between 6-10 years (50%) in their respective institutions. Finally, the findings indicated that 75% of the participants were employed as full-time employees.

6.3 Objective 1: Rationale for talent management practices

Objective One investigated the rationale for TM practices in HEIs in South Africa. Three main themes were identified from the interviews as the rationale for implementing TM practices into HEIs, including talent attraction, talent development, and talent retention. The findings are depicted in Figure 6.1

Figure 6.1 Rationale for talent management practices



i. Theme 1: Talent identification and attraction

The findings suggested that one of the rationales for TM practices is to attract talent. The majority of the participants (N = 9) expressed that TM practices emerged in HEIs to attract talent into various levels and offices. The following are some of the quotes from the interviews which support the findings.

Participant 1:

> *This University, just like any other serious institution, aspires to identify and attract people, especially faculty who have the competencies. Against this backdrop, TM was introduced, which is supported by the results from the performance appraisal exercise, leadership assessment, and personality profile* (Institution B).

Participant 9:

> *Because of the competition for talent, many institutions have designed strategies to achieve sustainability. The TM programme was introduced in this institution to attract and recruit qualified staff* (Institution A).

ii. Theme 2: Capacity-building/talent development

The findings showed that one reason for TM practices in HEIs is to nurture and develop employees' talent. From the interviews, most participants (*N* = 10) indicated that TM practices were introduced in HEIs to build the capacities and capabilities of both academic and support staff. Moreover, the participants said that employees' training and development needs could be identified through TM practices. Some of the views expressed by the participants are stated as follows.

Participant 1:

> *The University instituted a TM programme to ensure that all staff members receive equal opportunity to develop and upgrade their skills and knowledge. The University believes that it is essential to build internal capacity and ensure adequate and competent staff at all levels. The University is duty-bound to accelerate the development of talent pools to address the shortage of critical skills* (Institution B).

Participant 7:

> *These days, talent development has become the central focus for many organisations. The purpose of talent development is to improve workers' competencies, skills, and knowledge concerning their job. TM plays an essential role in identifying workers' development needs and making plans to help them realise their goals* (Institution A).

iii. Theme 3: Talent retention

The findings revealed that TM plays a critical role in retaining talent in South African HEIs. The participants (*N* = 7) believed that TM practices in HEIs aimed to reduce labour turnover by retaining highly committed and talented employees. A few quotes that support the research findings are stated as follows.

Participant 1:

> *Due to the competition for talent, the University believes that an important way to outweigh other rivals is to develop strategies to minimise labour turnover. Given this strategic decision, the integrated TM policy was introduced. The TM policy also aims to ensure that the University retains high-performing and committed employees required to achieve its strategic objectives* (Institution B).

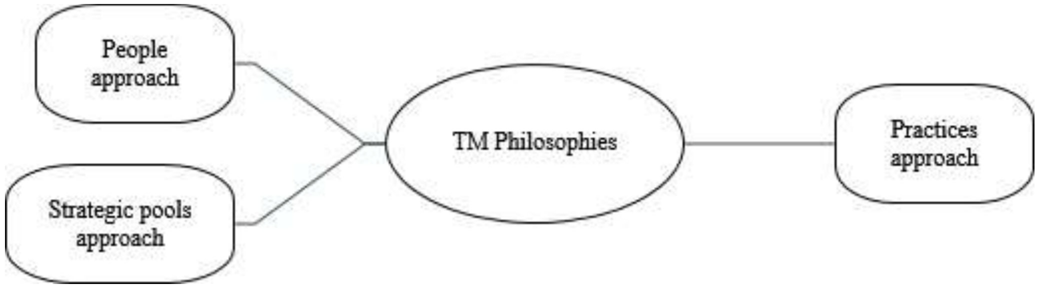
Participant 10:

> *TM could also be used as a tool to retain academic staff. For example, I am happy working at this University. I am pleased with my employer. I am so glad to stay working at the University because they always treat me well* (Institution C).

6.4 Objective 2: Approaches to talent management in higher education institutions

The second objective explored the approaches/philosophies that underpinned the implementation of the TM programme in South African HEIs. Based on the data analysis, it was found that three main approaches underpinned the TM programme in South African HEIs: the people approach, the practice approach, and the strategic-pools approach. These approaches are classified into three themes as presented in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2 Talent management approaches/philosophies



i. Theme 1: People approach to talent management

The findings reflected that the TM practices initiated by HEIs in South Africa had some elements of the people approach. From the interviews, most participants (*N* = 7) argued that TM in their institutions focused on managing employees as assets who possessed special skills, knowledge, and competencies required to perform the job. Some of the quotes from the participants that relate to the findings are stated as follows.

Participant 1:

> *There is no best approach to TM. However, the TM policy in my institution has a mixture of people, strategic position approach. It is a people approach because it focuses on managing employees as assets who possessed special skills, knowledge, and competencies. The people approach assumes that human resources are rare, hard, and difficult to replace. So, our TM policy puts employees first* (Institution B).

Participant 12:

> *I am not too sure, but I think the focus is on staff rather the University itself. To the best of my knowledge, TM emerged to attract, develop, and maintain high-performing employees. These three purposes are clear indications that the essence of TM is to manage people most effectively and effectively. In this University, the TM programme focuses on managing people to add value to the institution* (Institution C).

ii. Theme 2: Practice approach to talent management

Apart from the people approach, the study further found that the TM programme in South African HEIs had some elements of the practice approach. The majority (*N* = 8) of the participants argued that the TM programme in their institutions was based on the practice approach because it included HR activities, programmes, and practices linked to one another. Moreover, the participants stated that these HR practices are designed to achieve the organisational goals and objectives. Some of the quotes from the interviews that relate to the findings are presented as follows.

Participant 3:

> *Are you asking me as a Cluster Leader or an Individual? You see, when we do recruitment, we focus on both the institution and individuals. When the University is recruiting, it looks for people who can contribute to the University. The TM policy also aims to motivate the people and train people in various ways to contribute to the University* (Institution B).

Participant 9:

> *I think the TM programme and policy in my University lends itself towards the practice approach. The practice approach focuses on designing and implementing HR practices like recruitment and selection, talent and development, salary, and career programmes that inspire people to meet the overall strategic goals* (Institution A).

iii. Theme 3: Strategic-pools approach to talent management

The findings indicated that the TM programmes in South African universities had some strategic-pool approach elements. A few (N = 5) participants commented that their institutions initiated diverse TM programmes and policies to achieve the transformational agenda and strategic objectives. It was further observed that the TM programme in South African universities sought to achieve excellence in employing the right people with the required skills who are capable of performing the job. Some of the views expressed by the participants are presented as follows.

Participant 3:

> *Apart from the people's approach, the University's TM policy has some aspects of the strategic pool approach in that it seeks to meet its transformational agenda. The TM focuses on the institution because there are specific things we want to achieve for the institution. One is excellent in getting the right skills that can be able to do the job and move the University's vision forward. So, for that to happen, you need to get the right*

people. You know, this University is the most transformed in South Africa. The transformation has different dimensions. One of such dimensions is the promotion of equity in employment, where they give preference to what we called the previous marginalised (designated groups). Even in African group, for example, they give priority to women (Institution B).

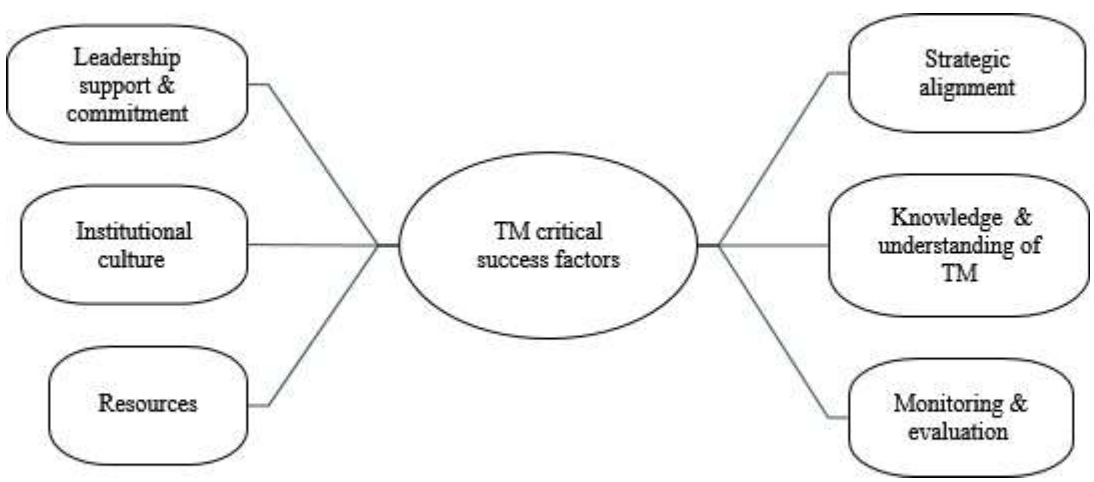
Participant 12:

I think that the essence of TM in the University is more towards achieving the overall strategic goal. Thus, to position the University above other institutions in the country. Therefore, TM philosophy is to look for the right people to contribute to the overall strategy (Institution C).

6.5 Objective 3: Critical success factors for talent management practices

Objective Three examined the critical success factors affecting the implementation of TM practices in South African HEIs. The study identified five major themes as the critical success factors that influenced TM: leadership support and commitment, institutional culture, strategic alignment, limited knowledge and understanding of TM practices and resources. The findings are depicted in Figure 6.3.

Figure 6.3 Critical success factors for talent management practices



i. Theme 1: Leadership support and commitment

The findings appeared to show that leadership support and commitment were among the critical success factors that influenced the effectiveness of TM practices in HEIs. The majority (N = 11) of the participants argued that lack of leadership buy-in affected TM policy in their respective institutions. Moreover, they suggested that the frequent leadership changes in their institutions threatened the effectiveness of TM practices. Some of the views of the participants are presented as follows.

Participant 1:

> *The effectiveness of the TM policy is threaten due to the lack of leadership buy-in. We do experience leadership changes frequently in this institution. Therefore, it takes a considerable time for the new leaders to accept whatever policy was initiated by their predecessors* (Institution B).

Participant 8:

> *Usually, most leaders perceive TM practices as functions that belong to the HR department in an organisation. When this happens, the leaders may not be willing to give the maximum support. For TM to function well, all the stakeholders must support and commit to its implementation* (Institution A).

ii. Theme 2: Institutional culture

The findings revealed that institutional culture influenced the implementation of TM policy and practices in South African HEIs. Most participants (N = 7) said that the TM programme must be aligned with the institutional culture and the overall strategic plan to be considered adequate. They argued that the TM programme failed, owing to its incompatibility with the institutional culture. The quotes from the interviews which reaffirm the findings are presented below.

Participant 3:

> *Yes, of course. You see, you know where South Africa is coming from, apartheid dispensation. Apartheid brought some divisions along the racial lines, and those divisions are reflected in our institutions. Those divisions exist between the people, for instance, the*

African, White, Coloured, and Indian. For example, if an Indian is sitting on a panel, more Indians may be employed. The African perhaps do not have much unity (Institution B).

Participant 11:

For the TM programme to be successful, it must be aligned to the institutional culture and the overall strategic plan. TM programme is likely to fail if it is not compatible with the intuition's culture. This University's culture is very clear and precise, stating that the University is highly heterogeneous concerning race, gender, and origin. It commits itself to consciously cementing a robust and influential organisational culture by developing a shared set of common values rooted in the basic principles of equality and dignity of all people. Therefore, any policy that is not aligned to the University's ethos and culture may not be approved (Institution C).

iii. Theme 3: Strategic alignment

For TM practices and policies to be approved, they must be aligned with the institution's strategic goals and objectives. Unfortunately, the findings revealed that TM practices and policies in most institutions in South Africa failed because they were not in alignment with the strategic goals and objectives. A few (N = 5) of the participants expressed their opinion that there was no alignment between TM practices and policy and their institutions' strategic objectives. Some of the quotes that emerged from the interviews supporting the research findings are presented as follows.

Participant 1:

As I have already stated, TM policy can also become effective when it is aligned to the organization's strategic objectives and goals. A fundamental challenge of implementing the TM programme is its alignment with the institution's goals. TM programme may fail if it is not aligned with the University's vision, culture, and strategic goals (Institution B).

Participant 12:

For TM to be effective, it should be aligned to the institution's overall strategy. Mostly, TM failed because it is not adequately incorporated into the overall business strategy. What I *know is that TM practices in most universities are not integrated into their strategy* (Institution C).

iv. Theme 4: Understanding and knowledge of talent management practices

For TM practices and policy to be implemented more effectively and efficiently requires an in-depth understanding and knowledge, especially from the top management. However, the findings indicated that TM practices and policy in HEIs failed because most staff members lack the understanding and knowledge. A few participants (*N* = 4) expressed that their managers had limited knowledge on the scope and initiatives of TM practices. Some of the views captured from the interviews in support of the findings are presented as follows.

Participant 1:

> *I am not trying to say that most leaders in this University do not understand TM scope. What I want to say is that TM may fail if managers do not have in-depth knowledge about the scope of TM initiatives* (Institution B).

Participant 7:

> *Sometimes, TM failed of the limited understanding of the concept. TM is a broad HR activity which includes recruitment and selection, rewards, training and development, promotion, motivation, etc. TM effectiveness, to a large extent, will depend on its understanding. At times, managers failed to support TM initiatives because of the limited knowledge* (Participant A).

v. Theme 5: Resources

Resources constitute an essential factor that influences the implementation of any policy, including TM. To ensure TM policy is effectively and efficiently implemented, management must be willing to commit resources. In line with this assertion, the findings of this study showed that most institutions failed to allocate resources to the implementation of TM policy. Most (*N* = 3) participants argued that their institutions failed to commit resources to TM policy implementation. Some of the quotes that support the research findings are stated as follows.

Participant 3:

> *The other things are resources. This exercise requires enough resources like finance and human beings. For example, the staff to student ratio should be around 1:24, especially in the Social Sciences. In medicine, it should be 1:10. Now, come to my School, the ratio is 1:46. So, if you have that kind of staff-student ratio, how do you compete. This means that people are doing things three times more than others. People are doing something far beyond what they are expected to do. They do not have time to focus on critical core business* (Institution B).

Participant 10:

> *The effectiveness of TM will depend on resources, such as human capital, finance, and technologies. For example, the human capital will be required to support all operations in the organisation. The financial resource will be needed to cover recruitment, selection, and training costs. TM can only function well if these resources are made available* (Participant C).

vi. Theme 6: Monitoring and evaluation

The findings revealed that monitoring and evaluation had a significant effect on TM practices and policy implementation. The participants (N = 3) expressed their opinion that TM practices in their intuitions failed because there was a lack of monitoring and evaluation in place. The participants suggested that for TM practices to be successful; their implementation should be adequately monitored by people who can be trusted. Some of the quotes that emerged from the interviews in support of the findings are as follows.

Participant 7:

> *The TM initiatives in the University are not functioning well because of the lack of proper monitoring and evaluation process. For instance, when you look at TM initiative such as succession planning programme in the University, you will observe that it is functioning well. This is because there is no proper plan in place to monitor and track its progress. Another area of concern is the lack of follow-up and evaluation of training programmes.* (Institution A).

Participant 11:

> *In terms of monitoring, there is a problem because you need people to monitor the policy actively. To me, the implementation should be adequately monitored by people at the level you can properly trust* (Institution C).

6.6 Objective 4: Talent identification and attraction strategies

Objective Four probed the participants on the TM strategies that contribute to identifying and attracting talent into South African HEIs. Based on the data analysis, four themes emerged as the TM strategies that influenced talent identification and attraction: job analysis, employer branding, recruitment and selection, and salary. The results are depicted in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6.4 Talent Identification and attraction strategies

i. Theme 1: Job analysis

From the interviews, most ($N = 8$) of the participants argued that job analysis served as a vital HR tool for identifying the skills, competencies, knowledge, and experience required by the applicants to perform the job. The findings further showed that universities relied on a job analysis to describe the job to be performed, and job applicants' requirements. Moreover, the results indicated a well-designed job analysis served as a vehicle through which highly qualified academics are attracted into HIEs. The following quotes support the findings obtained.

Participant 1:

> *To some extent, job analysis can also be part of attraction strategies. This is because it communicates essential information to the job seekers concerning the job requirements, description of the job's duties, skills, and knowledge required* (Institution B).

Participant 2:

> *As the head, I will go in for talent identification and attraction, ensuring that the right specification is spelled out. The right job specific and profile should be stated to attract more people at the senior level. A job analysis will help ensure that the position and job's correct requirements are clearly stated* (Institution B).

ii. Theme 2: Employer branding

The findings showed that employer branding constitutes a vital HR tool for attracting highly talented and competitive employees into an organisation. The participants indicated that most job seekers are interested in working with organisations with a good reputation as an employer. Regarding the interviews, all the participants (N = 12) affirmed that employer branding played a critical role in attracting talent into universities. The findings showed that, owing to the competition for talent, many universities, including those in South Africa, had branded themselves as the employer of choice to attract highly qualified and talented staff that would deliver value for them. Some of the quotes from the interviews which support the findings of the study are provided as follows.

Participant 1:

> *Employer branding is now a new focus for many HR Managers and organisations. Today, many job seekers are interested in working with organisations that have a good reputation. I can confidently say that this University is one of the best employers of choice when it comes to employer branding, given that we are among the leading universities in Africa and the world. Most people want to come to this University because of the name, but not the salary or other benefits. For example, when you compare the University to others like DUT and UniZulu, one will be interested in working here* (Institution B).

Participant 7:

> *Every organisation desires to attract as many qualified and committed applicants. To achieve this aim, organisations have engaged in pursuing several strategies. One of such strategies is employer branding. Employer branding is a modern concept which projects the image of an organisation. Sometimes, you know what job applicants are interested in associating themselves with organisations that have a good reputation as an employer. As an HR technique, employer branding plays a critical role in attracting qualified people into the University* (Institution A).

iii. Theme 3: Recruitment and selection practices

The findings suggested that recruitment and selection practices influenced the attraction of talent into universities, globally. From the interviews, most (*N* = 9) participants argued that recruitment and selection constituted vital HR strategies that help to identify and attract competent, knowledgeable, and skilled job seekers into HEIs in South Africa. The quotes that support the research findings are presented as follows.

Participant 3:

> *There is no bias in the recruitment and selection practices. The policy is clear as to who should sit on the panel and the recruitment criteria. At the School level, whatever happens in terms of recruitment is mostly chaired by the Dean. So, you need to ensure that there is a proper constitution of the panel. These days we have the union seating on the selection panel, which is not the right thing. The unions are there to oversee that there is no bias. So, the selection panel, in my view, is properly constituted. And people who are there are fair people with integrity* (Institution B).

Participant 11:

> *There are many strategies that the University adopts to attract key talent, but recruitment and selection are the common ones. I do not have to talk much about these strategies because they regularly take place in the University. The purpose of recruitment and selection practices is to identify, attract and choose applicants who meet the job*

recruitment. Through recruitment and selection practices, many qualified applicants were attracted to the University (Institution C).

iv. Theme 4: Salary and benefits

The study discovered that salary and benefits offered by universities influenced the attraction of highly qualified academics. Based on the interviews, most participants ($N = 8$) said that salary and benefits are the essential TM practices that could attract talent. The participants argued that their institutions reviewed salaries over the years mainly to attract highly competitive employees. Some of the views expressed by the participants in support of the findings are presented below.

Participant 3:

> *The University also reviews salary largely over the years. I have talked about the thirteen cheque, but I don't know what happens in other universities. The University also has tuition remission for families and spouses. Of course, that remission is also extended to students doing masters and PhDs* (Institution B).

Participant 8:

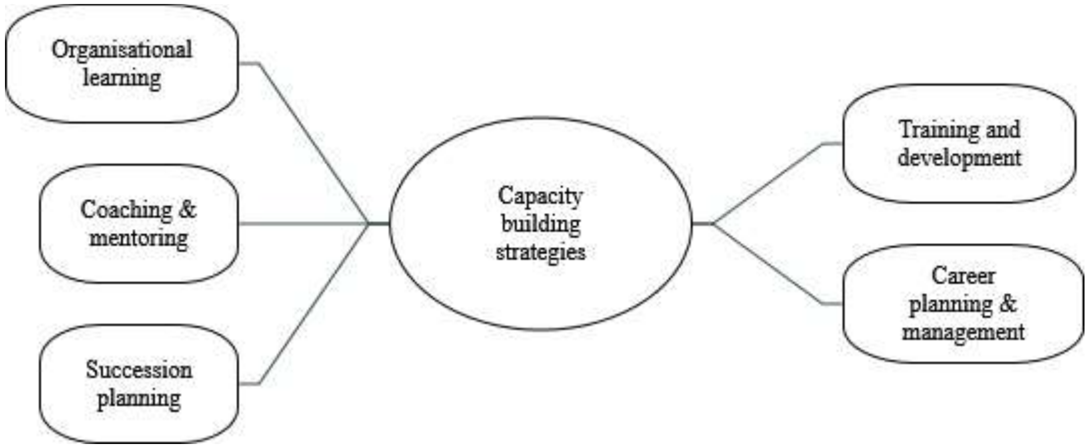
> *Today, financial incentives are considered the critical issues in employee retention. Employees will be willing to remain working with institutions that can offer them something better than other institutions. Highly motivated employees are more likely to stay with their organisations for a long time. Therefore, if the University wants to retain highly qualified staff, it should offer them attractive remuneration* (Institution A).

The next section describes the TM practices that promote capacity building in HEIs.

6.7 Objective 5: Capacity-building strategies

Objective Five investigated the capacity-building strategies that contribute to talent development in South African HEIs. Based on the data analysis, the study discovered five themes as the TM strategies that facilitated the talent development/capacity building in South African HEIs: organisational learning, training, and development, coaching and mentoring, career planning and development, and succession planning. The findings are shown in Figure 6.5.

Figure 6.5 Capacity-building strategies



i. Theme 1: Organisational learning

The findings revealed that organisational learning is a vital TM practice that influenced talent development in South African HEIs. Most participants (*N* = 11) argued that there existed several opportunities for learning in their respective institutions. They said that TM policy recognised organisational learning as an essential tool for transitional learning in their institutions. The following are some of the views expressed by the participants in support of the findings.

Participant 1:

> *TM policy in my University recognises organisational learning as an essential strategy for transitional learning. I will say that organisational learning enhances talent development because it brings learning into an organisation. This promotes learning competition among staff. The University often encourages staff to participate in learning programmes organised both internally and externally. For example, during this COVID-19 outbreak, several workshops were organised online to educate staff members on conducting remote teaching and assessments* (Institution B).

Participant 10:

> *These days, most employees are interested in working with organisations that promote the culture of learning. To develop intellectual capital, universities must create an environment that encourages learning. Also, they need to offer employees opportunities to upgrade their skills* (Institution C).

ii. Theme 2: Training and development

The study discovered that training and development are the main TM tools contributing to building employees' capacity and capability in South African HEIs. Based on the interviews, most (*N* = 10) of the participants have confirmed that training and development are HR tools for nurturing and developing talent. The results further revealed that there were training and development opportunities for staff in South African HEIs. Moreover, the findings indicate that training and development programmes available in HIEs were meant to upgrade employees' skills and competencies. Some of the views of the participants in support of the findings are stated as follows.

Participant 3:

> *When you are recruited here, the University finds a way of taking you through your PhD. There is also a programme called talent excellence programme. There is another programme, like developmental lecturers, to attract and develop African people into scholars* (Institution B).

Participant 12:

> *There are opportunities for training and development available for all staff in the School. The training and development programmes are meant to upgrade the skills and competencies of employees* (Institution C).

iii. Theme 3: Coaching and mentoring

The findings revealed that, although coaching and mentoring are considered important strategies for building the capacity of employees, they were ineffective in South African HIEs. All the participants (*N* = 12) stated that the coaching and mentoring programmes in their institutions were poorly organised and inefficient. Moreover, the participants argued that there were no coaches and mentors in their institutions. The following are some of the quotes that emerged from the interviews in support of the findings.

Participant 1:

> *From the HRM perspective, coaching and mentoring are key talent development strategies that help employees learn on the job. However, the reality is that these programmes are*

not functioning. The University has no coaches and mentors to assist, especially the recruits, to acquire a new set of skills required on the job (Institution B).

Participant 7:

> *I think if you want to be mentored, you need to find your mentor. I do not believe the University has a formal mentorship programme. The University only encourages mentorship in research publications where people receive assistance on how to publish. So, if you want to develop yourself, you need to find ways of doing it yourself* (Institution A).

iv. Theme 4: Career planning and management

The findings seemed observed that there were several career opportunities for academic staff in South African HIEs. The majority (*N* = 9) of the research participants expressed the opinion that their institutions implemented career planning and management programmes to help them acquire and upgrade the skills, knowledge, and competencies required to perform the job more effectively and efficiently. Moreover, the participants claimed that their institutions encouraged them to plan and manage their careers. Some of the quotes that relate to the findings are stated as follows.

Participant 7:

> *Apart from what I said, the University also considers career planning and management tools for staff development. The University encourages staff members to plan and manage their careers. There are several career opportunities available at the University that staff members can take advantage of. For example, the University allows people to further up their education. It also organises short career courses for staff* (Institution A).

Participant 10:

> *Career planning and development could also serve as a TM tool that can help develop staff capacity. This University recognises career development as a tool that can equip staff members with the skills and competencies needed to perform. The focus of the career planning and development in this institution is to equip the staff with the requisite attitudes, competencies, and knowledge to fit into their roles* (Institution C).

v. Theme 5: Succession planning

The study discovered that succession planning was poorly implemented in South African HIEs. Although most (N = 7) of the participants acknowledged the importance of succession planning in developing employees' talent, they argued that it was ineffective in their institutions. The findings indicated that lack of leadership was the cause of inadequate succession planning in South African HEIs. The following are some of the views expressed by the participants.

Participant 3:

> *No, it is not very good. I don't believe that there is proper succession planning. That is why I am saying that we have too many people at the lecturer level, and we have 55% of professors leaving. Who is going to fill the gap? There is no plan to recruit in advance to succeed the people who will be retiring. For example, at the end of 2020, five professors will be exceeding their tenure of office. But you will realise that the gap has not been planned for* (Institution B).

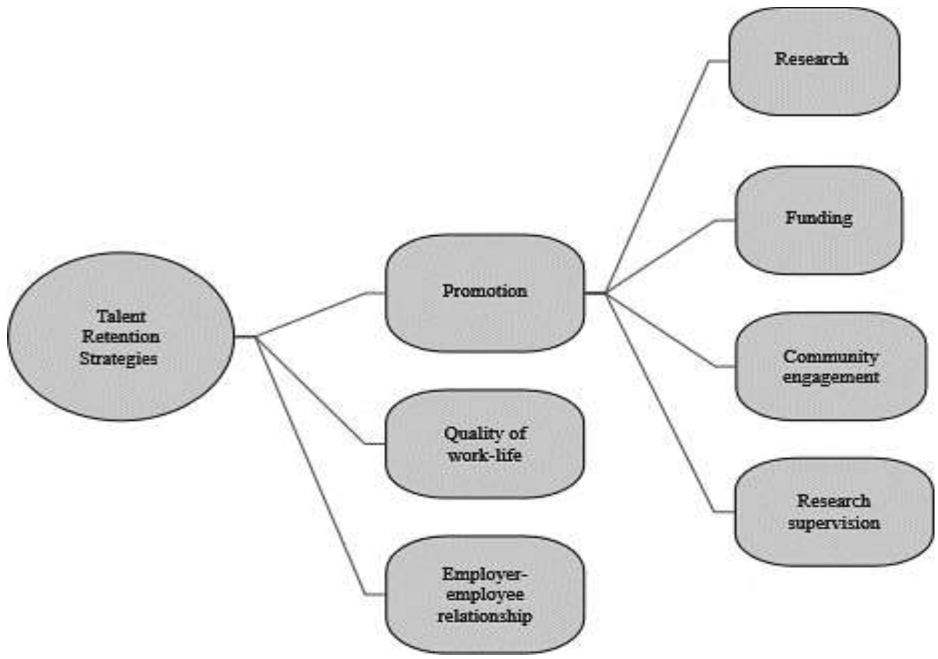
Participant 11:

> *The University also considers succession planning a formal programme of action which gives rise to legal obligations. As part of the TM and employment equity policy, the University clearly states that succession planning shall be developed openly and transparently with due respect for staff rights and expectations. Unfortunately, this programme has not been successful over the years because of the University's leadership changes* (Institution C).

6.8 Objective 6: Talent retention strategies

Objective Six of the study explored the specific TM practices that influence labour turnover or talent retention in South African HEIs. The data analysis suggests that labour turnover in HEIs can be reduced through TM practices such as employee promotion, employer-employee relationships, and WLB. These findings are classified into three themes. Moreover, four sub-themes emerged from promotion (research, funding, community engagement and research supervision). Figure 6.6 shows the findings that relate to talent-retention strategies.

Figure 6.6 Talent retention strategies



i. Theme 1: Employee promotion

The findings showed that employee promotion constituted a critical TM practice that influenced talent retention in HIEs. Based on the interviews, most (*N* = 7) of the participants argued that promotion was an essential TM practice that helped reduce labour turnover in South Africa. The participants stated that the criteria for academic promotion in HEIs included the number of research publications, research supervision, community engagement, and funding attracted into the university, together with excellent teaching. The following are some of the quotes of the participants which relate to the findings.

Participant 3:

> *Well, promotion is also a question we need to answer because one of the things that are coming out is that other universities are attracting staff from us. We are like a training ground. There are various training programmes within the University. We convert people to PhD, but because the University does not have an attractive way of promoting people,*

they leave and go elsewhere. For example, if you apply here to become a senior lecturer, you will be required to publish 8 articles. You also need to have supervised some students and graduated them. You also need to have brought in some funding, and your teaching must be fairly excellent. The same person will go to another University and be promoted as an associate professor. So, these are the more reasons why we are reviewing our promotion policy. Once you have a PhD in other places, you are promoted to a senior lecturer (Institution B).

Participant 7:

In academia, promotion is considered an important issue. Promotion, as a TM tool, can influence staff retention either positively or negatively. Institutions that value staff promotion is more likely to retain their human capital. This institution has clear criteria for promotion. This includes the number of articles published, amount of funding attracted, number of research supervised, and service to the community. The processes leading to promotion are also clear and transparent. Moreover, promotion within is a merit base (Institution A).

i. Theme 2: Employer-employee relationship

The employer-employee relationship plays a unique role in the retention of talent within organisations. Concerning the interviews, most (*N* = 7) of the participants believed that, although the employer-employee relationship influenced talent retention, the relationship among staff in South African HEIs was problematic. The participants argued that most of their colleagues were found not responding to emails concerning work-related matters. Some of the views of the participants, from the findings, are stated as follows.

Participant 3:

No, I don't think so. You have just indicated that you have been writing to many people, but no one is responding. There are many areas in this School where there is inefficiency, for instance, HR and Finance. The relationship within the University was very toxic. The relationship between the employer and employee is taut (Institution B).

Participant 8:

> *I am not sure that the relationship in this institution is a healthy one. We are supposed to be working together as teams, but some people act otherwise. For example, it is difficult for most staff to collaborate to publish papers. Also, most people do not trust others; hence, they are unwilling to share their challenges with them* (Institution A).

ii. Theme 3: Quality of work-life balance

Quality of work-life balance is becoming a critical issue for many employees, and tends to affect employees’ turnover intention. The findings suggested that quality of work-life balance helped in addressing labour turnover in HEIs. Based on the interviews, the majority (*N* = 9) expressed a similar opinion that quality of WLB was a vital TM practice that helped retain talent. The participants argued that the goal of WLB in their institutions was to improve staff working conditions. The following are some of the quotes that emerged from the interviews.

Participant 1:

> *A better quality of WLB is the key to attracting and retaining qualified and motivated employees in an organisation. To reduce labour turnover, institutions like this have designed and implemented programmes such as flexible work arrangements to improve the quality of work-life for all staff. Good quality of work-life can lead to employee satisfaction and commitment, thereby resulting in their retention* (Institution B).

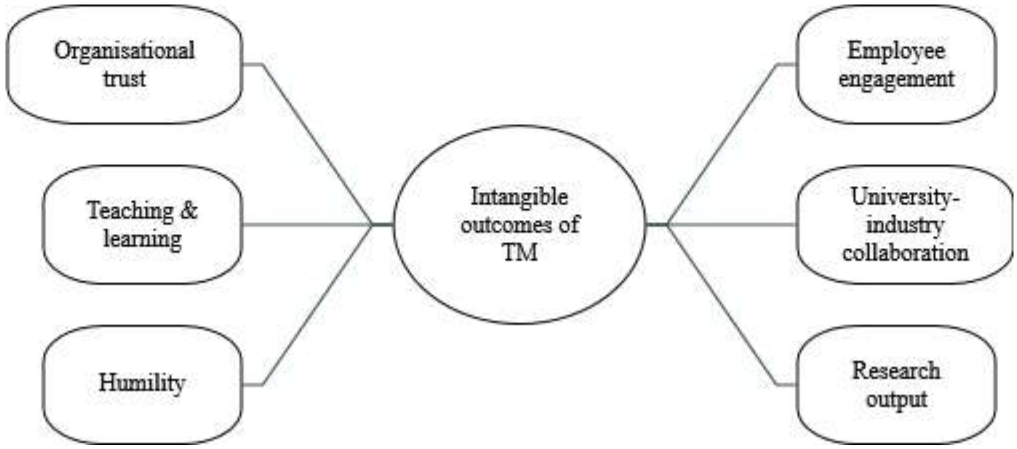
Participant 10:

> *One of the goals of this institution is to improve the working conditions of staff. Quality of work life has different connotations. For example, it is a flexible work arrangement intended to enhance employees' working conditions, particularly for women* (Institution C).

6.9 Objective 7: Intangible outcomes of talent management practices

The overreaching aim of the study was to investigate the intangible outcomes of TM practices in South African HEIs. Based on the interviews, six themes were identified as the intangible outcomes derived from effective TM practices: organisational trust, employee engagement, humility, increase in research publication, teaching and learning, university-industry collaboration, and creativity and innovation. The findings are further shown in Figure 6.7.

Figure 6.7 Intangible outcomes of talent management practices



i. Theme 1: Organisational trust

The findings showed that organisational trust could be built through TM practices. Most (N = 6) of the participants argued that trust has different connotations: doing good for somebody even when the person is not there; and being a person with integrity, instilling confidence in that person. The participants believed that they had trust in their institutions and leaders. The following quotes from the interviews support the findings.

Participant 3:

> *You see, trust has several connotations. In simple terms, trust means you can still do good for somebody even if the person is not there. So, the person must not be there before you do what is good and legitimate for that person. Trust also means that you are someone with integrity and people have confidence in you. For example, your ability to make decisions correctly without any influence. And so, to build trust, in Africa, they say the fish starts rotting from the head. So, people in leadership to me must serve as role models. They must demonstrate to the younger people who are coming up that this is the way things should be done* (Institution B).

Participant 11:

> *I think I trust my University. This has to do with me. Yeah, I trust my organisation* (Institution C).

ii. Theme 2: Employee engagement

The findings indicated that employee engagement in South African HEIs could be improved through TM practices. The majority (*N* = 9) of the participants said that they were engaged with their institutions. The findings suggest that HEIs create a comfortable working environment in which their staff can discharge their responsibilities. Moreover, the findings reveal that HEIs offer attractive packages to their staff. Some of the quotes from the interviews which give credence to the findings are presented as follows.

Participant 2:

> *Yes, to a certain extent. I am involved in a leadership position. Example, research, and higher degrees. I do get involved in administrative duties as well* (Institution B).

Participant 9:

> *Yes, I am highly engaged in this University because it has met my expectation. For instance, the University has created a comfortable working environment to enable me to discharge my responsibilities. Also, the University offers attractive packages to staff as compared to others. Moreover, I am satisfied with the developmental opportunities available at the University* (Institution A).

iii. Theme 3: Employee humility

There are diverse ways in which humble leaders could be developed within an organisation. However, this study suggests that humility can be improved or built through TM practices. The majority (*N* = 10) of the participants indicated that their leaders were humble. The participants argued that humble leaders could be created through TM practices such as succession planning, coaching, mentoring, and career development. Some of the views collected from the participants in relation to the research findings are presented as follows.

Participant 4:

> *Yes, I think I am humble to my employer. Humble leaders could be created through coaching and mentoring* (Institution B).

Participant 12:

> *Yes, of course, many leaders in this University are humble. Humble leaders could be created in different ways. For example, leaders can be created through succession planning, coaching, mentoring, and career development. This tells you that humble leaders are not born but made. I can count more than 20 leaders in this University who are not only efficient but humble* (Institution C).

iv. Theme 4: University-industry collaboration

Based on the data analysis, most (*N* = 9) of the participants argued that TM practices promote collaboration between institutions and industries. The findings suggested that HEIs have the right employees to engage the collaborative projects between them and industries. Here are some of the quotes that emerged from the interviews in support of the findings.

Participant 3:

> *Yes, in the sense that there are specific Disciplines where collaboration is working, for example, Engineering, Social Sciences, Agriculture, and IS&T. When we are talking about collaboration, it does not mean where students will be engaged and earn some stipend. We are talking about a system where the University can contribute to the industry and vice-versa. The collaboration agreement is working well because some industries provide bursary and scholarship schemes for students. Through collaboration, enterprises can produce new products* (Institution B).

Participant 8:

> *Yes, the collaboration agreement between the University and the industry is effective. As an institution, we assist firms in conducting research required to solve problems. TM serves as a tool that enables the University to attract, develop and retain highly skilled and committed staff to assist the industries through research* (Institution A).

v. Theme 5: Teaching and learning

The findings revealed that TM practices, such as recruitment and selection, employer branding, and training and development helped improve teaching and learning in South African HEIs. Most (N = 6) of the participants believed that TM practices helped recruit the right skills and people required for teaching and learning. Some of the quotes captured from the interviews in support of the research findings are presented as follows.

Participant 3:

> *You see, it all starts with recruiting the right people. For example, when you are recruiting people at the senior level, you ask such a person to drive research. If you are going to recruit a professor into the University and such a person has no history of attracting funding, what will you be doing. So, here the starting point is that you attract the right skills and people. You also need to provide an environment that can enhance the person's productivity* (Institution B).

Participant 8:

> *Quality teaching and learning can only occur when the right people are attracted, developed, and retained. TM can improve teaching and learning in universities through the recruitment of the right staff* (Institution A).

vi. Theme 6: Research output and publication

From the data analysis, a few participants (N = 3) indicated that TM could contribute to an increase in research output and publication if only the right people with the right skills are recruited and maintained. They argued that TM practices such as rewards and benefits encouraged and motivated staff members to increase their research productivity.

Participant 3:

> *Are you asking me as a Cluster Leader? Yes, TM could be used as a tool to increase research output and publication in the university by recruiting and retaining the right people with the right skills* (Institution B).

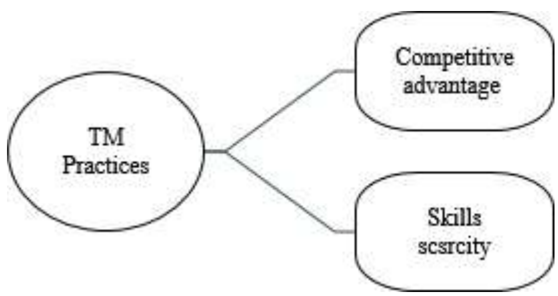
Participant 10:

> *Yes, it will also have an impact on research. Remember that employees are vital resources responsible for teaching, supervision, and research. TM can be leveraged to increase research productivity. Through TM, talented and committed staff members can be attracted, developed, and retain to contribute to innovative research* (Institution C).

6.10 Objective 8: Relationship between talent management and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills

Objective Eight investigated the relationship between TM practices and competitive advantage, and scarcity of skills in South African universities. From the analysis of the data obtained through the interviews, the study discovered that TM practices significantly affected sustainability and scarcity of skills in HIEs. The findings are graphically presented in Figure 6.8.

Figure 6.8 The relationship between talent management and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills



i. Theme 1: Competitive advantage

The findings highlighted that a sustainable competitive advantage could be obtained through TM practices. The majority ($N = 11$) of the participants argued that a sustainable competitive advantage could be obtained through TM practices such as talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent retention. They believed that a sustainable competitive could only be obtained by having the right people to do the work. The following are some of the quotes from the interviews which reaffirm the findings.

Participant 4:

> *You see, we have to go back to the basis. The backbone of every organisation is the people. For example, if you do not have the right people to do the work, you will not compete. First of all, you must have the people with the right skills to do the job. Moreover, you must provide an environment that is conducive for them to do the job. The work environment must be such that there is a good relationship. So, I think managing talent is vital because it helps you identify the right people who can make a difference* (Institution B).

Participant 12:

> *Competitive advantage can only be achieved by having the right people. Of course, TM can create a sustainable competitive advantage for the University because it attracts, develops, and maintains the right people with the rights skills required to compete* (Institution C).

ii. Theme 2: Scarcity of critical skills

The findings confirmed that TM practices played a crucial role in addressing the shortage of critical skills in South African HEIs. From the interviews, most (N = 5) of the participants argued that TM practices such as organisational learning, training and development, succession planning, and career planning and management could be used to address the shortage of critical skills. Some of the quotes that relate to the research findings are presented as follows.

Participant 7:

> *Yes, TM practices will undoubtedly help to address the skills shortage. For example, there are some Disciplines, such as engineering, that have a skills gap. TM will help to acquire the right talent. TM can also be used to determine the training needs of the staff. When people are trained and developed, they will acquire the skills required to discharge their responsibilities* (Institution A).

Participant 11:

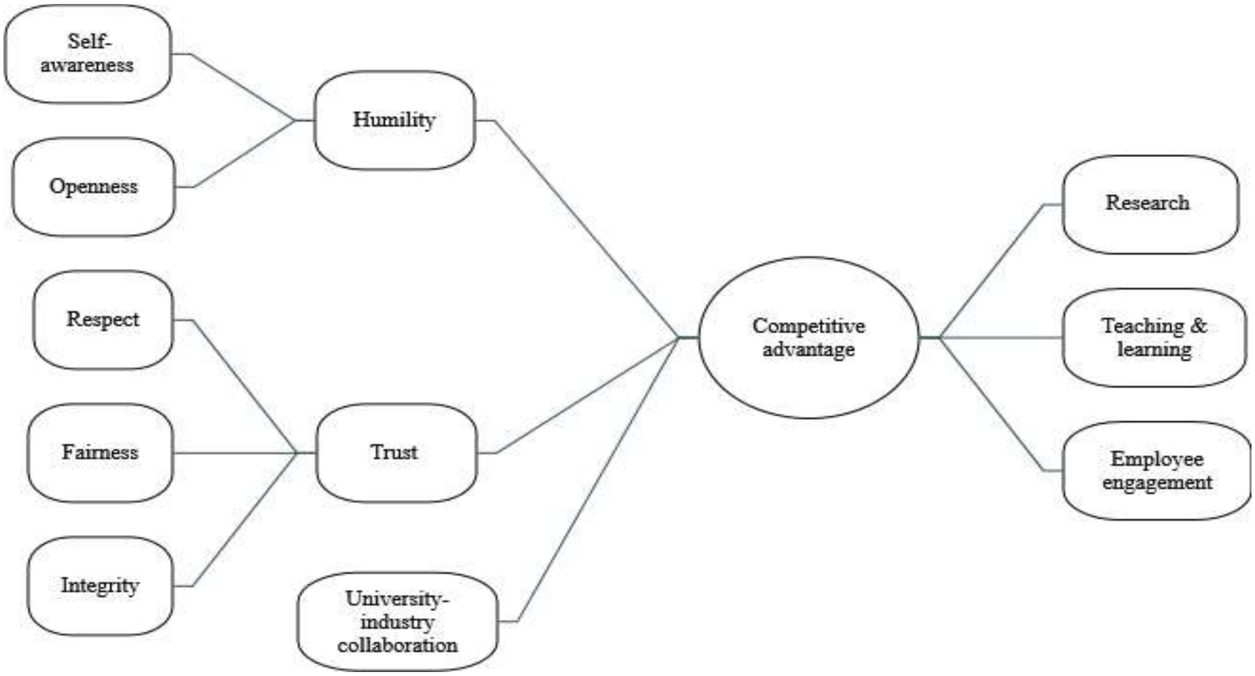
> *Of course, TM practices could help minimise the shortage of critical skills in the University. Through TM, the University can attract, develop and maintain highly qualified*

staff to perform the job. Talent development strategies, particularly organisational learning, succession planning, and training and development, could assist staff in acquiring the relevant skills, knowledge, experiences, and competencies required (Institution C).

6.11 Objective 9: The relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage

Objective Nine determined the relationship between the intangible TM outcomes and competitive advantage. The findings revealed a significant relationship between the intangible outcomes of TM and competitive advantage. The findings are categorised into six main themes: humility, trust, university-industry collaboration, research, teaching and learning, and employee engagement. Moreover, two sub-themes emerged from humility, including self-awareness and openness. In addition, three sub-themes emerged from organisational trust: respect, fairness, and integrity. Figure 6.9 summarises the themes and sub-themes that form part of the findings.

Figure 6.9 The Relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage



i. Theme 1: Humility

The findings revealed that humility had a significant effect on the sustainability of HEIs. A few participants (*N* = 3) expressed that humility, as a leadership quality, gives an HEI sustainable competitive advantage over others. The findings suggested that humble leaders in South African HEIs possessed leadership characteristics like self-awareness and openness. The participants argued that their institutions have humble leaders who are open to new ideas and advice from other people. Moreover, they believed that their leaders are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, offering them a competitive edge. Some of the quotes that support the findings are presented as follows.

Participant 5:

> *Of course, humility is a vital leadership virtue that differentiates successful leaders from others. You know what, humble leaders can help their organisations to obtain sustainable competitive advantage because they know their strengths and weakness and opened to new ideas from different sources. This leadership quality brings people together to work as a team towards achieving the organisational goals* (Institution B).

Participant 7:

> *To me, humility, as a virtue, is a game-changer because many institutions are looking for humble leaders and employees. Humble leaders are those that show the willingness to learn from others. These leaders can bring lasting competitive advantage to their organisations in the sense that they can win admiration from customers and employees* (Institution A).

ii. Theme 2: Trust

The findings suggested that trust had a significant effect on competitive advantage in South African HEIs. The study found that respect, fairness, and integrity are the key determinants of trust in South African HEIs. Several participants ($N = 4$) believed that building a climate of trust would lead to a competitive advantage. Moreover, the participants argued that they had confidence in their institutions, leaders, and colleagues. A few quotes that support the research findings are as follows.

Participant 2:

> *Yes, of course. As a leader, I want to state that trust is essential in any competitive environment. Only trustworthy organisations can achieve sustainable competitive advantage. You know what, clients are interested in working with organisations that have proven integrity and credibility. Trust is a core value of this institution that underpins the rest of the values. So, whatever we do as an institution must be based on trust* (Institution B).

Participant 10:

> *Trust constitutes an essential leadership virtue that determines the survival of an organisation. Although trust is difficult to measure, I trust my institution, leaders, and other colleagues that I work with. I think for us, as an institution, to gain a competitive advantage, we need to build a climate of trust not only with the internal stakeholder but with external stakeholders* (Institution C).

iii. Theme 3: University-industry collaboration

The findings indicated that the collaboration between universities and industries could lead to sustainable competitive advantage. A few participants (*N* = 5) expressed that a university-industry partnership could promote a sustainable competitive advantage for HEIs through knowledge sharing and technological transfer. Additionally, the participants said that university-industry collaboration fosters knowledge diffusion to the society, promoting innovativeness and growth. Some of the views expressed by the participants in support of the research findings are stated as follows.

Participant 3:

> *Yes, university-industry collaboration promotes sustainability because it encourages knowledge sharing and technology exchange between the universities and industries. Through partnerships, universities could gain a competitive advantage because it promotes innovation and entrepreneurship programmes in universities. These entrepreneurship programmes and activities can create additional jobs for universities* (Institution B).

Participant 7:

> *I am convinced that it will create a sustainable advantage for both universities and industries. Collaboration between universities and industries could enable universities to generate patents, thereby generating more revenues. Besides, a partnership between universities and industries encourages innovation through knowledge sharing, thereby creating a sustainable competitive advantage* (Institution A).

iv. Theme 4: Research output and productivity

Based on the interviews, most participants (*N* = 7) expressed similar views that quality research constitutes an important determinant of competitive advantage. Moreover, the participants said that research creates a competitive advantage for universities because it promotes knowledge-sharing and problem-solving. Additionally, the participants argued that quality research improves the ranking of universities. A few quotes captured from the participants in support of the findings are stated as follows.

Participant 8:

> *I believe so because research determines the position of a university when it comes to ranking. Research could be used to differentiate one university from the other. For example, in South Africa, there are some research universities like UKZN, UCT, and the University of Witwatersrand. As you know, this institution is consistently ranked as the third in South Africa in terms of research. Therefore, the research puts us ahead of other universities in the country* (Institution A).

Participant 12:

> *I don't think there is any university in this world that can survive the competition without research. Research is the crucial function of many universities because it determines their competitiveness. Today, many universities include ours, are focusing on research because it creates value for them. For instance, research generates extra funding for universities. It also enables universities to be on the cutting edge* (Institution C).

v. Theme 5: Teaching and learning

The findings revealed a significant relationship between teaching and learning. A few participants ($N = 3$) indicated that teaching and learning is a vital function of universities that provides students with the experience required to enter the job market. The participants said that quality teaching and learning could only promote universities' sustainability if it leads to acquiring skills, knowledge, and competencies needed in the job markets. Some of the quotes from the interviews that support the research findings are stated below.

Participant 5:

> *Yes, teaching and learning could result in a sustainable competitive advantage if it provides the students with the skills, knowledge, and competencies required by employers. Therefore, I will suggest that universities focus on implementing methodologies that will improve teaching and learning* (Institution B).

Participant 8:

> *I believe so. Teaching and learning can only result in a competitive advantage if universities have the right people with the right skills. A university can have the best infrastructure, but quality teaching and learning cannot be promoted without experienced teachers. So, my recommendation will be to hire people with the right skills and experience* (Institution C).

vi. Theme 6: Employee engagement

The findings showed a positive relationship between employee engagement and competitive advantage. The data analysis revealed that the majority (N = 7) of the participants believed that employee engagement encourages and motivates employees to add value to the organisation. Moreover, they argued that HEIs could increase competitive advantage and performance through employee engagement because such promotes employee loyalty and commitment. Some of the views expressed by the participants which support the findings are presented below.

Participant 9:

> *A higher level of employee performance can be expected from employee engagement because highly engaged employees work harder to achieve organisational goals. These goals, when achieved, can translate to a competitive advantage* (Institution A).

Participant 12:

> *Yes, employee engagement will undoubtedly deliver a competitive advantage for the University because engaged employees are more motivated to increase their energies towards attaining the organisational objectives and goals* (Institution C).

6.12 Chapter summary

The findings revealed three primary rationales for TM in HEIs – talent identification and attraction, talent development, and talent retention. Moreover, the findings showed three philosophies underpinning TM practices in South African HIEs: the people approach, the practices approach, and the strategic-pools approach. Furthermore, the study found that the TM practices such as job analysis, employer branding, recruitment and selection, and rewards, significantly influenced talent identification and attraction for HEIs. The findings further indicated that TM practices such as organisational learning, training and development, coaching and mentoring, career planning and management, and succession planning impacted capacity building in HEIs. Additionally, the findings showed that the TM practices that impacted talent retention included promotion, employer-employee relationship, and work-life balance quality. The findings also indicated that the critical success factors that influenced TM implementation in South African HEIs were leadership support and commitment, limited understanding and knowledge of TM practices, resources, and strategic alignment between TM practices and organisational goals. The findings suggested that TM practices contributed to intangible outcomes such as organisational trust, humility, employee engagement, teaching and learning, and university-industry collaboration. Finally, the findings showed that TM practices positively influenced sustainable competitive advantage and scarcity of skills within South African HEIs.

Chapter Seven: Discussion of the Results

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapters dealt with the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data. This chapter deals with the discussion of both the quantitative and qualitative data that emerged from the study. The chapter also determines whether the research questions have been adequately addressed. The discussion of the results was achieved by integrating the findings from previous studies on TM practices with their outcomes. The research objectives that guide the discussion of the main findings are:

i. To establish the rationale behind the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
ii. To determine the best approach to the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
iii. To investigate the critical success factors that influence the implementation of talent management programmes in higher education institutions;
iv. To identify talent management practices that influence talent identification and attraction into higher education institutions;
v. To ascertain talent management practices that contribute to capacity building in higher education institution;
vi. To examine talent management practices that influence talent retention in higher education institutions;
vii. To establish the type of relationship that exists between talent management practices and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills in higher education institutions;
viii. To examine the relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage and scarcity of skills in higher education institutions;
ix. To explore the relationship between talent management practices and intangible outcomes of talent management; and
x. To evaluate the extent to which intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage.

7.2 Objective 1: Rationale for talent management practices

The first objective sought to establish the rationale for TM practices in South African HEIs. This objective was achieved through the qualitative phase. The empirical findings revealed three main motives for TM practices in South African HEIs, including talent identification and attraction, capacity building (talent development), and talent retention.

7.2.1 Talent identification and attraction

The findings from the interviews reveal that TM practices emerged in South African HEIs to attract and recruit well-qualified employees into various levels and offices. The majority of the participants ($N = 9$) agreed that TM practices emerged in HEIs to attract talent into various levels and positions. The findings from this study are supported by empirical research (Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Cappelli, 2008; Lewis & Heckman, 2006). The essence of entice talent identification and attraction is to attract a pool of talented employees required to compete in the competitive business environment. There is competition for talent in which many other organisations, including HEIs, are also looking to attract the best candidates. Unfortunately, many HEIs confront significant challenges of how to attract high performing and talented staff, especially academics. A study conducted by Cappelli (2008) reveals that TM emerged to enable organisations to identify high performers who can significantly contribute to organisational performance. Lewis and Heckman (2006) also admit that the primary aim of TM is to manage talent through HR activities, including talent attraction, employee engagement, talent development, transfer of talent, and talent retention.

Gay and Sims (2006) concur that TM concerns the investment in people development by identifying talented individuals to develop them for leadership positions. Moreover, research (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Mellahi & Collings, 2010) reflects that TM was introduced into most organisations to address the competition for talent in the increasing labour market. Ng (2013) postulates that TM was introduced into Singapore universities to attract world-class and top academics. According to Subbaye and Dhunpath (2016), the UKZN implemented an integrated TM policy in 2011 to attract and retain highly qualified staff. Findings suggest that the UoC introduced TM programmes to attract highly talented academics.

The reasons for introducing TM practices need revisiting, this may possibly be the reasons as to why management is reluctant to embraced it. TM, in many places where it is being introduced, is not meant for identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent development, but rather these processes are applied differently. Thus, TM goes beyond attracting intellectual capital to inevitably impact the bottom line, competitive advantage, achievement individual goals and performance.

7.2.2 Talent development

The primary findings from the interviews show that an important reason for TM practices in South African HEIs was to nurture and develop talented employees. From the interviews, most participants (*N* = 10) indicated that TM practices were introduced into HEIs to build the capacities and capabilities of both academic and support staff. The findings from this current research agreed with previous studies (Davies & Davies, 2010; Heidke, 2006), which state that TM was initiated in most organisations to enhance the capabilities of employees. Globally, many organisations have realised that the only way to gain competitive advantage is to invest in their human capital. As such, they have adopted different innovative strategies to improve the capabilities of employees. These days, firms are increasingly paying attention to developing thee talent of their employees through talent development practices, such as training and development and career planning. Heidke (2006) argues that TM was introduced into HEIs for the following reasons: to reduce recruitment costs; to retain talented employees; to ensure effective management of knowledge and transfer; to reduce enterprise risks; to achieve competitive advantage; to improve client retention, and to ensure retention of adequate staff capacity. Davies and Davies (2010) point out that TM is increasingly being perceived as a strategic tool for developing future leaders in an organisation.

A survey shows that the University of Cambridge initiated TM programmes to train and develop diverse targeted staff (University of Cambridge, 2015). Likewise, at the Imperial College London, TM focuses mainly on talent-development programmes for all staff (Imperial College London, 2015). At Yale University, TM focuses primarily on talent development. At the Columbia University, TM pays critical attention to staff learning and development (Columbia University, 2015). Moreover, Mohammed et al. (2019) confirm that TM emerges in Australian HE for the purpose of knowledge creation.

7.2.3 Talent retention

The qualitative findings (*N* = 7) show that TM practices in HEIs aimed to reduce labour turnover by retaining highly committed and talented employees. The findings are consistent with previous research. Given the competition for talent, talent retention has become a critical issue for many firms, and an equally challenging situation for most employers. The estimated cost of employee turnover ranges between 1 to 2.5 times the employee's salary (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). Research (Oladapo, 2014) shows that American companies faced the challenge of replacing 70 million experienced and highly talented employees over the last decades through retirement of Baby Boomers. Moreover, evidence (Barkhuizen, Schutte & Nagel, 2017; Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen & Schutte, 2018b) suggests that nearly half of academics in South African HEIs have considered leaving their jobs. Against this background, Bhattacharyya (2015) challenges firms to develop strategies to attract, develop and retain top talent.

Phillips and Roper (2009) discovered that most organisations initiated TM practices and programmes to enhance employee engagement and reduce staff turnover. Scullion et al. (2010) observe that most organisations implement TM programmes to enable them to manage and sustain their knowledge base. Neri and Wilkins (2019) concur that TM emerges as a key strategic area to recruit and retain talent in organisations. In UKZN, one of the objectives of TM policy is to attract and maintain high-performing and committed talent to assist in achieving the overall strategic objectives, as can be substantiated by Subbaye and Dhunpath (2016).

7.3 Objective 2: Approaches to talent management practices

The second objective investigated the approaches or philosophies that underpin TM practices in South African HEIs. This objective was achieved via the qualitative phase. The results suggested three approaches underpinning TM practices in South African HEIs: the people approach, the practices approach, and the strategic-pool approach. These findings are discussed and supported by empirical literature.

7.3.1 The people approach

The findings (*N* = 7) show that the TM programmes initiated by HEIs in South Africa had some people-approach elements. Participants argued that TM practices in their institutions focused on managing employees as assets who possessed special skills, knowledge, and competencies required to perform the job. This approach to TM proposes different ways of managing people through HRM practices that are developed to identify, attract, and maintain high performers. Scholars such as Guthridge et al. (2006) argue that the people approach pays critical attention to people and management of small groups of workers who possess unique skills that are scarce or rare, and difficult to replace. This approach offers different views of managing people through HRM practices developed to identify, attract, and maintain high performers.

Furthermore, the people approach to TM places emphasis on two competitions − inter-personal and intrapersonal. The former competition suggests that there is the need for effective business strategies to develop individual skills in a cut-throat, free-agent labour market. This approach to competition sees TM as a leadership tool, which requires special attention to address the performance gap. This would be through explicit categorisation and segmentation of talent into different groups. This viewpoint is also substantiated by Nijs et al. (2014) who argue that the latter competition has its origin in the excellence literature, which concerns retaining high performers. Intra-personal competition has its foundation in the positive psychology and egalitarianism, which assumes that every employee has talent and can improve his or her efficiency. However, intra-personal competition allows room for pragmatic judgement on the basis that high-level performances cannot be possible for all employees, therefore differential investments should be expected.

The philosophy of categorising and differentiating people has attracted criticism from many scholars (Pfeffer, 2001; Stein & Capape, 2009). The first criticism relates to the 'locus of organisational effectiveness', which assumes that human capital constitutes the primary source of creating a competitive advantage for organisations. Critics argue that the over-reliance on intellectual capital is an inappropriate fulcrum for enhancing effectiveness, which draws the focus away from the proper fulcrum. The second criticism is based on cognitive limits rooted in strategic management psychology. Critics (Hodgkinson & Sparrow, 2002) point out that this assumption is likely to create more risks, and may affect the capturing of value, unless the TM architecture is integrated into the knowledge management and the organisational cognition framework.

7.3.2 The practice approach

Apart from the people approach, the findings ($N = 8$) reveal that the TM practices in HEIs had some elements of the practice approach. It was found that the practice approach is based on the belief that sophisticated HR practices are critical to achieving organisational goals and objectives. The practice approach to TM is firmly rooted in HRM and bundles literature (Martin & Cerdin, 2014; Martin et al., 2011). According to Collings and Mellahi (2009), unlike the people approach, the practice approach requires advanced HRM practices. The theorists (Gubman & Green, 2007; Meyers & Van Woerkom, 2014; Silzer & Dowell, 2010) argue that the practice approach reflects the arguments in the HR bundle debate with the elements of HR programmes and practices that are required to build a more comprehensive and coherent system and business model, fitting into the overall business strategy. The practice approach employs the thinking embodied within the HR architecture literature.

However, there are varied descriptions of what the bundle of practices should include. Sparrow et al. (2014) suggest that these descriptions revolve around seven elements: talent identification and recruitment, talent attraction, reducing attrition rate through engagement and retention, identifying talent within the organisation, managing talent into the organisation, talent development, and delivering organisational results. Although the practice philosophy generates relevant questions which need to be addressed, it fails to provide adequate explanation of how such practices and their bundling create value for the organisation.

7.3.3 The strategic-pools approach

Additionally, the findings ($N = 5$) show that TM programmes in South African universities had some strategic pools approach elements. It was found that most institutions initiated TM programmes and policy to achieve the transformational agenda and strategic objectives. These findings underscore the importance of the strategic-pools approach. The strategic-pools approach to TM draws on human-capital analytics and strategic-human-resource planning. This perspective focuses on attracting highly qualified employees into the various parts of an organisation.

The strategic-pools approach is also known in literature as ‘talent pools’ or ‘pivotal talent pools’. The scholars (Boudreau & Jesuthasan, 2011; Nahapiet, 2011) who subscribe to this perspective argue that the pools approach draws on human-capital analytics and strategic-human-resource planning. Other scholars, such as Jackson and Schuler (1990), and Rothwell (2010) also confirm that this perspective on TM is closely linked to resource planning and development. Lewis and Heckman (2006) believe that this perspective is associated with a focus on talent pools and processes that are designed to attract highly qualified employees into the different parts of an organisation with relation to specific jobs and tasks.

Fitz-enz (2000) argues from the HR accounting perspective that two main capabilities are required to convert the workforce planning cycle into TM architecture. The first involves determining the effect of human capital on the firm's ability to complete business activities through its influence on operational outcomes. The second involves the necessary, yet dangerous, process of the forward-looking skills required to forecast and predict business outcomes. To denote value for talent in an organisation, the phrase 'talent pools' was coined, suggesting that human-capital investments lead to organisational success and competitive advantage (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005, 2007). This perspective underscores the importance of the KBV of the firm, which underpins this study.

7.4 Objective 3: Critical success factors that influence talent management practices

Objective Three examined the critical success factors that influence TM practices in South African HEIs. This objective was also achieved through the qualitative phase. From the qualitative data analysis, the study discovered critical success factors that impacted TM in South African HEIs, including leadership support and commitment, institutional culture, strategic alignment, and limited knowledge and understanding of TM practices and resources. These findings are discussed as follows.

7.4.1 Leadership support and commitment

The findings ($N = 11$) indicated that lack of leadership buy-in affected TM programmes in most South African HEIs. Top management support has long been considered a critical factor for organisational or project success. In the competitive environment today, top management support seems to be crucial in achieving synergy between the activities and operations in the organisation. Top management support and commitment have shown to be the most important predictors of TM implementation in organisations. Thus, without top management support and commitment, TM implementation is bound to fail. However, Guthridge et al. (2008) found that the common barriers which affect TM programmes in organisations include insufficient time on the part of senior managers to implement TM programmes, lack of managerial support and commitment concerning talent development, and low level of collaboration. Moreover, Schuler et al. (2011) discovered that the key barriers affecting TM in most organisations include insufficient time devoted by senior managers on TM programmes, lack of top-management involvement and support, unwillingness to acknowledge performance difference, ineffective HR departments, and lack of support from organisational structures. Similarly, Shahi et al. (2020) identify the behavioural factors affecting TM, including management perception towards TM strategy, and management support.

7.4.2 Institutional culture

The findings (*N* = 7) show that institutional culture was the most critical factor that influenced TM practices in South African HEIs. It was discovered that TM programmes failed in most South African universities owing to their incompatibility with the institutional culture. Firms that seek to innovate must first transform their organisational culture to be aligned with their overall strategic goal. Organisational culture is considered a vital issue affecting TM implementation in an organisation. Thus, for TM to be implemented effectively and efficiently, it must be aligned with the corporate culture. A strong organisational culture helps firms to face global competition and manage employee behaviour. Schein (1990) and Schhneider and Reichers 1(983) observe that corporate culture is one of the factors that influences the effectiveness of TM implementation. Moreover, in Kenya, research (Orwa & Njeri, 2014) shows that organisational culture is one of the key challenges which affects TM in most organisations. Ahmadi et al. (2017) concur that corporate culture influences the effectiveness of TM in organisations. Mousa and Ayoubi (2019) argue that the factors influencing TM in Egyptian public business schools are lack of cultural and technical dimensions, including adaptability, consistency, and knowledge sharing.

7.4.3 Strategic alignment

The findings (*N* = 5) indicate that TM practices and policy in most South African institutions failed because they were not in alignment with the strategic goals and objectives. These findings are also supported by the existing research conducted by scholars (Hejase et al., 2016; Tansley et al., 2006). According to Hejase et al. (2016), most institutions have applied some components of TM but failed to integrate them fully. Hejase et al. (2012) suggest that a TM programme must be part of the HR agenda, and must be aligned with the institution’s vision, culture, and strategic goals.

Tansley et al. (2006) also admit that TM programmes in some organisations have failed because the strategic areas of HR are limited. HR is being conducted for operational reasons, but not for strategic reasons. Human Capital Institute and Hewitt Associates (2008) point out that the major barriers affecting TM in an organisation are the inability to integrate TM programmes, and the difficulty of measuring the return on the investment in talent. Likewise, Bradley (2016) argues that the factors hampering TM include lack of a clear alignment between organisational strategy and ways in which talent is attracted, developed, retained, and rewarded.

7.4.4 Limited understanding and knowledge of talent management

The findings ($N = 4$) indicate that TM practices and policy in HEIs are ineffective because most staff members have limited understanding and knowledge of the scope and initiatives of TM. These findings agreed with the study conducted by Wellins et al. (2010), which revealed that most leaders are not sufficiently competent to apply TM tools and processes. Wellins et al. (2010) argue that the TM programme has failed in most organisations because leaders do not have an adequate and in-depth understanding of how TM supports the business strategy. Mellahi and Collings (2010) admit that the reason for TM initiatives' failure is that most managers take decisions without having access to sufficient amounts of information.

7.4.5 Availability of resources

The findings ($N = 3$) show that South African institutions failed to allocate sufficient resources to the implementation of TM programmes. These findings are also supported by empirical research (Human Capital Institute & Hewitt Associates, 2008; Schuler et al., 2011). According to Human Capital Institute and Hewitt Associates (2008), the factor contributing to the failure of TM in most organisations is the lack of investment in talent. Schuler et al. (2011) admit that the insufficient time spent by senior managers on TM programmes is one of the critical factors affecting TM practices in many organisations.

7.4.6 Monitoring and evaluation

The findings ($\boldsymbol{N} = 3$) reveal that TM practices and initiatives in South African HEIs lack proper monitoring and evaluation. Kamal and Lukman (2017) observe that TM in public institutions in Malaysia is still in its early stages, several issues needing to be addressed by the management. Although the study found that monitoring and evaluation influenced TM practices in South African

HEIs, there is limited empirical research that supports this finding. This calls for further research to determine the effectiveness of monitoring and evaluation on TM practices.

7.5 Objective 4: Talent identification and attraction strategies

Objective Four explored the TM practices that influenced talent identification and attraction into HEIs. This objective was achieved through both the quantitative and qualitative phases. The quantitative results and qualitative findings showed that the TM practices that influenced the talent identification and attraction into the three South African HEIs included job analysis, employer branding, recruitment, and selection and rewards. These findings are discussed as follows.

7.5.1 Job analysis

The results of the quantitative phase reveal a strong positive correlation between talent identification and attraction and job analysis (r = 0.864, $p < 0.01$). The qualitative findings (N = 8) also confirm that job analysis positively impacted talent identification and attraction into South Africa HEIs. Job analysis is the cornerstone of the rest of the HR functions. It is used in making important HR decisions, such as the identification of training needs, compensation, selection processes, and performance appraisal. The findings from this study agreed with existing studies (Edien, 2015; Rattanavong et al., 2015; Redmon, 2003), which state that job analysis provides rich and detailed information about a particular job and job holders required to execute the job. According to Mapira et al. (2013), job analysis answers questions such as the task to be performed and information required to complete the task. Recent evidence (Ele et al., 2019; Kshatriya, 2016; Sharif & Karim, 2017) suggests that job analysis helps to identify tasks, responsibilities, and duties required by job holders to perform the job. Rattanavong et al. (2015) point out that the information gathered from the analysis of current jobs is used to identify the knowledge, skills, and abilities required to perform a specific job. Edien (2015) asserts that job analysis enables an organisation to acquire new skills or expertise. On the contrary, Sharif and Karim (2017) contend that job analysis is not popular in most organisations; hence some employees have negative perceptions. Extant literature suggests that early studies on job analysis paid attention to only the methodological issues of job analysis.

7.5.2 Employer branding

The qualitative and quantitative results agreed that employer branding served as an essential TM practice that impacted talent identification and attraction into South African HEIs. The quantitative results indicate a strong positive relationship between talent identification and attraction and employer branding (r = 0.774, p < 0.01). Moreover, the qualitative findings (N= 12) suggest that, owing to the talent war, many universities, including those in South Africa, have branded themselves as employers of choice to attract highly qualified and talented employees that will deliver value for them. In any competitive environment, the attraction of intellectual capital depends on a positive and strong employer brand. Thus, firms can leverage on brand name to attract and recruit quality talent. Byrne and Neuman (1992) believe that employer branding messages are like the glue that affects organisational culture through self-selection and similarity attraction. Thus, a persuasive and robust employer-branding message conveys to job applicants an accurate picture of life in a specific firm, and can attract skilled and talented candidates who will strengthen the organisational culture.

Sokro (2012) believes that a firm's brand name significantly influences job seekers' decision to join and remain working with the firm. Saxena (2014) confirms that employer branding is a strategy that provides a distinction between competitors, and creates a better image for an organisation to attract talented employees and retain existing ones. Ahmad and Daud (2016) also concur that employer branding is a contemporary approach that augments a firm's image to attract and retain employees. Khoshnevis and Gholipour (2017) admit that employer branding helps to recruit and retain the best candidates for the job. A more recent study (Adeosun & Ohiani, 2020) suggests that firms can leverage on their brand name to attract and recruit quality talent.

7.5.3 Recruitment and selection

The quantitative and qualitative findings indicate that recruitment and selection are the two most essential TM tools that influence talent identification and attraction within South African HEIs. The quantitative results show a strong positive association between talent identification and attraction and recruitment and selection (r = 0.774, p < 0.01). Additionally, the qualitative findings (N = 9) show that recruitment and selection helped to identify and attract competent, knowledgeable, and skilled employees into South African HEIs. The rapidly changing business environment and vigorous competition for talent, require organisations to adopt new recruitment and selection strategies. Recruitment and selection practices are integral part of staffing practices and strategies, which help in the identification and attraction of human capital for the survival of an organisation. Early writers (Anderson & Shackleton, 1986; Smith et al., 1989) suggest that the quality of applicants attracted into an organisation depends on the effectiveness of the recruitment and selection practices. This implies that recruitment and selection practices play a pivotal role in attracting and retaining human capital within an organisation.

According to Dessler (2000), recruitment and selection practices increase the pool of job applicants at minimal cost. Moreover, Ezeali and Esiagu (2010) postulate that the most talented applicants can be attracted into the organisation through recruitment and selection practices. Silzer and Church (2010) advocate that the recruitment process aims to sustain and retain candidates selected. Gamage (2014) concurs that recruitment seeks to create a pool of suitably qualified candidates to enable the organisation to choose those most qualified.

Tomer (2016) believes that hiring the wrong candidates could spell doom for an organisation, keeping in mind that recruitment and selection are expensive HR activities. Lewis (1984) and Terpstra (1996) argue that the costs of ineffectual commercial viability occur because of an ineffective recruitment and selection process. Although recruitment and selection play vital role in attracting talent they nevertheless have elements of subjective judgement inherent in them. Priyanath (2006) contends that most organisations still struggle to recruit and select employees with the requisite knowledge, skills, and qualifications to help achieve the desired goals. Recruitment and selection practices pay much attention to aligning the capabilities with the inclination of the job applicants rather than with the demands and rewards for a specific job.

7.5.4 Rewards

The qualitative findings (N = 8) suggest that HIEs in South Africa relied on rewards, including salary and benefits, to influence the attraction of highly qualified academics. However, the quantitative study established no relationship between rewards and talent identification and attraction. In recent times, the nature of relationships between employees and employers has changed dramatically, as a result of the different type of rewards which employees prefer. Given the competition for talent, many organisations have shifted their attention towards total rewards as a tool for motivating employees and improving employee engagement. Employee benefits are considered the underlying criterion for employers of choice (Ambler & Barrow, 1996). According to Schlechter et al. (2014), competitive total compensation packages influence talent attraction and retention within organisations. Nienaber et al. (2011) concur that basic pay is the most significant factor in talent attraction. Moreover, Bhengu and Bussin (2012) found that basic monetary compensation influences talent attraction into organisations. Phillips and Gully (2012) also admit that competitive wages and benefits serve to attract and retain employees. Mohanty (2019) agrees with the above scholars that salary and compensation package influence talent attraction into organisations. Adeosun and Ohiani (2020) confirm that firms can leverage on salary to attract and recruit quality talent.

In view of the global economic conditions, the traditional reward systems are no longer adequate for employees who require to be rewarded for the value that they add to the organisation. This perspective has resulted in the shift from either the extrinsic or intrinsic rewards, towards the concept of total rewards (Jacobs et al., 2014). Additionally, Bergmann and Scarpello (2001) concur that organisations that rely mainly on remuneration or monetary compensation as a reward, will face a significant challenge in sustaining the motivation of employees.

7.6 Objective 5: Capacity-building strategies

Objective Five examined the TM practices that influence capacity building/talent development in South African HEIs. This objective was achieved through the quantitative and qualitative phase. The results reveal that the TM practices that impacted capacity building in HEIs were organisational learning, training and development, career planning and management, coaching and mentoring, and succession planning. These findings are discussed as follows.

7.6.1 Organisational learning

The qualitative finding ($N = 11$) shows that organisational learning played a critical role in capacity building within the three South African HEIs. On the contrary, the quantitative results identify no relationship between capacity building and organisational learning in South African HEIs. The qualitative findings reaffirm the results of previous scholarly research. The essence of learning is to enhance the knowledge and skills of employees, contributing to developing and growing the organisation, and building a flexible, dynamic learning organisation. Cook and Yanow (1995) argue from the perspective of the KBV of the firm that organisational learning allows firms to attract, change, and preserve their capabilities. Sessa and London (2006) believe that continuous organisational learning outside formal training and development is critical to intellectual capital development. Moreover, research (Levitt & March, 1988; Szulanski, 2003) suggests that organisational capabilities emerge over time through organisational learning. The purpose of organisational learning is to develop and utilise new knowledge that can change the behaviour of employees, which is ultimately considered the strength of the organisation's competitive position. Kraimer et al. (2011) agree with other scholars that organisational learning contributes to employees' personal growth and career opportunities.

7.6.2 Training and development

The quantitative results indicate a strong positive correlation between capacity building and training and development (r = 0.880, p < 0.01). The qualitative findings (N = 10) also reaffirmed that training and development played a critical role in nurturing and developing talent in South Africa HEIs. These results agreed with empirical research (Babu & Reddy, 2013; Jehanzeb et al., 2013; Spr et al., 2015), which states that training and development addresses the gap between the requirements of a job and the present competence of the worker in relation to job security and skills of the job holders. Training and development is aimed at increasing and updating skills, knowledge, competencies, and experiences of employees. Moreover, Obeidat and Abdallah (2014) assert that the purpose of training and development is to increase and update the skills, knowledge, competencies, and experiences of employees.

A more recent study (Oni-Ojo et al., 2014) suggests that on-the-job training contributes to organisational success, and increases employee performance, as they learn and perform the tasks within the same organisation. By contrast, Hamilton (1990) believes that off-the-job training adds extra value to the training undertaken by younger employees in particular. For instance, it provides them with the opportunity to learn about practices in other companies and to learn skills that might not be utilised in the particular workplace. Rackham (1979) claims that off-the-job training methods are useful for attaining 'knowledge' outcomes. On the other hand, research (Mohd Said et al., 2016) shows that off-the-job training allows employees to take part in training without disruption, the training environment being often arranged in a manner that allows for full concentration of the employees.

7.6.3 Career planning and management

The qualitative and quantitative findings confirm that career planning and management positively influenced capacity building in South African HEIs. The quantitative results reveal a strong positive relationship between capacity building and career planning and management ($r = 0.801$, $p < 0.01$). The qualitative findings ($N = 9$) also confirm that most universities in South Africa introduced career planning and management programmes to help staff acquire and upgrade their skills, knowledge, and competencies required to perform the job more effectively and efficiently. In a highly competitive environment, firms that implement modern career-management approaches are more likely to improve the skills and knowledge of their workforce. Martín et al. (2001) argue that career planning helps organisations to make sure that their employees have the requisite skills and knowledge required. MacDonald and Arthur (2005) concur that career planning helps to align organisational objectives with individuals' goals. Moreover, research (Kong et al., 2012; McQuade & Maguire, 2005) suggests that career development has a significant effect on developing employees' competencies, thereby promoting their employability.

According to Power (2010), firms that implement modern career-management approaches are more likely to improve their employees' skills and knowledge. Church (2014) suggests that career-development plans that comprise transparent and promising succession plans will address the skills shortages in an organisation. Schein and Van Maanen (2016) confirmed that career development plays a pivotal role in retaining and encouraging employees to enrich their skills and commitment to the organisation.

7.6.4 Coaching and mentoring

The qualitative findings ($N = 12$) reveal that, although coaching and mentoring played a crucial role in capacity building, this behaviour is ineffective in South African HEIs. On other hand, the quantitative results establish no relationship between capacity building and coaching and mentoring in South African HEIs. The qualitative findings are consistent with previous research. From the developmental perspective, coaching has a broader and more future-based orientation, focusing on building employees' capacity (Cox & Jackson, 2014; Hawkins & Smith, 2014). According to CIPD (2015), coaching and mentoring are development activities based on one-to-one discussions to improve individuals' skills, knowledge, or performance. Carmel and Paul (2015) conclude that coaching and mentoring provide opportunities for employees with career development, confidence building, collaborative culture, and goal setting. Searby and Armstrong (2016) postulate that coaching and mentoring focus on leadership development in schools. Sharma (2017) suggests that the intangible outcomes of coaching can help organisations achieve their people strategies, especially leadership development and engagement of employees. Kutsyuruba and Godden (2019) discover that coaching and mentoring in education have two common purposes: personal support and professional learning.

7.6.5 Succession planning

The qualitative findings (N = 7) further reveal that, although succession planning contributed to developing the employees' competencies and capacities, it was totally ineffective in South African HEIs. Moreover, the quantitative results establish no relationship between capacity building and succession planning in South African HEIS. Succession planning has three primary goals, namely, identification of critical management positions in the organisation, identification of future vacancies, and identification of managers who fit into the vacancies. Scholarly research (Noe et al., 2004) reveals that succession planning promotes talent development within an organisation. It provides a set of development experiences required by managers for top managerial positions. Rothwell (2010) concurs that succession planning is a driver of career success that influences employees' attitude toward learning, training, and development. By contrast, Day (2007) argues that succession planning only focuses on forecasting, with no attention to development issues.

7.7 Objective 6: Talent retention strategies

Objective Six explored the TM practices that influenced talent retention in South African HEIs. This objective was achieved via qualitative and quantitative research. The quantitative and qualitative research findings confirmed that employer-employee relationship, promotion, and quality of work-life balance were the TM practices that influenced talent attraction into South African HEIs.

7.7.1 Employer-employee relationship

The quantitative results suggest a strong positive correlation between talent retention and employer-employee relationship ($r = 0.976$, $p < 0.01$). By contrast, the qualitative findings (N = reveal that, although the employer-employee relationship plays a unique role in talent retention, the relationship among staff in South African HEIs was problematic. Employee-employer relationship continues to receive scholarly interest from researcher and labour practitioners. Given the growing incidence of workplace conflict and labour dispute globally, the employee-employer relationship is considered a panacea for shaping the employment situation. Building a harmonious working relationship among employment parties, is the initial step in preventing workplace conflict. The purpose of an employer-employee relationship is to create a platform for building mutual respect, cooperation and trust within the workplace. The employee-employer relationship can be enhanced through factors such as trust, respect, confidence building, freedom of association, improving career and salary track, retirement packages, and retention strategies.

Rose (2008) argues that an effective employer-employee relationship is critical to building industrial peace. Sahoo and Saho (2018) observe that cordial employment relations predictors include interpersonal relationships, work environment, and employee welfare. Kim et al. (2017) contend that organisational justice and organisation-employee relationship quality negatively associate turnover intention. On the contrary, Oruh et al. (2020) advocate that managerial employment relations negatively affected the retention of talent in Nigeria. Kim et al. (2017), in their study, also confirm that organisational justice and organisation-employee relationship quality have a negative association with turnover intention.

7.7.2 Employee promotion

The quantitative research (r = 0.747, p < 0.01) indicates a strong correlation between promotion and talent retention. The qualitative findings (N = 7) also confirm that promotion helped to reduce labour turnover in South African HEIs. The study found that the criteria for promotion in South African HEIs were the number of research publications, research supervision, community engagement, funding attracted into the university, and excellent teaching. From an HR standpoint, promotion should be based on merit and accompanied by a rise in salary and additional benefits. Parry and Kelliher (2009) argue that the possibility of promotion influences employees' behaviour in the organisation, and stimulates them to greater abilities to move forward. Furthermore, research (Gomez, 2002; Prasad, 2001) suggests that promotion leads to greater organisational efficiency and high employee morale, thereby resulting in employee retention. Recent evidence (Jolson, 2017; Rice et al., 2020) suggests that the criteria for faculty promotion include teaching competence, grant or funding attached to the university, research productivity, and publications contributions to society.

According to Singh (2012), promotion increases employees' morale, and encourages them to take more interest in their work. Moreover, Sitati et al. (2016) discover that promotion influences talent retention in an organisation. By contrast, De Vito et al. (2018) argue that, although university staff are the building blocks for any university, at times they are denied the opportunity for promotion and pay rise. Institutions that fail to promote their staff could face challenges such as job dissatisfaction and intentions to resign.

7.7.3 Quality of work-life balance

The quantitative results (r = 0.747, $p < 0.01$) show a strong relationship between talent retention and WLB. The qualitative findings (N = 9) also confirm that WLB positively impacted talent retention in HEIs. The findings suggest that the goal of WLB in HEIs was to improve staff working conditions. Presently, many employees are interested in flexible working arrangements which will enable them to balance their private and professional lives. WLB is becoming a critical issue for many employees, and tends to affect many organisations' turnover intention. Osterman (1995) points out that WLB practices comprise institutionalised, structural and procedural work arrangements and formal and informal methods that help people to efficiently manage their work and family lives. The employer's emotional support to the employee through WLB has the potential to minimise the possibility of high turnover intention within the organisation (Karatepe, 2013). Scholars (Mita et al., 2014; Sabri, 2016; Singh & Dubey, 2016), establishing a significant positive relationship between employees' intention to remain and WLB. Similarly, Fayyazi and Aslani (2015) discover that WLB helps to address turnover intention within an organisation. Recent evidence (Shockley et al., 2017) also suggests that WLB contributes to retaining talented employees within an organisation.

However, the effectiveness of WLB in an organisation could be affected by diverse factors, including, but not limited to, job satisfaction, telework, work overload, and job demands. In their study, Roehling et al. (2001), identify the predictors of WLB, namely, salary, flexible working hours, family-friendly work policies and supervisor support.

7.8 Objective 7(a): Relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage

Objective Seven (a) examined the correlation between TM practices (talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent retention) and sustainable competitive advantage in South African HEIs. This objective was achieved via both the qualitative and quantitative study.

The Pearson's coefficient correlation shows a moderate positive correlation between competitive advantage and talent identification and attraction (r = 0.604, $p < 0.01$). The results of the SEM indicate that the path from talent identification and attraction to competitive advantage (TIA= 0.329, $p < 0.000$) was highly significant. Moreover, the results of the multiple regression (β = 0.284, $p < 0.001$) confirm a significant relationship between talent identification and attraction and sustainable competitive advantage. In addition, the qualitative findings (N = 11) show that competitive advantage could be obtained through attraction of highly skilled and talented employees.

Besides this, the findings from the qualitative and quantitative study suggest that capacity-building positively impacted sustainability of South African HEIs. Pearson's correlation coefficient shows a moderate positive relationship between competitive advantage and capacity building (r = 0.579, $p < 0.01$). The results of the multiple regression (β= 0.163, $p < 0.05$) also indicate a significant positive relationship between capacity building and competitive advantage. From the SEM, the path from capacity building to competitive advantage (capacity building = 0.417, $p < 0.000$) shows a high level of significance. The qualitative findings (N = 11) also confirm that a sustainable competitive advantage could be obtained through the ability of HEIs to nurture and develop their intellectual capital.

Additionally, the study found that HEIs could obtain sustainable competitive advantage through talent retention. The Pearson's correlation coefficient indicates a strong positive correlation between competitive advantage and talent retention (r = 0.630, $p < 0.01$). The results of the regression analysis (β= 0.349, $p < 0.001$) also show a significant positive correlation between talent retention and competitive advantage. From the structural model, the path from talent retention to competitive advantage (talent retention = 0.342, $p < 0.000$) was highly significant. The qualitative findings (N = 11) further confirm that South African HEIs could create sustainable competitive through the retention of the right talent required to add value to the organisation.

The above findings agree with existing research (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Egerová, 2013) which states that a positive correlation exists between TM and sustainable competitive advantage. Scholars (Terry, 2008; Avedon & Scholes, 2010; Nouman et al., 2015) argue that firms can obtain a competitive advantage by integrating human resources into business strategies. Furthermore, Al Ariss et al. (2014) and Bali and Dixit (2016) suggest that integrating the corporate culture into the TM is a mandatory step to obtaining a sustainable competitive advantage. Rudhumbu and Maphosa (2015) postulate that TM in HEIs is a relatively new and untapped opportunity, despite its significance in offering HEIs a proven and practical way of gaining competitive advantage. Moreover, research (Daraei et al., 2014; Gateau & Simon, 2017) confirms that TM is the primary source of competitive advantage for HEIs.

Karanja et al. (2018) found that talent acquisition contributes to competitive advantage in telecommunication firms in Nairobi, Kenya. Similarly, AlMannai et al. (2017) discover that TM significantly impacted competitive advantage in Bahrain Post. The findings further indicated that the talent development strategy impacted competitive advantage, followed by the attraction strategy and conservative strategy. By contrast, Ahmadi et al. (2012) discover a negative relationship between talent management and organisational efficiency.

7.9 Objective 7(b): The relationship between talent management practices and scarcity of skills

Objective Seven (b) further explored the impact of TM practices on scarcity of skills in South African HEIs. While the quantitative study establishes no relationship between TM practices and scarcity of skills, the qualitative findings (N = 5) indicate that TM practices positively impacted the scarcity of skills in South African HEIs. These findings also agreed with existing research. Universities all over the world are facing a significant shortage of critical or scarce skills. Several factors have accounted for skills shortage in South Africa. Among them, brain drain has been found the major contributing factor to the skills gap in South African HEIs. Holland et al. (2007) suggest that the global shortage of critical skills has resulted in the talent war. This phenomenon is forcing many firms to develop and initiate strategies to retain their top talent. For instance, the

UKZN implemented an integrated TM policy in 2011, which aims to attract, develop, and retain highly qualified staff, and at the same time, meet the employment equity objectives (Subbaye & Dhunpath, 2016). According to Aiman-Smith et al. (2006), there is a paradigm shift in TM staff retention towards, for example, the global skills shortage for organisations. Bhatnagar (2007) maintains that some firms adopt the TM strategy to manage talented and skilled employees.

Benit et al. (2014) contend that most organisations rely on TM to identify high-potential employees and high performers who are considered competent, engaged, striving to become influential leaders, and who have already displayed these skills. Maheshwari et al. (2017) state that TM practices, such as employer branding, help attract and retain highly skilled employees. In a more recent study, Hongal and Kinange (2020) observe that capacity building strategies such as learning and growth opportunities attract and retain high-performing employees and develop competitive skills.

7.10 Objective 8: Intangible outcomes of talent management practices

Objective Eight determined the intangible outcomes of TM practices in South African HEIs. This objective was achieved through both qualitative and quantitative research. These findings are discussed below.

7.10.1 Organisational trust

The qualitative findings (N = 4) indicate that organisational trust could be built through TM practices. Moreover, the study found that most employees in South African HEIs had trust in their institutions and leaders. On the contrary, the quantitative research finds no relationship between TM practices and organisational trust. The qualitative findings are supported by existing research. A conducive workplace environment suggests that the starting point is created through credibility, respect and fairness, which are the core elements of trust. Trust can also be perceived as the expectations and confidence that both parties will express to achieve mutual benefits. Trust and mutual cooperation can be improved by meeting the expectations of mutually beneficial behaviour. Trust improves relationships, interactions, and cooperation among parties. It also creates added value in the workplace. Furthermore, trust allows people to establish relationships with one another and to depend on one another for care, support, love, and advice. According to Wang and Clegg (2002), trust improves the working relationship between subordinates and their managers.

Chitsaz-Isfahani and Boustani (2014) found a positive association between TM and organisational trust and employee retention within the university. Moreover, Altınöz et al. (2013) comment that the positive changing of mid-range and senior hotel managers' perceptions of TM will have a significant effect on trust within the hotel organisation. Although research (Altınoz et al., 2013; Chitsaz-Isfahani & Boustani, 2014) shows that TM is positively correlated with organisational trust, such studies are very limited in South African HEIs.

7.10.2 Employee engagement

The qualitative findings (N = 7) suggest that employee engagement could be improved through job design, job rotation, and changing jobs, fundamental to TM practices. By contrast, the quantitative results establish no relationship between employee engagement and TM. The qualitative findings reaffirmed the results of existing research (Bhatnagar, 2007), which states that employees are more engaged when they find motivation for their work, receive positive organisational and interpersonal support, and function in a more conducive work environment. The COVID-19 pandemic has created numerous challenges for particularly HRM in organisations, in engaging talented employees. During this era, employee engagement has become the utmost prominent primacies for HRM and practitioners in organisations because of the lockdown restrictions. In view of this, organisations globally are developing innovative and practical measures, such as online family engagement practices, virtual learning and development and online team building activities to keep their employees engaged. It can be argued that TM practices such as organisational learning, training and development, team building, employee counseling, employee recognition, and communication are the TM practices that helped to keep employees engaged during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Research conducted by Barkhuizen et al. (2014) and Kamel (2019) reveal that TM positively influences employee engagement. Pandita and Ray (2018) concur that a substantial relationship exists between TM and employee engagement. In a related study, Dhanalakshmi and Gurunathan (2014) note that an effective TM strategy improves employee engagement, resulting in enhanced organisational performance. Ayub (2017) also agrees that TM positively impacts employee engagement and organisational performance. Recent evidence (Hongal & Kinange, 2020) suggests that, if organisations implement TM strategies effectively, this will enhance employee engagement, resulting in higher productivity. By contrast, Tymon Jr et al. (2010) establish that no relationship exists between TM and employee engagement.

7.10.3 Employee humility

The results of the Pearson's correlation coefficient show a weak positive correlation between talent identification and attraction and humility ($r = 0.241$, $p < 0.01$), capacity building and humility ($r = 0.309$, $p < 0.01$), and retention strategies and humility ($r = 0.282$, $p < 0.01$), respectively. The structural model confirmed that the path from talent identification and attraction to humility (TIA = 0.294, $p < 0.003$) was highly significant. Moreover, the quantitative results suggest that the path from capacity building to humility (capacity building = 0.296, $p < 0.005$) was also highly significant. However, the paths from talent retention to humility indicate no significance level. On the other hand, the qualitative findings ($N = 10$) reveal that humble leaders could be created through TM practices such as succession planning, coaching, mentoring, and career development. Ever since Owens and Hekman (2012) developed the model of Humble Leader behaviour, the concept of humility has gained popularity from scholars and HR practitioners. Humility is a prepositional quality of a person that reflects the self-opinion that something beyond the self exists.

Scholarly research shows that a leader's humility offers strategic value to the organisation, fosters better teamwork, promotes personal growth and development of followers, and reinforces organisational learning orientation, job satisfaction, employee engagement, and performance (Owens et al., 2015). From the social-learning theory perspective, a leader's humility enhances employees' feedback-seeking behaviour, thereby improving their psychological safety and job insecurity (Qian et al., 2020). Moreover, Li et al. (2016) discovered that humble leader behaviour positively influences employee retention. However, Argandona (2015), argues that the concept of humility has not been recognised as one of the chief virtues in the world of business, despite its contribution to the moral quality and the development of human capital in an organisation.

7.10.4 University-industry collaboration

The findings from the quantitative and qualitative research confirm a significant relationship between TM practices and university-industry collaboration in South African HEIs. Pearson's correlation coefficient reveals a moderate positive relationship between talent identification and attraction, university-industry collaboration ($r = 0.528$, $p < 0.01$), capacity building and university-industry collaboration (r = 0.496, p < 0.01), and talent retention and university-industry collaboration (r = 0.462, p < 0.01). Moreover, the SEM results show that the path from talent identification to university-industry collaboration (TIA = 0.540, p < 0.003) indicate a strong significance level. The path from capacity building to university-industry collaboration (capacity building = 0.342, p < 0.002) indicates a high significance level. The path from talent retention to university-industry collaboration (talent retention = 0.15, p < 0.020) indicates a moderate significance. The qualitative findings (N = 9) also confirm that TM could be used as a tool to promote collaboration between institutions and industries. Nowadays, major HEIs are responding to global competition and changes through their integration with industry and partnerships in their programmes. Partnership between universities and industries is a collaborative effort between the two entities which is aimed at sharing their resources in the most effective and efficient manner.

Recent evidence shows that collaboration between HEIs and industries has increasingly been perceived as a vehicle for improving innovation through knowledge exchange (Ankrah & Omar, 2015). Collaborations between academic institutions and industry are strategic tools for strengthening the institution's ability to produce high-quality and innovative research, enhancing its capability to compete internationally. Also, collaboration increases research and development, patenting of innovations and building the organisational capacity in the country. Al-Tabbaa and Ankrah (2015) posit that the collaborations and partnerships between universities and firms have a long tradition in many countries, in which academic institutions are expected to play a critical role towards the socio-economic growth in knowledge-based economies.

7.10.5 Teaching and learning

The quantitative and qualitative research findings confirmed that a significant positive relationship exists between TM practices and teaching. The quantitative results show that TM practices such as talent identification and attraction (r = 0.247, p < 0.01), capacity building (r = 0.247, p < 0.01), and talent retention strategies (r = 0.125, p < 0.01) had a weak positive correlation with teaching and learning. The SEM indicates that the path from talent identification and attraction to teaching and learning (TIA = 0.473, p < 0.000) was highly significant. However, the path from capacity building and talent retention to teaching and learning shows no level of significance. On the other hand, the qualitative findings indicate that TM practices, including recruitment and selection, employer branding, and training and development, could help to improve teaching and learning in

South African HEIs. Teaching and learning is one of the main components when it comes to educational planning. However, in South Africa and other parts of the world, quality teaching and learning is affected by a myriad of factors (Klug et al., 2013). Research (Omolara, 2008) shows that one of the major challenges facing teaching and learning, as well as student performance, is qualifications of teachers. Barber and Mourshed (2007) concur by admitting that quality education cannot exceed the quality of teachers.

Tewari and Ilesanmi (2020) claim that teaching and learning quality depends on the quality of lecturers. It is suggested that more experienced academics, irrespective of their nationality, need to be recruited continually to support teaching and learning (Tewari & Ilesanmi, 2020). According to Badat (2010), teaching and learning challenges could be addressed by creating a new generation of talented and high potential academics.

A study (Bradley, 2016) reveals that TM can provide theoretical support to improve universities performance by aligning their strategies with performance metrics and the day-to-day administration system. Preeti (2015) asserts that TM can be used as a vehicle to enhance faculty members' competency and talent, thus delivering their core responsibilities such as research, teaching, and learning. Divekar and Raman (2020) argue that prudent TM could be a valuable strategy for developing a conceptual model to argument performance in HEIs within the long run by aligning the institution's strategy with performance metrics.

7.10.6 Research output and productivity

While the quantitative results show no relationship between TM practices and research output and publication, the qualitative findings (N = 3) suggest that research output and productivity in South African HEIs could be improved through TM practices. The qualitative findings reveal that TM could contribute to an increase in research output and publication if only the right people with the right skills are recruited and maintained. The qualitative findings are supported by existing research (Eghbal et al., 2017; Elena & Pook, 2013; Walk et al., 2013). HEIs are currently confronting global forces that require innovative research, innovative pedagogies, as well as innovative organisational structure. Aithal (2016) suggests that HEIs can only face the enhanced global competition if they learn to pay critical attention to knowledge production through curriculum-oriented research and publications to improve their research productivity. Knowledge production is only possible if students and staff, are allowed to participate in research activities, publishing new knowledge discovered for the benefit of ~~s~~society and industry.

Naser (2010) asserts that quality education depends on several factors, such as knowledge creation. Innovative research is considered the only tool to create knowledge and to enhance existing knowledge (Naser, 2010). For research to be considered good, there should be able a strong articulation with sound linkages between research and a robust conception of well-being (Hostetler, 2005). The view expressed by Hostetler (2005) underscores a similar observation made by Naledi Pandor, who questioned the quality standard of some journals in South Africa, because some of them are not internationally recognised (Brits, 2011). For example, of 255 accredited South African research journals, only 23 are found in the international index and more than third are not. To increase research output and quality, many HEIs across the globe are adopting TM practices to attract, develop and retain highly qualified academics.

In Germany, evidence suggests that the UoC and the CUAS have introduced TM practices to attract early-stage researchers. According to Walk et al. (2013), the UoC considers the TM programme a key strategy for interdisciplinary research and, at the same time as strengthening the mobility of international researchers. The TM practices and policy at the UoC provide full support to scientists, inventors, and start-up researchers on their ideas relating to intellectual property rights, European Union programmes, and advice on legal aspects (Elena & Pook, 2013). Similarly, the CUAS has initiated a TM policy and strategy, which focuses on the attraction, capacity building, and retention of highly qualified researchers, and on fostering research culture. Eghbal et al. (2017) found that TM and organisational justice contribute to 61% of the variance of the research performance variable at the University of Isfahan, Isfahan University of Medical Sciences, and Isfahan University of Technology.

7.11 Objective 9: The relationship between intangible outcomes and competitive advantage

Objective Nine examined the relationship between intangible outcomes (organisational trust, employee engagement, humility, teaching and learning, university-industry collaboration, and research) and sustainable competitive advantage in HEIs. This objective was achieved via quantitative and qualitative research. The findings are discussed below.

7.11.1 Employee humility and competitive advantage

Both findings confirmed that employee humility positively impacted the sustainability of South African HEIs. The results of the Pearson's correlations indicated a weak positive relationship between competitive advantage and humility (r = 0.240, p < 0.01). The results of the multiple regression (β= 0.098, p < 0.010) suggest a significant relationship between humility and competitive advantage. However, the SEM shows that the path from humility to competitive advantage is insignificant. On the other hand, the qualitative findings confirm that humility, as a leadership quality, could create a sustainable competitive advantage for South African HEIs. A study conducted by Srivastava et al. (2013) reveals that humble leaders deliver sustainable competitive advantage for their organisations. According to (Petrenko et al., Chandler, 2019), firms with more humble leaders will have better market performance because they will derive maximum benefits from the expectation discount in the market. Moreover, Ren et al. (2020) confirm that humility, as a virtue, improves firm performance and promotes sustainable development in the long run.

7.11.2 Teaching and learning and competitive advantage

From the quantitative study, the Pearson's correlation coefficient shows a weak positive correlation between competitive advantage and teaching and learning (r = 0.149, p < 0.05). The results of the regression analysis indicate that teaching and learning made an insignificant contribution to the model. The results of the SEM also confirm that the path from teaching and learning to competitive advantage is insignificant. By contrast, the qualitative findings (N = 6) indicate that quality teaching and learning can only promote universities' sustainability if it leads to acquiring skills, knowledge, and competencies needed in the job markets. The qualitative findings are supported by a study conducted by Supe et al. (2018), which states that innovation-driven teaching influences competitive advantage in HEIs.

7.11.3 University-industry collaboration and competitive advantage

The results of the Pearson's correlation show a strong positive correlation between competitive advantage and university-industry collaboration (r = 0.601, p < 0.01). In addition, the results of the regression analysis (β = 0.596, p < 0.001) indicate a significant positive relationship between university-industry collaboration and competitive advantage. Evidence from the SEM shows that, among the intangible outcomes, only the path from university-industry collaboration to competitive advantage (UIC = 0.672, $p < 0.000$) was highly significant. The qualitative findings ($N = 5$) also reaffirm that a university-industry partnership could promote a sustainable competitive advantage for HEIs through knowledge sharing and technological transfer. Liyanage and Mitcheil (1994) found that collaborations are seen as vehicles that promote a higher level of competitiveness among firms and academic institutions. Collaboration between industries and universities has become a pervasive topic, in which collaboration is seen as an imperative tool for achieving sustainable competitive advantage (Demircioglu & Audretsch, 2019; Alonso et al., 2010). Moreover, research shows that collaboration between universities and industries sharpens their competitive advantage (Bruneel et al., 2010).

7.11.4 Organisational trust and competitive advantage

While the quantitative results seemed to find no relationship between organisational trust and competitive advantage, the qualitative findings ($N = 6$) reveal that building a climate of trust would lead to a competitive advantage. Pavlou (2002) examined trustworthiness as a source of competitive advantage in online auction markets, and found that two forms of trust (credibility and benevolence) positively influenced competitive advantage. In a similar study conducted by Jones and Judge (2002), it was discovered that a significant positive relationship existed between CEO trustworthiness and firm performance. Moreover, Caldwell and Dixon (2010) admit that leaders and organisations can create competitive advantage through building high trust and personal connection that unlocks and empowers the untapped capabilities and overcomes the withheld commitment.

Butler et al. (2016) investigated employer trustworthiness and worker pride as a source of competitive advantage. The results showed that a wholesome workplace environment positively impacted productivity, growth potential, and higher operating profits. Similarly, Ismail et al. (2017) examined the relationship between trust, commitment, and competitive advantage in export performance of small and medium enterprises. The researchers found that a significant positive correlation occurred between trust and commitment and export performance. In addition, the study found that trust affects competitive advantage through commitment (Ismail et al., 2017).

7.11.5 Employee engagement and competitive advantage

The quantitative research appears to find no significant relationship between employee engagement and competitive advantage in South African HEIs. By contrast, the qualitative findings (*N* = 7) suggest that employee engagement encourages and motivates employees to add value to the organisation. Lockwood (2007) and Swarnalatha and Prasanna (2013) remark that employee engagement is the main driver for organisational success. It is argued that high employee engagement enhances talent retention, fosters customer loyalty, and improves organisational outcomes and stakeholder value. Similarly, MacLeod and Clarke (2009) found that firms could increase their competitive advantage and performance through employee engagement. Pillay and Singh (2018) also concur that employee engagement is the integral force in driving organisational success.

7.11.6 Research productivity and competitive advantage

The quantitative results do not appear to establish any relationship between research productivity and competitive advantage. By contrast, the qualitative findings (*N* = 7) suggest that quality research constitutes an important determinant of competitive advantage in academic industry. The study reveals that research productivity seemed to create a competitive advantage for universities because it promotes knowledge sharing and problem-solving. Matkó and Szűcs (2012) argue that macro-environmental factors, such as research and development affect the competitiveness of HEIs. According to Kobets and Masych (2015), the factors that determine the competitiveness of HEIs depend on the educational activity, research publication and quality thereof. Supe et al. (2018) also agree that a well-structured research process impacts the competitiveness of HEIs.

7.12 Objective 10: Intangible outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management and competitive advantage

Objective Ten investigated the extent to which the intangible outcomes act as the interplay between TM practices and sustainable competitive advantage in South African HEIs. This objective was achieved through the quantitative phase. The results indicate that only university-industry partnership positively mediated the relationship between TM practices and competitive advantage among the intangible outcomes. Unfortunately, these findings are not supported by previous empirical research. This calls for further research to establish the mediating role the university-industry plays between TM and competitive advantage.

7.13 Chapter summary

The qualitative findings showed three broad rationales for TM practices in South African HEIs, including talent identification and attraction, talent development, and talent retention. Moreover, the qualitative findings revealed three philosophies underpinned TM practices in HEIs − the people, practices and strategic-pools approach. In addition, the qualitative findings showed that TM practices in HEIs are influenced by diverse factors, including leadership support and commitment, institutional culture, strategic alignment, understanding and knowledge of TM practices, resources, and monitoring and evaluation. Furthermore, the results from the quantitative and qualitative phase showed that talent identification and attraction, capacity building and talent-retention strategies positively influenced intangible outcomes of TM and competitive advantage in South African HEIs. Also, the quantitative results indicated that TM practices positively influenced intangible outcomes such as organisational trust, employee engagement, employee humility, teaching and learning, university industry collaboration and research productivity in South African HEIs.

Chapter Eight: Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the overall conclusions and recommendations based on the empirical evidence from the study. The aim of the study was to investigate the intangible outcomes of TM practices in HEIs. This was achieved by utilising the variables such as humility, teaching and learning, organisational trust, employee engagement, university-industry collaboration, and research output and productivity as the mediating variables in the link between TM practices and competitive advantage. The research questions and objectives that form part of the study were duly investigated and achieved. CFA was employed to analyse the proposed model by following the procedures of SEM. On the other hand, thematic analysis was employed in the qualitative research to identify, analyse and report the themes identified in the study. The key findings of both the qualitative and quantitative research are presented in the chapter. The implications for practice are also part of this chapter. The chapter concludes with the limitation and directions for future research. The research objectives which guide the conclusions and recommendations are:

i. To establish the rationale behind the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
ii. To determine the best approach to the implementation of talent management in higher education institutions;
iii. To investigate the critical success factors that influence the implementation of talent management programmes in higher education institutions;
iv. To identify talent management practices that influence talent identification and attraction into higher education institutions;
v. To ascertain talent management practices that contribute to capacity building in higher education institution;
vi. To examine talent management practices that influence talent retention in higher education institutions;
vii. To establish the type of relationship that exists between talent management practices and competitive advantage;

viii. To examine the relationship between intangible talent management outcomes and competitive advantage;

ix. To explore the relationship between talent management practices and intangible outcomes of talent management; and

x. To evaluate the extent to which intangible talent management outcomes mediate the relationship between talent management practices and competitive advantage

8.2 Key findings from the empirical research

This section summarises the key findings that emerged from the study. The study investigated the rationale behind TM practices in HEIs via a qualitative study. The findings revealed that TM was introduced in South African HEIs for three main reasons: talent identification and attraction, capacity building (talent development), and talent retention.

Moreover, the philosophies that underpin TM in South African HEIs were investigated, via a qualitative study. The findings indicated that TM in South African HEIs was underpinned by three philosophies/approaches: the people approach, the practices approach, and the strategic-pools approach. The people approach to TM assumed that human resources are rare, challenging, and difficult to replace. The practices approach was also based on the belief that sophisticated techniques are critical to achieving organisational goals and objectives. On the other hand, the strategic-pools approach sought to achieve excellence in obtaining the right skills for the job, thereby moving South African HEIs forward, as per their vision.

Furthermore, the qualitative study examined the critical success factors that influence TM practices in South African HIEs. The findings revealed that TM practices in South Africa were influenced by several factors, including leadership support and commitment, institutional culture, strategic alignment, and limited knowledge and understanding of TM practices and resources.

Additionally, both the qualitative and quantitative research investigated the TM practices that impact talent identification and attraction into HEIs in South Africa. The findings indicated that the primary TM practices that impacted talent identification and attraction were job analysis, employer branding, recruitment and selection, and rewards.

The qualitative and quantitative research further investigated the TM practices that influence capacity building (talent development) in South African HEIs. Based on the data analysis, the study found that the TM practices that significantly impacted capacity building were training and development, organisational learning, coaching and mentoring, career planning and development, and succession planning. The qualitative findings suggest that, although succession planning and coaching, and mentoring influenced talent development, they were very ineffective in South African HEIs.

The TM practices that influence talent retention in South African HEIs were further investigated through both a qualitative and quantitative study. The results of both studies revealed that the TM practices that significantly impacted talent retention included employee promotion, employer-employer relationship, and quality of WLB.

The quantitative and qualitative studies examined the relationship between TM practices and sustainable competitive advantage and scarcity of skills in South African HEIs. The quantitative results showed a moderate positive correlation between competitive advantage and talent identification and attraction. Moreover, a moderate positive relationship existed between competitive advantage and capacity building. Also, a significant relationship occurred between competitive advantage and talent retention. Additionally, the quantitative study found no relationship between TM practices and scarcity of skills. On other hand, the qualitative findings confirmed that TM practices, such as talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent retention had a significant effect on competitive advantage and scarcity of skills in South African HEIs.

The relationship between the intangible outcomes and sustainable competitive advantage was examined in South African HEIs via the quantitative and qualitative research. The quantitative results showed a weak positive relationship between competitive advantage and humility. Besides this, a weak positive relationship was seen between competitive advantage and teaching and learning. Additionally, a strong positive relationship existed between competitive advantage and university-industry collaboration. Moreover, the quantitative study found no relationship between employee engagement, organisational trust, research productivity, and competitive advantage, respectively. By contrast, the qualitative findings suggested that the humility, teaching and learning, university-industry collaboration, employee engagement, and research productivity contributed to competitive advantage in South African HEIs.

The relationships between TM practices (talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent retention) and intangible outcomes (humility, teaching and learning, and university-industry collaboration) in South African HEIs were examined quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative results revealed that talent attraction positively impacted humility, teaching and learning. Furthermore, a moderate positive correlation existed between talent identification and attraction and university-industry collaboration. The results showed a weak positive correlation between capacity building and humility and teaching and learning. Also, a moderate positive relationship was noted between capacity building and university-industry collaboration. Again, a weak positive relationship was reflected between talent retention and humility and teaching and learning, respectively. However, a moderate positive correlation existed between talent-retention strategies and university-industry collaboration. The qualitative findings confirmed that TM practices had a significant influence on the intangible outcomes in South African HEIs.

Lastly, the quantitative study examined the mediation role of the intangible outcomes between TM practices and competitive advantage in South African HEIs. The results indicated that university-industry collaboration made the most considerable contribution to the model, followed by humility. However, teaching and learning made an insignificant contribution to the model. The recommendations of the study are provided below.

8.3 Recommendations of the study

Based on the results from the objectives and hypotheses, the following practical recommendations should be implemented by HEIs in South Africa.

8.3.1 Recommendation 1: Succession planning

Succession planning is considered a vital HR tool in the tight managerial transition process in a competitive environment. Succession planning helps to identify and develop potential successors for key managerial positions in an organisation, through performance evaluation and training of employees with high potential who can make a difference to the organisation. Moreover, succession planning ensures leadership continuity, retaining and developing human capital for the future. Unfortunately, the findings revealed that planning in South African universities remains ineffective. The study found that lack of leadership was the cause of inadequate succession planning in South African HEIs. Against this backdrop, the study recommends effective implementation, monitoring and evaluation of succession planning programmes in HEIs. Management of HEIs must incorporate succession planning into their strategic planning processes. Additionally, management should initiate discussions with their employees concerning legacy planning. The leadership should identify and develop employees who have the leadership potential of replacing senior managers in the event of death, resignation, or transfer.

8.3.2 Recommendation 2: Coaching and mentoring

Coaching and mentoring are traditional approaches to developing employees' skills, competencies, experience, and knowledge. Effective coaching and mentoring help develop specific skills of employees required to meet the firm's performance standards. Moreover, coaching and mentoring result in intangible outcomes such as increased self-esteem. Among the capacity-building strategies, coaching and mentoring are seen as the best strategies for providing support to employees to realise their full potential. However, the findings from this study showed that coaching and mentoring were ineffective in South African HEIs owing to lack of coaches and mentors. Based on the findings, the study recommends proper implementation of coaching and mentoring programmes into HEIs. To ensure the successful implementation of coaching and mentoring programmes, the management of HEIs should employ professional people to act as coaches and mentors for staff, especially for new recruits. Additionally, leadership of HEIs should encourage employees to participate in the coaching and mentoring programmes available.

8.3.3 Recommendation 3: Leadership support and commitment

Leadership support and commitment are important organisational factors affecting talent development, retention, and performance in any organisations. From the perspective of organisational support theory, line-manager support, and commitment influence employees commitment towards their organisations. For TM to be implemented, total support and commitment from top management in HIEs is required. However, the findings from this research are contrary to existing literature. The study found that lack of leadership buy-in served as a barrier to the effectiveness of TM in South Africa. In view of the findings, the study recommends the need for leadership support and commitment to TM programmes. The leadership in HEIs should be willing to invest in TM both financially and non-financially. Moreover, they should be in a position to support the managers designated to ensure that TM programmes are implemented, monitored, and evaluated effectively and efficiently.

8.3.4 Recommendation 4: Alignment between talent management and business strategies

The alignment between a firm's strategic business objectives and organisational policies has recently received research attention. Proper alignment of a firm's strategies with its objectives is necessary for creating a sustainable competitive advantage. However, the study found that South African HEIs faced the challenge of aligning their strategic business objectives with their TM policies and practices. It was observed that TM practices and policies in most institutions in South Africa failed because they were not in alignment with the strategic goals and objectives. For this reason, the study recommends the integration of TM practices into the strategic objectives of HEIs. For TM to be implemented successfully in HIEs, it must be aligned with the business strategies. A strong link between TM practices and corporate strategy will result in higher organisational performance. This study recommends that TM practices be integrated into the corporate strategy. The integration of TM practices into the corporate strategy will lead to organisational outcomes such as increased profitability and market share, company attractiveness, customer satisfaction, and employee commitment.

8.3.5 Recommendation 5: Regular monitoring and evaluation of talent management practices

Monitoring and evaluation are critical tools for assessing the performance of a programme of action. By contrast, this study found that lack of monitoring and evaluation affected the effectiveness of TM in most South African HEIs. Based on the findings, the study recommends monitoring and evaluation of TM practices and programmes at regular intervals. Management of HEIs should continue to monitor the deviations from plans and take corrective actions to address the shortcomings associated with the TM programmes. Moreover, management of HEIs should appoint a competent TM manager or committee to take responsibility for the monitoring and evaluation process.

8.3.6 Recommendation 6: Investment in human capital development

Of recent times, universities all over the world are facing significant challenges which threaten their sustainability. These challenges include scarcity of critical skills, competition for talent, labour turnover, globalisation, and currently the COVID-19 pandemic. Among these challenges, COVID-19 affects universities the most, having brought about significant disruption to universities academic programmes, globally. This pandemic has changed, and will continue to change, the way in which universities conduct their business. For universities to navigate the trying changes brought on by COVID-19 and, at the same time, achieve sustainability, they need to protect their human capital from being eroded. This can be achieved by ensuring that their skills, knowledge, and experience are continuously and regularly developed. The study found that, although most South African universities invest in the development of their employees, there is limited opportunity available, especially for the junior employees. Against this background, the study recommends that HIEs invest in their human capital post this global-health crisis. Furthermore, the leadership of HEIs must encourage knowledge sharing among staff members.

8.4 Limitations and directions for future research

This study attempted to create in-depth knowledge in an area where there exists limited research into South African HEIs. The study adopted mixed methods to investigate the intangible outcomes of TM practices in South African HEIs. Therefore, the outcomes of the study must be limited to HIEs in South Africa only. A comparative study could have been conducted between HEIs and industries on the chosen phenomenon. Therefore, future research on intangible TM practices should combine both HEIs and industries. Moreover, the findings revealed that employer branding is a relatively new HRM concept that remains untapped. Future research should explore employer branding as a sustainability tool for HEIs. Furthermore, the findings revealed that capacity-building strategies such as succession planning, coaching and mentoring were poorly implemented in South African HEIs for various reasons. Such reasons include, but are not limited to leadership changes, unavailability of coaches and mentors, and leadership buy-in. Hence, future research should explore how succession planning and coaching and mentoring could be implemented more effectively and efficiently within South African HEIs.

Additionally, the study investigated the link between intangible outcomes such as organisational trust, humility, employee engagement, university-industry collaboration, teaching and learning, and competitive advantage. However, the results indicated that, among the intangible outcomes, only university-industry collaboration mediated the relationship between TM and competitive advantage. Further study is required to establish the mediating role of employee engagement, organisational trust, and humility between TM and sustainable competitive advantage.

8.5 Chapter summary

The study investigated the intangible outcomes of TM practices within South African HEIs. The objectives and hypotheses formulated were achieved via the SEM, as illustrated in Chapter Five. On the other hand, the themes that emerged from the qualitative study were presented thematically, as shown in Chapter Six. The qualitative findings demonstrated that TM was introduced into South African HEIs for three main reasons: talent identification and attraction, capacity building, and talent development. The qualitative results also suggested that the philosophies underpinning TM practices in South African HEIs were the people approach, the practice approach, and the strategic-pools approach. Additionally, the findings indicated that the critical success factors that influenced TM practices in South African HEIs were alignment between TM practices and business strategy, leadership commitment and support, limited resources, and little knowledge and understanding of TM practices. Furthermore, the findings showed a significant relationship between TM practices and competitive advantage. The results also indicated an association between intangible outcomes such as humility and university-industry collaboration, and sustainable competitive advantage in South African HEIs. The chapter further provided recommendations to South African HEIs and policymakers concerning how TM practices could be implemented more effectively and efficiently. It is recommended that HEIs and firms pay critical attention to succession planning, coaching, and mentoring. Furthermore, it is recommended that TM practices be aligned with the strategies of HEIs.

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Appendix A: Interview Grid

Section B: Rationale Behind Talent Management [TM] in HEIs

B1. Which of these factors underpin the rationale behind TM programme in your institution?

- Competition for talent
- Scarcity of skills
- Under-utilisation of talent
- Labour market conditions
- Diversity, fairness and equality

Section C: TM Philosophies/Approaches

C1. Which of these TM philosophies is adopted by your institution and why?

- People approach
- Practice approach
- Position approach
- strategic pools

Section D: TM Strategies

D1. How do the following strategies support TM programme in your institution?

- Talent identification and attraction
- Talent development
- Talent retention

Section E: TM and TM outcomes

E1. How does TM impact on the following activities in your institution?

- Organisational trust
- Staff humility
- Employee engagement
- Collaboration
- Teaching and learning
- Creativity and innovation research

Section F: TM Practices and Competitive Advantage

F1. How do the following TM practices influenced competitive advantage in you institution?

- Talent identification and attraction
- Capacity building/talent development
- Talent retention

Section G: TM Practices and Scarcity of Skills

G1. Describe how the following TM practices can help address scarcity of skills in your institution.

- Talent identification and attraction
- Capacity building/talent development
- Talent retention

Section H: Intangible Outcomes and Competitive Advantage

H1. Describe how the following intangible outcomes of TM influence competitive advantage in your institution.

- Organisational trust
- Staff humility
- Employee engagement
- Collaboration
- Teaching and learning
- Creativity and innovation research

Section I: Challenges of TM Programme in HEIs

I1. What are the challenges experienced by your institution when implementing TM programme?

…………………………………………………………………………………………….
…………………………………………………………………………………………….

I2. Is there any further comment or recommendation you would like to make with respect to this interview?

…………………………………………………………………………………………………
…………………………………………………………………………………………………

Appendix B : Questionnaire

Section A : Demographic Information

This part of the questionnaire contains questions on the demographic information of the participants in terms of gender, age, race, educational qualification, position currently occupied, tenure, employment status, institution and faculty.

Please indicate your selection with an **[X].**

A1. What is your gender?

1	Male	
2	Female	
3	Other	

A2. Which age group do you belong to?

1	20-25 years	
2	26-30 years	
3	31-35 years	
4	36-40 years	
5	41-45 years	
6	46-50 years	
7	51-60 years	
8	61 years and above	

A3. What is your race?

1	African	
2	Indian	
3	Coloured	
4	White	
5	Other (please specify)	

A4. What is your highest qualification?

1	Diploma	
2	Postgraduate Diploma	

3	Bachelor’s Degree	
4	Honours/BTech	
5	Masters	
6	Doctorate	
7	Other (please specify)	

A5. Which position do you currently occupy?

1	Junior Lecturer	
2	Lecturer	
3	Senior Lecturer	
4	Associate Professor	
5	Professor	
6	Professor Emeritus	
7	Cluster Leader	
8	Dean	
9	Other (Please specify)	

A6. How long have you been working in this institution?

1	< 2 years	
2	2-5 years	
3	6-10 years	
4	11-15 years	
5	16-20 years	
6	> 21 years	

A7. What is the nature of your employment?

1	Full-time	
2	Fixed-term	
3	Contract	
4	Other (please specify)	

A8. Which institution do you work in?

1	University of Cape Town	

2	University of KwaZulu-Natal	
3	University of Pretoria	
4	Other (please specify)	

A9. Which faculty do you belong to?

1	Business/Commerce	
2	Education	
3	Health Sciences	
4	Engineering & Built Environment	
5	Humanities	
6	Law	
7	Science	
8	Theology and Religion	
9	Natural and Agricultural Sciences	
10	Other (please specify)	

Section B: Talent Management Strategies

The following statements require information about talent management strategies such as talent attraction, development and retention in HEIs. Please on the scale of 1-5, indicate your agreement with each statement. The weight-scoring are: Strongly Disagree (SD) =1; Disagree (D) = 2; Neither Agree nor Disagree (NA/DA) = 3; Agree (A) = 4; and Strongly Agree (SA) = 5.

No	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	Job Analysis					
JA1	The duties of the staff in this university are clearly set out and defined in the job advertisement					
JA2	The attitudes expected of the staff are also clearly defined in the job advertisement					
JA3	The expected work experience of the staff is clearly stated in the advertisement					
JA4	The qualification for a job in the university is stated in the job advertisement					
	Employer Branding					

EB1	The university has a good reputation as an employer of choice in the education sector					
EB2	The reputation of the university makes it the university of choice					
EB3	I determined the reputation of the university before applying for the job					
EB4	The work culture in the university is a healthy one that promotes work					
EB5	The university allows staff to exercise discretion					
EB6	There is a good employer-employee relationship in this university					
Recruitment & Selection Practices						
RSP1	The university has a clear policy on recruitment and selection practices					
RSP2	Vacancies within the university are clearly advertised for candidates to apply					
RSP3	Vacancies are advertised in the recruit medium for people to apply					
RSP4	Applicants are given the opportunity to attend job interviews					
RSP5	The interviews are conducted by panel of experts					
RSP6	Candidates are selected for the job based on qualification, experience, knowledge and skills acquired					
RSP7	The recruitment and selection practices in the university are done in a more transparent and fair manner					
Training & Development						
TD1	The university has a clear policy on training and development					
TD2	There is enough opportunities for training and development within the university					
TD3	There is an opportunity for transfer of knowledge in the university after staff complete their training and development programmes					
TD4	The training and development opportunities in the university helped staff to become more creative and innovative in their job					

Coaching & Mentoring						
CM1	My institution has a policy on coaching and mentoring					
CM2	The university has employed professionals as coaches and mentors for staff					
CM3	The coaches/mentors often clarify staff understanding of what their role entails					
CM4	The coaches/mentors let staff know how they are performing relative to others					
CM5	The coaches/mentors usually challenge staff by asking incisive questions					
CM6	The coaches/mentors are knowledgeable with respect to the applicable rules and skills in the relevant fields within the university					
CM7	The coaches/mentors provide ideas about how things are done in other institutions					
CM8	The coaches/mentors share stories from their own experience with the staff in the university					
Career Planning & Management						
CPM1	The university has a clear policy on career planning and management					
CPM2	Academics in the university are informed of the career opportunities available					
CMP3	Academics are aware of the career planning and opportunities available in the university					
CPM4	Academics are encouraged to develop their knowledge and skills					
CPM5	Academics in the university receive support towards their career management and development					
CMP6	There exists opportunity for career training in this university					
Succession Planning						
SP1	My institution has included succession planning in its strategic planning processes					
SP2	The University Council initiates discussions about leadership legacy planning with the VC and other executives					

SP3	In my institution, the VC initiates leadership legacy planning discussions with the University Council					
SP4	The university evaluates and manages staff performance					
Employer-Employee Relationship						
EER1	I find it easy to communicate with my line manager					
EER2	My line trusts me even when I make genuine mistakes					
EER2	My line manager is always happy to listen to my recommendations					
EER3	My line manager is always accessible					
EER4	My line manager respects me					
EER5	My supervisor provides me with relevant information pertinent to my job					
EER6	I have quality relationship with my line manager					
Promotion						
P1	There exist several opportunities for promotion in my university					
P2	Research output is considered as a criterion for promotion					
P3	Quality of teaching is considered when it comes to promotion in the university					
P4	Service to the community is considered as a criterion for promotion in the university					
Quality of Work Life						
QWL1	I have good friends at work					
QWL2	I feel appreciated at work					
QWL3	I feel that my job allows me to realise my full potential					
QWL4	There is a lot of creativity involved in my job					
	Innovative Research					
IR1	The university has enough resources to support innovative research					
IR2	I am being encouraged to publish paper in high impact factor and accredited journals					

IR3	Promotion within the university is based on number of articles published in journals					
IR4	The university has competent and professional academics to contribute to increase in research output					
IR5	Academics in this university receive salary rise for the number of papers published					
IR6	Academics in the university are recognised for their contribution towards innovative research					
IR7	Academics in this university are encouraged to collaborate with others in research publication					

Section C: Talent Management Outcomes

The following statements require information about talent management outcomes in HEIs. Please on the scale of 1-5, indicate your agreement with each statement. The weight-scoring are: Strongly Disagree (SD) =1; Disagree (D) = 2; Neither Agree nor Disagree (NA/DA) = 3; Agree (A) = 4; and Strongly Agree (SA) = 5.

No	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
	Organisational Trust					
OT1	My needs are taken into account when decisions are made					
OT2	The authorities do their best to be fair to all staff in the university					
OT3	My superior gives me an honest explanation for decisions					
OT4	My superior considers my views when decisions are made					
	Employee Engagement					
EE1	My superior seems concerned about my welfare					
EE2	The mission of the institution makes me feel like the work I do matters					
EE3	I have friends at work					
EE4	While on the job, my ideas and opinions are taken seriously					
EE5	The materials, tools and equipment that I need to do my job are supplied by the institution and made readily available					
EE6	The people I work with do a good job					
	Humility					
H1	I have accurate self-awareness					

H2	I have an open-minded attitude and desire to learn from and through others					
H3	I have the willingness to acknowledge and accept the views and feedback of others					
H4	I have high sense of focus at work					
H5	I am much concern of superior performance in this university					
H6	I am willing to acknowledge and appreciate the strengths and contributions of others					
H7	I have the understanding of the diverse role others play in this university					
	Creativity & Innovation					
CI1	I am encouraged to produce original ideas for doing things differently in the university					
CI2	I am encouraged to break rule and take risks in order to change things in the university					
CI3	I am abreast of the latest developments in the university and outside world					
CI4	I am encouraged to communicate ideas clearly					
CI5	I have done more than what is expected of me by the university					
	Teaching & Learning					
TL1	I am easily accessible by my students					
TL2	I am satisfied that I do inform students of the competencies they will be expected to acquire					
TL3	I provide students with scientific information to allow them to gain a better and deeper understanding of the subject matter					
TL4	I am glad that I do present content following a clear and logical framework, highlighting the important aspects					
TL5	I allow and encourage student participation in class					
TL6	I relate my teachings to the professional environment					
TL7	I encourage teamwork in class					
	University-Industry Collaboration					
UIC1	There exists collaboration agreement between the university and industry					

UIC2	The university and industry often exchange their workforce or personnel					
UIC3	The university assists in the training and development of firms workforce					
UIC4	The university does consultancy work for the industry					
UIC5	The university undertakes joint ventures or joint patents with firms					
UIC6	The university and industry engages in joint research and development projects					
UIC7	The university sometimes enter into agreement to rent facilities and equipment from firms					

Section D: Scarcity of Skills and Competitive Advantage

The following statements require information about the relationship between TM outcomes, scarcity of skills and competitive advantage in HEIs. Please indicate your agreement with each statement.

No	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
	Scarcity of Skills					
SS1	I have the ability to perform assigned tasks in this university					
SS2	I have the minimum qualification required for the job					
SS3	I have the right skills and competencies for my current job					
SS4	I acquired special skills such as research, communication, analytical, technical and problem-solving to enable me to perform the task					
SS5	There exists several opportunities for training and development for academics in this university					
SS6	There exists several HRM practices and strategies to retain skilled academics in this university					
SS7	The universities considers investing in my training and developmental needs					
	Competitive Advantage					
CA1	The university recognises academics as valuable resources which are very distinctive from other resources					
CA2	The university considers academics as rare resources which are very difficult for other institutions to acquire					

CA3	Academics in my university are considered as resources which cannot be imitated by other universities					
CA4	The university recognises academics as key resources which are difficult to replace with another strategic equivalent					
CA5	The university is committed to the well-being of all staff including academics					
CA6	The academics in my institution are fully utilised to the best of their advantage					

Appendix C: Information Sheet and Consent to Participate in Research

UKZN Humanities Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC)

Application for Ethics Approval

For research with human participants

Date: 18 March 2020

Greetings,

My name is Lawrence Abiwu, a doctoral student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal in the School of Management, IT and Governance. My email address is 214576492@ukzn.ac.za and cell phone number is [redacted] Prof. Isabel De A. Martins is my supervisor, who is also located at the University of KwaZulu-Natal in the School of Management, IT and Governance. Her email address is martinsm@ukzn.ac.za and telephone number is 031-2607047.

You are being invited to consider participating in a study that involves research into "**Intangible Outcomes of Talent Management Practices in Selected South African Higher Education Institutions"**. The aim and purpose of this research is to investigate the intangibles-intellectual capital of TM in HEIs including organisational trust, employee engagement, creativity and innovation, collaboration, research and teaching and employee humility. In addition, the study seeks to develop a TM conceptual model that will assist HEIs to attract, develop and retain high performing academics. The study is expected to include 347 research participants from selected HEIs in South Africa, namely: University of Cape Town (UCT), University of Pretoria (UP) and University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN). The study will draw 116 participants from each institution with the exception of UP, where 115 participants will be selected. It will involve the following procedures. Firstly, the list and contact details of the research participants will be collected from the HR Manager, Registrar or appropriate office in each institution. Secondly, the participants will be contacted through email, telephone as well as a visit to their respective offices for participation in the study. Thirdly, an informed consent form will be attached to each research instrument (questionnaire and interview guide) to seek for the participants voluntary participation in the study. Fourthly, those participants who consent to participate voluntarily in the study will be recruited. Lastly, arrangements will be made with all the participants in terms of when, how and where the study would be conducted. The duration of your participation if you choose to participate and remain in the study is expected to be approximately two months. The study is not funded by any individual, group or organisation.

The study does not involve any risk and/or discomfort. I hope that the study when completed will create the following benefits, namely: contributes to the attraction, development and development of highly talented staff in HEIs; helps to reduce the brain drain and skills shortage in HEIs; and help improve organisational trust, communication, collaboration, engagement, research and teaching, creativity and innovation among staff in HEIs. In addition, the study will add to the body of knowledge on TM and will be a reference point of material for academics, students, practitioners and scholars. Furthermore, the study outcomes of the study will help in the practical implementation of TM within the HEI context, as well as in the organisational settings. Moreover, the study will look at inclusivity (equal opportunities) in the South African HEIs. The study does not involve any further procedure or treatment.

This study has been ethically reviewed and approved by the UKZN Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (approval number HSSREC/00000852/2019).

In the event of any problems or concerns/questions you may contact the researcher at the University of KwaZulu-Natal on the contact details above or the UKZN Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee, contact details as follows:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION
Research Office, Westville Campus
Govan Mbeki Building
Private Bag X 54001
Durban 4000   KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: 27 31 2604557- Fax: 27 31 2604609
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Your participation in the study is voluntary and by participating, you are granting the researcher permission to use your responses. You may refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at any time with no negative consequence. There will be no monetary gain from participating in the study. Your anonymity will be maintained by the researcher and the School of Management, I.T. & Governance and your responses will not be used for any purposes outside of this study.

All data, both electronic and hard copy, will be securely stored during the study and archived for 5 years. After this time, all data will be destroyed.

If you have any questions or concerns about participating in the study, please contact me or my research supervisor at the numbers listed above.
Sincerely

[redacted]

Lawrence Abiwu

Consent to Participate

I, ……………………………………………………………………………..have been informed about the study entitled "**Intangible Outcomes of Talent Management Practices in Selected South African Higher Education Institutions** " by Lawrence Abiwu. I understand the purpose and procedures of the study.

I have been given an opportunity to ask questions about the study and have had answers to my satisfaction.

I declare that my participation in this study is entirely voluntary and that I may withdraw at any time without affecting any of the benefits that I usually am entitled to.

If I have any further questions/concerns or queries related to the study I understand that I may contact the researcher at the University of KwaZulu-Natal on 214576492@stu.ukzn.ac.za /[redacted]

If I have any questions or concerns about my rights as a study participant, or if I am concerned about an aspect of the study or the researchers then I may contact:

HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES RESEARCH ETHICS ADMINISTRATION
Research Office, Westville Campus
Govan Mbeki Building
Private Bag X 54001
Durban
4000
KwaZulu-Natal, SOUTH AFRICA
Tel: 27 31 2604557 - Fax: 27 31 2604609
Email: HSSREC@ukzn.ac.za

Additional consent, where applicable

I hereby provide consent to:

Audio-record my interview / focus group discussion YES / NO

Signature of Participant **Date**

Appendix D: Ethics Approval

UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

20 February 2020

Mr Lawrence Abiwu (214576492)
School Of Man Info Tech &Gov
Westville Campus

Dear Mr Abiwu,

Protocol reference number: HSS/EC/00000862/2019
Project title: Intangible Outcomes of Talent Management Practices in Selected South African Higher Education Institutions
Degree: PhD

Approval Notification – Expedited Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application received on 20 November 2019 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and the protocol has been granted FULL APPROVAL

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment/modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number. PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

<u>This approval is valid until 20 February 2021.</u>
To ensure uninterrupted approval of this study beyond the approval expiry date, a progress report must be submitted to the Research Office on the appropriate form 2 - 3 months before the expiry date. A close-out report to be submitted when study is finished.

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours sincerely,

[redacted]

Dr Shamila Naidoo (Deputy Chair)

/dd

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Tel: +27 31 260 8350 / 4557 / 3587
Website: http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/

Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

INYUVESI YAKWAZULU-NATALI

22 November 2019

Mr Lawrence Abiwu (214576492)
School Of Man Info Tech &Gov
Westville Campus

Dear Mr Abiwu,

Protocol reference number: HSSREC/00000852/2019
Project title: Intangible Outcomes of Talent Management Practices in Selected South African Higher Education Institutions

Provisional Approval – Expedited Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application received on 20 November 2019 in connection with the above, was reviewed by the Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee (HSSREC) and Provisional Approval have been granted subject to the following:

- Gatekeeper permission letter(s) obtained

Kindly upload your response on the RIG online system as soon as possible.

This approval is granted provisionally and the final clearance for this project will be given once the above-mentioned condition(s) has been met. Note that data collection may not proceed until final ethics approval letter has been issued after the remaining conditions have been met and approved by the research ethics committee.

Yours faithfully

[redacted]

Professor Urmilla Bob
University Dean of Research

/dd

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
Dr Rosemary Sibanda (Chair)
UKZN Research Ethics Office Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000
Website: http://research.ukzn.ac.za/Research-Ethics/

Founding Campuses: Edgewood Howard College Medical School Pietermaritzburg Westville

Appendix E: Gatekeeper Letters

Faculty of Commerce

[redacted]

[redacted] Fax: +27 (0) 21 650 4369 [redacted]

[redacted]

Lawrence Abiwu **24/12/2019**

School of Management Studies

University of Cape Town

REF: REC 2919/012/020

Intangible Outcomes of Talent Management Practices in Selected South African Higher Education Institutions

We are pleased to inform you that your ethics application has been approved. Unless otherwise specified this ethical clearance is valid until **31 December 2020.**

Your clearance may be renewed upon application.

Please be aware that you need to notify the Ethics Committee immediately should any aspect of your study regarding the engagement with participants as approved in this application, change. This may include aspects such as changes to the research design, questionnaires, or choice of participants.

The ongoing ethical conduct throughout the duration of the study remains the responsibility of the principal investigator.

We wish you well for your research.

[redacted]

Commerce Research Ethics Chair
University of Cape Town
Commerce Faculty Office
Room 2.26 | Leslie Commerce Building
Office Telephone: +27 (0)21 650 2695 / 4375
Office Fax: +27 (0)21 650 4369
E-mail: com-faculty@uct.ac.za
Website: https://www.commerce.uct.ac.za/Pages/Ethics-in-Research

_ "Our Mission is to be an outstanding teaching and research university, educating for life and addressing the challenges facing our society."

UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL
INYUVESI
YAKWAZULU-NATALI

15 October 2019

Mr Lawrence Abiwu (SN 214576492)
School of Management, IT and Governance
College of Law and Management Studies
UKZN
Westville Campus
Email: 214576492@stu.ukzn.ac.za

Dear Mr Abiwu

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Gatekeeper's permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) towards your postgraduate studies, provided Ethical clearance has been obtained. We note the title of your research project is:

"Intangible Outcomes of Talent Management Practices in Selected South African Higher Education Institutions."

It is noted that you will be constituting your sample by handing out questionnaires and/or conducting interviews with academic staff members at UKZN.

Please ensure that the following appears on your notice/questionnaire:

- Ethical clearance number;
- Research title and details of the research, the researcher and the supervisor;
- Consent form is attached to the notice/questionnaire and to be signed by user before he/she fills in questionnaire;
- gatekeepers approval by the Registrar.

You are not authorized to contact staff and students using 'Microsoft Outlook' address book. Identity numbers and email addresses of individuals are not a matter of public record and are protected according to Section 14 of the South African Constitution, as well as the Protection of Public Information Act. For the release of such information over to yourself for research purposes, the University of KwaZulu-Natal will need express consent from the relevant data subjects. Data collected must be treated with due confidentiality and anonymity.

Yours sincerely

[redacted]

DR KE CLELAND
REGISTRAR (ACTING)

Office of the Registrar
Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban, South Africa

UNIVERSITEIT VAN PRETORIA
UNIVERSITY OF PRETORIA
YUNIBESITHI YA PRETORIA

Office of the Registrar

2020-02-13

Mr Lawrence Abiwu
Department of Human Resource Management
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
Email: AbiwuL@ukzn.ac.za

Dear Mr Abiwu

APPROVAL OF RESEARCH STUDY

The UP Survey Coordinating Committee has granted provisional approval for your PhD research study titled "Intangible Outcomes of Talent Management Practices in Selected South African Higher Education Institutions".

The proposed research study has to strictly adhere to the associated study protocol, as well as the UP Survey Policy and the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Humanities instructions.

A final electronic copy of the research outcomes must be submitted to the Survey Coordinating Committee as soon as possible after the completion of the study.

Please liaise with the Market Research Office in the Department of Institutional Planning (carlien.nell@up.ac.za) to officially register the study and to finalise the survey procedures and the field work dates.

Kind regards

[redacted]

Prof CMA Nicholson
REGISTRAR
CHAIRPERSON: SURVEY COORDINATING COMMITTEE

Rectorate, Room 4-23, 4th floor, Administration Building, Hatfield Campus Kantoor van die Registrateur
University of Pretoria, Private Bag x20Ofisi ya MmuSakarolo
Hatfield 0028, South Africa
Tel: +27 (0)12 420 4236 Fax: +27 (0)12 420 5849 Email: regis@up.ac.za www.up.ac.za

Appendix F: Turnitin Report

Last Edited Thesis-Lawrence Abiwu

ORIGINALITY REPORT

9%	6%	4%	3%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

Appendix G: Proof of Language Editing

pinpoint
Proofreading Services

Lydia Weight
NTSD English Specialist
SACE No: 11135129

E-mail: lydiaweight@gmail.com

Pinpoint Proofreading Services

40 Ridge Rd

Kloof

Durban

3610

16 June 2021

To whom it may concern

This is to certify that I, Lydia Weight, have proofread the document titled: Intangible outcomes of talent management practices in selected South African higher education institutions, by Lawrence Abiwu. I have made all the necessary corrections. The document is therefore ready for presentation to the destined authority. (Document checked only from p1 to end, excluding references).

Regards

[redacted]

L. Weight