The improvement of

Skills & Talents

in the workplace

Global Innovative Forefront Talent Management (GIFT)
Research and publications book series (vol.2)

AMF Pelser V Vaiman S Nagy

AXIOM
ACADEMIC PUBLISHERS

The improvement of

Skills & Talents

in the workplace.

Global Innovative Forefront Talent Management (GIFT)

Research and publications book series (vol.2)

Editors:

A.M.F. Pelser

V. Vaiman

S. Nagy

DISCLAIMER

Every effort has been made to contact and acknowledge all copyright holders. The content of each chapter has been submitted to an iThenticate process. The Publisher does not take responsibility for the choice of facts and opinions expressed in this book.

THIS BOOK HAS BEEN DOUBLE BLIND PEER REVIEWED

This book has undergone rigorous double-blind peer review by independent experts in the field. The peer-review process was conducted in accordance with the publisher's guidelines, and the final decision to publish this book was based on its scholarly merits and relevance to the field.

Members of the Editorial Board

He was involved in the presentation of several training sessions in industry. Prof Renier was highly involved in the merger process of the University. He played a major role in the alignment of all aspects of the academia between the three campuses. He was appointed in 2018 as the director of the School of Management Sciences overseeing the alignment and coordination of all academic matters across the three campuses. Prof Renier loves outdoor activities, such as hunting, camping, and fishing. He was also active in sport, and he represented the University, North-West Province and South Africa in weightlifting. Prof Renier is married to Magda, and they have three sons Renier, Francois, and Jurgens.

Email: Renier.JansenvanRensburg@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0003-4307-2672

Dr Badar Alam Iqbal holds the position of Adjunct Professor of Economics and Finance at Monarch Business School Switzerland. He holds a PhD, DBA, MCom and BA Honours from the Indian International University – Aligarh Muslim University. He has served the Central Bank of India and the Government of India as a Research Professor. Dr Iqbal is the recipient of 12 global competitive fellowships. Dr Iqbal's teaching and research areas include International Economics, Development Economics, International Business and International Human Resource Management. Prof Iqbal has been a Visiting Professor at Claflin University, Kentucky State University, Rennes University of France, Institute of Developing Economies in Tokyo, University of South Africa, Vaal University of Technology in South Africa, Maranga University of Brazil, Beijing Institute of Technology, University of Warsaw, German Institute for Economic Research, Kiel Institute of World Economics, and South Asia Institute in Heidelberg, Germany. He has also been affiliated to Nelson Mandela University, Uganda Management Institute and University of Cape Coast. Prof Iqbal has also been associated with University of South Africa [College of Graduate Studies] as an extraordinary professor. He also is a Member of the International Advisory Board, Department of Economics, Tshwane University of Technology.

Email: ibadar.iqbal@fulbrightmail.org; ORCid: 0000-0001-6188-6640

Prof Jan Meyer was born in Pinetown, Natal, 10 April 1956. He matriculated from Pinetown High School in 1973 and joined the South African Air Force as a Pupil Navigator in 1974. He then moved to the Electronic Data Processing Division of the SANDF as a Programmer and later Systems Analyst. Hereafter he became a Project Manager and implementer of Logistics Projects and ultimately remaining in the Air Force for 21 years leaving in 1995 as a Colonel and the Logistics Managers of Air Force Base Swartkop. During this time Prof Jan Meyer, had obtained his BA (Pol Sc) from UNISA (1990), his Certificate in Logistics Management from UP (1991) and MBL from the SBL, UNISA (1995). He joined XCEL IT as a Project Manager on Logistics Projects for the SANDF, until 2002 when he left for the Academia and joined Monash University in Ruimsig. Here he started his Academic career as a senior lecturer in, amongst others, IT Project Management, completing his PhD from UP (2002). During this time he also completed the Graduate Certificate in Higher Education from Monash Australia (2006). He remained with Monash until 2009. In 2010 Prof Meyer joined Milpark Business School, and on 1 January 2013 the then Graduate School for Business and Leadership at the NWU Mafikeng campus as faculty and Associate Professor. In 2015 he was appointed as the Acting Director to this school until its integration into the merged NWU Business School in 2018. He then assumed the position of Deputy Director of the School. Prof Meyer was promoted to full Professor with effect from 1 Jan 2019. His research interests include Project Management, Supply Chain Management and Data Security. Other fields of interest centre on ICT4D, Information Knowledge Management, e-Governance, and e-Government as well as issues in the public sector. Prof Meyer has published 21 papers in accredited journals, 9 in the popular press and 2 book chapters. Prof Meyer is also on the editorial committee of accredited journals and conferences and serves CHE as an evaluator. He is also an Academic Board Member to two Higher Education Institutions and a Board Member to the African Institute of Supply Chain Research. He is also a consultant in the fields of Logistics and Project Management.

Email: jan.meyer@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0002-3677-963X

Prof Dadson Awunyo-Vitor is a professor in the Department of Agricultural Economics, Agribusiness and Extension, KNUST and a Fellow of Association of Chartered Certified Accountant (ACCA), UK; Member of Institute of Chartered Accountant (ICA) Ghana; Member of Institute of Internal Auditors (IIA); and Member of Chartered Institute of Taxation (CIT), Ghana. He graduated with a Bachelor degree from Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, in Agriculture (First Class Honours) and an MSc. Agricultural Economics from Imperial College, University of London UK. He also obtained a Postgraduate Diploma in Education Certificate from University of Cape Coast and Postgraduate Diploma Certificate in Management Information System (MIS) from Ghana Institute of Public Administration (GIMPA). He obtained a PhD from University of Ghana and a Bachelor of Law (LLB) from Central University, Ghana. His main areas of research interests are Agricultural and Business Finance, Accounting and Management. However, he includes tax compliance by the informal sector of emerging economies and entrepreneurship as part of his research area. As a professor, he has mentored several young faculty members at both local and international levels. He has likewise trained students at both postgraduate and undergraduate levels. He is an experienced University administrator who has managed training and research grants with the utmost integrity. Specifically, he has managed training grants from the European Union, and research grants from the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit (GIZ); Cities Alliance; Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development; and United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). He serves on several boards at both local and international levels; and serves as external examiner for PhD/MPhil/MSc/MBA theses for both local and international Universities including University for Development Studies (UDS), University of Professional Studies (UPSA), University of Education Winneba (UEW) and University of Cape Coast (UCC) (all in Ghana); and University of South Africa and North West University (both in South Africa).

Email: awunyovitor@gmail.com; ORCid: 0000-0003-2252-6137

Notes on Contributors

Editors

Prof AMF Pelser;

Prof Anna-Marie Pelser is a research professor and entity director of Global, Innovative, Forefront, Talent Management (GIFT) in the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences at North-West University and has filled this position since January 2020.

She obtained an HED in Home-Economics at the former Potchefstroom University, a BCom, with Industrial Psychology and Private law as majors, a BCom Hons, majoring in Industrial Psychology and Private law and an MCom with Industrial Psychology as her major. She completed her studies with a PhD in Education Management. She started her career as a Home-Economics teacher at JG Strydom Hoërskool in Johannesburg (1985 – 1988) and later moved to Mahikeng where she continued her teaching career at Danville Secondary High School (1989) Batswana High School in Mahikeng (1990 – 1995) and Boitseanape Technical High School (1996 – 2005) teaching Home Economics, and later took the position as acting departmental head (Natural Sciences) for a term. She was appointed as Deputy Principal at Onkgopotse Tiro (2006 – 2010). She took the position of Subject Head at all the schools where she had been appointed.

She started her career as a lecturer at North-West University – Mafikeng campus in 2011 lecturing Honours students in Human Resources Management and Education Law in the Faculty of Education and became senior lecturer in 2016. Since her appointment at NWU she occupied several leadership positions, amongst others, subject leader for Human Resources Management and Education Law. 90+ Honours students and seven Master's students and one Doctoral student successfully completed their dissertations and thesis under her guidance. She is also the supervisor of several Master's and Doctoral students. She served as examiner to

several students from Universities around the country and acts as reviewer for articles and book chapters.

At GIFT she is involved in research in Talent Management and is collaborating with several colleagues from abroad. She recently arranged for the signing of a MoU with University of Miskolc and will be involved in several projects as this MoU carries with it the ERASMUS funding. She recently published books with the topic: *Investigation of Academic Misconduct – Plagiarism and Plagiarism and Paraphrasing* and also a poetry book titled: *My geluk, my liefde, my lewe*. Several of her articles have already been published and a number of articles and book chapters have been submitted for peer reviewing. She compiled a research book with book chapters with the topic: *Aspects of talent management in the working environment in the 2020s (volume 1).* She is also compiling a research book with book chapters with the topic: *The improvement of skills and talents in the workplace (volume 2).* She is also the reviewer and Assistant editor of The International Association of Organizational Innovation journal (IJOI). She is also a member of the Editorial board for the journal: *Theory Methodology Practice*.

Email: Anna.Pelser@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0002-7561-8193

Prof V Vaiman

Vlad Vaiman is Professor and Dean at the School of Management of California Lutheran University and a visiting professor at several premier universities around the globe. He has published five books on managing talent in organizations and at a country level, as well as several academic and practitioner-oriented articles and book chapters on talent management and International HRM. His work appeared in *Academy of Management Learning and Education, Human Resource Management, International Journal of Human Resource Management, Human Resource Management Review, Journal of Business Ethics*, and many others. He is also a founding editor and the Chief Editorial Consultant of the *European Journal of International Management*, and an editorial board member of several academic journals, such as *European Management Review, Human Resource Management Review, and Journal of Global Mobility,* amongst others. He is a founder, organizer,

and a leading chair of the EIASM Workshop on Talent Management, as well as the editor of the Emerald Book Series on Talent Management.

Email: vvaiman@callutheran.edu; ORCid: 0000-0001-8104-3683

Prof S Nagy

Associate Professor, Dean of International Relations, Faculty of Economics, Head of Department of Marketing Communication and Strategy, Marketing and Tourism Institute.

Szabolcs Nagy is a habilitated professor and an experienced researcher in marketing, social sciences, and sustainability with more than 20 years of varied business and research experience. He currently works as the Dean for International Relations at the Faculty of Economics, University of Miskolc. In this function, he worked on the implementation of the mentor system for international students. He was also mentoring over twenty students for students' scientific conferences.

He is the Head of the Department of Marketing Communication and Strategy at the Institute of Marketing and Tourism. He is an experienced networker with a strong industrial background. He holds a PhD in management and organisational sciences. He has participated in several international and national academic and business research projects. He is a member of the editorial board of five international journals.

Email: nagy.szabolcs@uni-miskolc.hu; ORCid: 0000-0002-1886-0848

Contributors

Dr Andrew Enaifoghe

Dr Andrew Enaifoghe (PhD) is a university lecturer and enthusiastic academic researcher. He has extensive research experience in social sciences and humanities. His research interest is multi-disciplinary / trans-disciplinary. He has published over 65 multiple peer-reviewed articles in locally and internationally accredited journals, including edited books, several book chapters and numerous conference proceedings. His teaching experience includes teaching undergraduate students at the department of politics and international studies and business management. Dr Enaifoghe is also an as external examiner for masters and doctoral dissertations / thesis. His supervision experience includes honours and master and doctorate students at the Management College of Southern Africa (MANCOSA), (independent supervisor) and the University of Zululand, South Africa respectively. Through his experience in research, he has learned the ability to translate and contextualize complex research concepts and theories to a variety of audiences. Currently, he serves as a guest editor for the Management and Economics Research Journal (MERJ).

Email: andyransey@gmail.com; ORCid: 0000-0003-4890-9179

Trisha Ramsuraj

Dr. Ramsuraj has more than 12 years of experience in the Public and Private Higher Education as a lecturer, Group Head of Research, Head of Academic Planning and Manager of Student and Academic Affairs. She holds a Doctor of Philosophy (Management Sciences) degree from the Durban University of Technology and Master of Business Administration (MBA) degree amongst her other qualifications. Dr Ramsuraj has published articles in DHET listed peer reviewed academic journals both local and international. She was the Editor-in-Chief of an academic journal, the Educor Multidisciplinary Journal. At DUT she is involved with post graduate supervision and lecturing both undergraduate and postgraduate students.

Email: TrishaR1@dut.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0002-6614-6411

Johannes L (Hannes) van der Walt

Van der Walt, Johannes (Hannes), Emeritus Professor of Philosophy and History of Education, and past Dean of the Faculty of Education at the former Potchefstroom University, is currently a specialist researcher at North-West University where he is involved in research and capacity building programmes. These programmes, occasionally also offered nation-wide, include scholarly article-writing seminars, mostly in Education but also in other scholarly disciplines. He has authored more than 230 articles in accredited journals on issues related to philosophy of education, history of education, comparative and international education, and religion / morality in / and education.

Email: hannesv290@gmail.com; ORCid: 0000-0001-9243-5973

Prof Izak Oosthuizen

Izak Oosthuizen (BA; BA Hons; BEd; MEd (cum laude); PhD; BJuris; THED; FDE; Dip in Theol) started his career as a high school teacher and a college lecturer and served for 17 years in those capacities. In 1988 he was appointment lecturer in Law and Education at Potchefstroom University (South Africa), and in due course became a full Professor in this subject field. After his retirement in 2004, he was appointed research professor, and later as extraordinary professor at North-West University. His publications are in the fields of Education Law, Management, Religion and Learner Conduct. He authored/co-authored, edited/co-edited more than 55 books and 85 journal articles. He was rated an established researcher in 2005 and in 2010, and in 2004 he received a national senior research award from the Education Association of South Africa.

Email: izak.Oosthuizen@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0002-1193-4699

Dr Jennifer Chishamiso Nzonzo

Jennifer Chishamiso Nzonzo (BSc HRM, MAHRM, PhD Business Management) is an Academic, Education & HR Consultant with 13+ years' experience in HR Practice, academic programmes management, curriculum design, research supervision and teaching (Online, Blended, Hybrid). She has authored several articles in HRM and her research interests are grounded in Human Resource Management, Strategic Management, Employee Wellbeing, HR Governance, Reputation & Risk

Management and Crisis & Change Management. She currently serves in advisory and external examiner positions in the areas of her expertise.

Email: jenny.nzonzo@gmail.com; ORCid: 0000-0001-5697-2528

Professor Yvonne du Plessis

Yvonne du Plessis (BSc Hons, MBA and PhD (UP) is a retired Full Professor in the NWU Business School at North-West University, South Africa. She is still actively involved with research and business consulting. Her field of expertise lies in both managing Organizational Behaviour, Strategic Human Resource Management and Behavioural Perspective in project management. Not only is she an academic who has published in accredited journals, but she has also edited, authored, and co-authored several books and book chapters widely. She also has much experience in especially the people-side of organisations where she developed a keen interest in Talent Management and its broader systemic influence on human behaviour and multilevel performance.

Email: yvonne.duplessis@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0002-6900-1664

Aluncedo Zikhali

Ms. Zikhali is a postgraduate student registered for a Master's degree at Walter Sisulu University. She is also a member of the South African Association for Public Administration. Currently, she is working as a writing lab assistant at the WSU library.

Email: aluncdozikhali55@gmail.com; ORCid: 0000-0002-0530-8747

Noluthando Shirley Matsiliza

Noluthando S. Matsiliza is a Professor of Public Administration in the Faculty of Commerce and Management Sciences at the University of Fort Hare. She researches public policy implementation, governance, leadership, monitoring and evaluation, and development management. She teaches, conducts research, supervises postgraduates, and has published articles in national and international journals focussing on multidisciplinary research issues. She is also a manuscript reviewer for both local and international journals and assistant editor for the AOSIS Journal of Local Government Research and Innovation in South Africa (JOLGRI). She

is a member of SAAPAM and IASIA and is currently researching rural and local economic development. She recently edited a book titled 'Higher Education for Public Good' with AOSIS. She has examined and supervised several Masters and Doctoral students. Email: thandimatsi@yahoo.co.za; ORCid: 0000-0001-8224-7688

Dr Caroline Ntara

Dr Caroline Ntara is an experienced lecturer and researcher with a demonstrated history of working in the higher education industry. Currently, Dr Ntara is a peer reviewer and journal selection expert with Enago - Crimson Interactive and Adjunct faculty at UNICAF University teaching students from the University of South Wales (UK) and UNICAF Zambia. She is also Adjunct faculty at Monarch Business School Switzerland. She has previously worked for the Knod Foundation, an American-based institution, teaching students from New Charter University (US) and HELP University in Malaysia where she worked as a facilitator of Project-Based learning and the flipped classroom approach. Dr Ntara also worked for the Kenya Institute of Management as an internship and research supervisor, moderated and participated in thesis defence committees. Dr Ntara has taught and supervised Diploma, Bachelor and Masters students at the Kenya Methodist University for ten years. During this period, she held various positions, including the MBA coordinator, distance learning departmental coordinator, examination officer and was involved in and led several curriculum development committees. Before joining academia, she worked at Barclays Bank Head Office in Nairobi, Kenya. During her career, Dr Ntara has received many recognitions, including exemplary peer reviewer, dependable team member, and notable researcher.

Dr Ntara holds a Doctor of Philosophy and a Master of Philosophy in International Business from Monarch Business school, Switzerland, a Master of Business Administration in International Business from the University of Nairobi, and a Bachelor of Education degree in Economics and Business from Kenyatta University. She holds a certificate of Certified Public Accountancy from the Kenya Accountants and Secretaries National Examinations Board and is a TEFL/TESOL certified trainer. Dr Ntara has received extensive training and gained experience in curriculum development, module creation, course development, review of manuscripts and

students' research, online learner management and best practices in teaching and learning. Over the years, Dr Ntara has held memberships in organisations such as the European Centre for Research, Training and Development (UK), the International Academy of African Business and Development (IAABD) and the Kenya Institute of Management (KIM).

Dr Ntara is a strong research professional with in-depth knowledge in writing both academic and business research, analysis, and review of research outputs. She is an accomplished researcher, having published a book and many articles in peer-reviewed journals. Her areas of academic and research interests are international business, trade, regional integration, trading blocs, trade policy, economic growth, and development. She is particularly passionate about research that holds the potential of bringing about change to the African Continent. In addition to conducting and supervising research, Dr Ntara has received invitations and participated in conferences such as those organized by the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (UNECA), Pan-African Strategic and Policy Research Group (PANAFSTRAG), Enago-Crimson Interactive, and the International Academy of African Business and Development (IAABD) as a guest speaker and panellist. Dr Ntara also is a consultant and shares her research expertise with individuals and organizations keen on her areas of interest.

Email: dr.ntara@umonarch-email.ch; ORCid: 0000-0002-7465-3149

Ms Yolande van der Merwe

Yolande van der Merwe is a 44-year-old aspiring upcoming researcher, born in Oudtshoorn in the Klein Karroo. She started her career in 1997 in the Department of Defence as a dedicated official until 2020. She served for a period of 23 years as a communication officer in both in the field of Human Resources and the spheres of senior management where she gained hands-on knowledge and experience in the strategic management processes. As an ex-officer she started various businesses after completing her Master's degree in Business Administration. She is currently pursuing her PhD qualification while simultaneously being a dedicated self-employed entrepreneur. Her aim in life is to become a vibrant lecturer as she has a passion for teaching and learning; especially founding passion for conducting

research. During her career in the Defence Force, she obtained a BCom Management degree in 2013 through UNISA, a Postgraduate Diploma in Human Resource Management in 2015 (UNISA) and an MBA at The Graduate School of NWU in 2018. She is currently enrolled for a PHD program at UNISA since 2022. She is also in the process of writing articles and chapters with other researchers. She is keen on learning something new and is eager to push herself to the limit towards adding value to the ordinary lives of citizens as well as to make a change in her little corner.

Email: tylyn.holdings@gmail.com; ORCid: 0000-0003-4169-9586

Professor Petrus Albertus Botha

Petrus Albertus Botha was born in 1961 and worked at several institutions such as NWU, Mafikeng Campus within the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences. He studied at Stellenbosch University in the field of Public Management and completed his PhD in Organisational Behaviour through the University of Pretoria. He worked in the Human Resource Management field for many years and published several articles. In the last three years he published Modipane, PI, Botha, PA & Blom, T, 2019. Employees' perceived effectiveness of the performance management and development system at a North-West provincial government department. SA Journal of Human Resource Management. ISSN: 1683-7584, E-ISSN: 2071-078X. Molamu, L & Botha, PA 2020. Public sector managers' perceived attitudes towards people with disabilities. SA Journal of Human Resource Management, Volume 18, DOI: https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v18i0.1421. ISSN: (Online) 2071-078X, (Print) 1683-7584. Le Roux DJ & Botha PA 2021, Investigating the impact of technostress on productivity and overall life satisfaction. SA Journal of Human Resource Management, Volume 19 a1649 | DOI: https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v19i0.1649S (Botha, PA & Botha, A 2022}. Investigating the self-perceived acquired competencies of humanities graduates at a South African university. South African Journal of Higher Education, 36(2), pp.25-45. He presented a paper along with Molamu, L & Botha, PA 2019. Public sector managers' perceived attitudes towards people with disabilities. IBC Conference 2020.

Email: petrus.botha@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0003-1353-2201

Doctor Kezell Klinck

Dr Kezell Klinck is a lecturer in the Department of Economic Management Sciences at North-West University. She was employed in the NW Public Service (1998-2019) as Deputy Director for Organisational Development and Transformation. Academy of Learning 1999 top student of the year award. Degrees obtained at NWU - BA Communications 2002 (Broadcast and Journalism) two Academic Excellence Awards 2000. B Admin Hons (Industrial Relations) 2004, M Admin (HRM) 2009, PhD in Business Management 2018. Dr Klinck presented at International Unequal World (NY) Virtual Conference 2020 and NW Provincial Women's Day Conference 2020 (Gendered Impact of the Covid-19 Pandemic). Award Winner of both NWU Community Engagement Award 2020 and Faculty Teaching Award 2021. Dr Klinck's research interest is founded in her pursuit of knowledge and finding reasons and solutions in the study field of Business Management, HRM and Talent Management and in that of Communications, Industrial Relations, Human Resource and Business Management, as he/she is a devotee of exploring opportunities and has a passion for making a difference in the quality of the lives of others in this world.

Email: 16134729@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0001-8082-8200

Ms Ajhan Laloo

Ajhan Laloo is a very energetic, aspiring, and vibrant upcoming educator who is determined and creative as she always thrives to assist where she can. During the unexpected Covid-19 pandemic she found an opportunity when there was a huge teaching gap for many learners. She is running her own online-tutoring company, Perfect Petals SA, where she assists learners in other provinces with Mathematics, Science, Afrikaans, Technology, and Information Technology. She started off as a budding marine biologist with a BSc in Marine and Applied Biology at University of Cape Town. She was involved in many projects and particularly in her final year Abalone Calcification Study where they were looking at the effects of water properties (sea water) on Abalone Calcification in the laboratory at UCT. She then changed direction to try and add to the next generation's body of knowledge where she worked with a PhD student doing qualitative data analysis and participated in quantitative data gathering physical distribution and collection of questionnaires,

which inspired her to learn more. Through her learning experience her deeply rooted research passion and talent evolved when she eventually realised that she had a natural talent for statistics and analytics. She is aware that analysis forms the backbone of all studies, and she finds it truly exciting that being able to prove or disprove a theory or to discover new findings within data will only enrich all lives. She is currently in the process of completing her PGCE from MANCOSA and is planning on conducting research and is looking forward to writing with other qualified authors as she is always eager to learn something new and interesting.

Email: ajhanlaloo@gmail.com; ORCid: 0000-0001-9039-5613

Doctor Deborah Mokgojwa

Deborah Mokgojwa is a Senior lecturer and Programme Leader for Labour Relations in the school of IPS and HR at North-West University. She has a Bachelor of Administration in HRM, Honours degree in HRM, Master's in HR and lastly PhD in Labour Relations Management from 2016-2019. Since 2016, she has been publishing articles in local and international publications and attending various academic conferences to contribute to the knowledge of HR and University dynamics. In 2018 she presented a lecture at the Nyenrode Business University, Netherlands, based on Talent Risk Management. She also has a Certificate of Appreciation from Global Innovative Forefront Talent Research Niche Area for excellence and contribution to the field of Human Resource Management. She has been awarded the Best Paper at the 18th Society for Public Administration and Management Conference (SAAPAM) for a research paper title: *Exploring institutional talent culture risks associated with academic staff: A management perspective*. She has been awarded Best HR Standards Research Paper/Dissertation of the Year from South African Board of People Practices (SABPP). She was appointed Masters' supervisor for Southern Business School (SBS) from 2019 till 2021.

Email: deborah.mokgojwa@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0003-3949-4311

Miray Barsoum

Miray Barsoum holds the position of Professor of Marketing and Business Strategy and Director of the MBA and BBA program at Monarch Business School Switzerland.

She is presently pursuing a Dual Ph.D./DBA from Monarch Business School, Switzerland. She holds a Master of Strategic Marketing from the London School of Business and Finance, UK, and an MBA from the Maastricht School of Management (MSM), the Netherlands. She is a Certified Marketing Analyst from UC Berkeley, USA, and holds a Certificate in Marketing Strategy from Cornell University, USA, and a Certificate in Digital Marketing from the Instituto de Empresa (IE) Business School, Spain.

Professionally, Barsoum is the founder of Methodz Consulting, a business consultancy firm located in Cairo, Egypt. She is currently the Director of Strategic Marketing and Growth at the Innovation and Entrepreneurship Centre at Nile University, Cairo, Egypt. She also holds the position of Professor of Economics at the American University in Cairo (AUC), and Professor of Marketing, and Social Sciences at Nile University (NU), Cairo, Egypt. Professor Barsoum's academic interests include Business Strategy, Strategic Marketing, Marketing Communications, Economics, Business Research, Organizational Behavior, Consumer Behavior, and Entrepreneurship.
Email: miray.barsoum@umonarch-email.ch

Dr Edwin Darrell de Klerk

Darrell de Klerk holds a PhD in Policy Studies in Education and is currently a senior lecturer in the School for Professional Studies at North-West University (Mahikeng Campus) in South Africa. He is supervising Master's and PhD students and has published various peer-reviewed papers in accredited journals as well as conference proceedings. His research interests predominately focus on autonomy, pre-service teachers' development, policy studies, philosophy in education and transformative social justice issues. Foucauldian studies is also an area of interest. His current research concerns teacher leadership and self-leadership from a philosophical and policy perspective. Darrell is also involved in community engagement projects and works actively to advance the knowledge and skills of senior management team members and teachers at schools regarding leadership and management in education.
Email: darrell.deklerk@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0003-0218-5371

Professor June Monica Palmer

June Monica Palmer is an Associate Professor in the Department Postgraduate Studies in Education at Central University of Technology, Free State in South Africa. She holds a PhD in Education Management and Leadership. Her research interests include social-emotional learning, transformative learning and social justice leadership, pre-service teachers' development, and inclusive learning pedagogies. She has published various peer-reviewed papers both in accredited journals and conference proceedings. Her current research focuses on leadership in education with specific reference to transformative social justice leadership with the aim to capacitate principals, teachers and pre-service teachers in terms of philosophical, practical and strategic processes to affect innovative change in their teaching and leadership practices.

Email: JPalmer@cut.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0001-7706-879X

Prof Sanlie Middelberg

Sanlie Middelberg is a professor in the School of Accounting Sciences at North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) in South Africa. She holds a PhD in Management Accounting and is a Fellow Chartered Management Accountant (FCMA) and Chartered Global Management Accountant (CGMA) with the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants (CIMA). Sanlie's corporate experience includes 18 months in the investment banking sector in the United Kingdom and five years in the petroleum industry in South Africa.

Sanlie is an NRF-rated researcher and chairs the CIMA Centre of Excellence's research panel. Her research domain is focused on management accounting and finance. She has more than 15 years of academic experience in teaching risk management, financial strategy, financial management and management accounting.

Email: sanlie.middelberg@nwu.ac.za; ORCid: 0000-0002-4196-7002

Dr Abdulaziz Ahmadani

Abdulaziz obtained his PhD in business and economic science from North-West University (Potchefstroom Campus) South Africa in 2020. Abdulaziz has 20 years of

experience in the field of strategy, development and planning, business process management, strategy, and talent management. He has also been a volunteer judge at MIT-entrepreneurship startup competition since 2017.

Abdulaziz conducts academic research in domains such as development and planning, competitive intelligence, strategy management, change management, business analysis, business transformation, talent management, the automotive industry, and Saudi Vision 2030.

Email: azizksa2011@hotmail.com; ORCid: 0000-0002-4551-4748

Research Justification

This book, *The improvement of skills and talents in the workplace*, is a compilation of original research, and is not entrenched in previously published manuscripts, and it does not contain plagiarised chapters. All the chapters entered in the book were written by scholarly specialists in the field of talent and skills management in the workplace environment.

The review process which has been applied entails the following: Following onto a call for papers dispersed among national and international scholars in the field, a substantial number of manuscripts were received by *Axiom Academic Publishers*. All the latter were immediately submitted to an authentication process to identify any possible traces of plagiarism. In instances where evidence of similarity was found, the similarities had to be addressed and/or the manuscripts were to be removed from the publication The next step in the dissecting process consisted of analyses by the editors and members of the editorial board so as to select acceptable (non-plagiarised) chapters, potentially suitable for publication, to be submitted to independent scholars and experts in the field in a double-blind peer-review process. The latter manuscripts were then submitted to selected scholarly specialists in the field. After the reports on the double-blind peer reviews had been returned to the offices of Axiom Academic Publishers, the reviewed chapters were once again scrutinised by the editors and editorial board. Only those chapters suitable for publication were retained or returned to the authors to be corrected. The latter chapters then had to be corrected by the author(s) who had to resubmit them to the publishers. The author(s) then edited the text on a change log before they resubmitted the corrected versions of their chapters to the publisher's office. On receiving it, the publisher's office, assisted by the editors and editorial board, compared the chapters in the light of the review reports and the change logs. Thereafter they made a final decision to publish or reject the chapter. With the purpose of having the content of the chapters language edited, all of the selected chapters were submitted to a nationally commended professional language editor.

All the review reports as well as the change logs are safeguarded in the publisher's offices.

The content of this scholarly publication, based on sound research methodology, represent the enhancement of workforce skills and talents in the workplace on a scholarly platform vested on sound research methodology and approaches. The target audience of this book are specialists in the field of Forefront Talent Management.

Editors:

A.M.F. Pelser, Innovative Forefront Talent Management (GIFT), Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences of the North-West University, Mahikeng campus, South Africa

V.V. Vaiman, School of Management, California Lutheran University, U.S.

H.S. Nagy, Faculty of Economic Sciences, University of Miskolc, Miskolc, Hungary.

Foreword

Economists categorise production factors as being land, labour, capital, entrepreneurship, and data. The most complex and crucial production factor of all is people, and this book contributes to the management of this valuable production factor.

Organisations recruit people and specialists at great costs, but not equal attention and efforts are spent on the retention of these staff when being employed. The management of talent falls within this realm and therefore highlights the importance of this book. Adding the new world of work that emerged after Covid-19, namely a hybrid form of working, we need to focus on people more than ever before. Remote work is a given and this adds to the complexity of the world of work. How will organisations manage their businesses effectively in a hybrid work model? How do we build a cohesive team?

Nicholas Bloom, an economics professor at Stanford University states *'The workplace for managers and professionals is clearly moving to hybrid, with three days a week in the office on Tuesday to Thursday fast becoming the new norm.'* This is confirmed by Mark Ein, chairman of Kastle Systems, namely *'What's happening is a lot of companies are adapting to three or four days a week in the office'.*

Huge differences, disagreement and a tug of war started between employers and employees about where to work. Flexibility is preferred by employees while companies claim that better teamwork, productivity, and innovation require attendance. High-profile companies such as Starbucks, Walt Disney and Amazon, to mention but a few, demand that staff return to office for 3 to 4 days a week and then receive some levels of resistance from the staff.

Managing talent to focus on what people need to enable them to thrive, by offering growth opportunities, work-life balance, and sustaining connection on the one end, with balancing suitable presence, productivity, service to clients, and equal treatment of both hybrid and non-hybrid staff, on the other end of the scale.

This book unpacks several themes to address the new challenges faced by the place of work, such as ***Managing talent in the new hybrid workplace: evidence from Saudi Arabia***, shedding light on the leadership abilities to manage talent in the new world of work.

The chapter titled ***Talent wellness and -resilience management in a VUCA environment: human resource professionals' perspective*** emphasizes the management of wellness to enhance talent resilience.

It is estimated that South Africa, as the most industrialised country on the continent, will have an unemployment rate of 35,6% in 2023. In 2019 the youth unemployment rate was 57,38%. The chapter titled ***Putting a transformed onto-epistemological ethic to work in post-colonial and post-apartheid talent development*** provides information on the post-colonial and apartheid past and its after-effects, and in so doing contributes to the development of our youth and insights to remove hurdles with a view to develop young talent.

In the chapter titled ***The rapidly evolving situation impacted by the emergence of Covid 19 on employee efficiency*** the pros and cons of working from home (WFH) are explored and guidelines are indicated for managing WFH.

The value aspect of ethics is elucidated by the chapter titled ***The 'talent' to corrupt or be corrupted in the workplace: an ethical appraisal'.*** This chapter highlights the pitfalls and suggests preventive measures to mitigate the risk of corruption. The moral aspects regarding corruptive behaviour are explained and examined and guidelines are drawn up for managing and avoiding corruptive behaviour.

The talent development of teachers at tertiary institutions, and specifically the identification, recruitment and attraction of such teachers are elucidated in the chapter titled ***A transformative philosophy for teacher leaders' talent development.*** The application of transformative learning theory can enhance talent development. This chapter suggests ***A transformative philosophy framework for teacher leaders' talent development*** by means of an analysis of stipulations in three South African education policy documents. It further indicates that teacher

leaders, as seen from a transformative philosophical perspective, can apply their talents to become transformative leaders.

Researching the relationship between employees' perceptions of performance assessment regarding fairness and public service motivation is unpacked in the chapter titled *The relationship between employees' perceptions of fairness in performance reviews and their motivation within the public service among North-West provincial army officials*. This study makes recommendations for strengthening the performance assessment process to retain high levels of public service motivation.

The management of talent in the domain of international business is explored in the chapter titled *Talent management in the international business landscape.* The gaps in talent management indicate a holistic view of the global business landscape as a pre-requisite. This research presents talent management gaps and recommends a holistic and broad view of the global business landscape for scholars and talent management practitioners.

The chapter titled *Advancing gender equality and sustainability through the expanded public works programmes* demonstrates how the EPWP contributes to gender equality in the Winnie Madikizela municipality, which could be generalised to other sectors.

Finally, a practical method to ensure satisfaction and engagement of employees is reflected in the chapter titled *'Effective' employee onboarding. A new practical model for organizations*. Research indicates that onboarding assists in improving employee performance, engagement, and satisfaction, and reduces turnover and attrition rates.

This book will make a valuable contribution to the management of talent in the workplace. It further provides novel insights, applied research and practical guidelines to manage talent in the new world of work.

Professor Sonia Swanepoel

Deputy Vice-Chancellor Community Engagement, North-West University

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1:

THE RAPIDLY EVOLVING SITUATION IMPACTED BY THE EMERGENCE OF COVID-19 ON EMPLOYEE EFFICIENCY

Andrew Enaifoghe
Department of Public Administration, University of Zululand, South Africa

Trisha Ramsuraj
Department of Information and Corporate Management, Durban University of Technology

Abstract

The objective of the chapter was to examine the rapidly evolving situation impacted by the emergence of covid-19 on employee efficiency while providing the theoretical perspective that was developed based on the review on work from home (WFH), as well as teleworking, telecommuting, e-working, flexible workplace, and remote work. The results indicate that the once-desired, extremely alluring WFH did not prove to be one of the best alternatives for most employees. WFH is still well-liked, but not in its present guise. According to the report, stronger laws and regulations should be implemented by the government to effectively control and make WFH practical for all South African employees. We also advise that one area of policy where planning and implementation are crucial is the guidance on adjusting to remote online work. Upon the introduction of COVID-19 in 2020, the decision to stop in-person meetings and work was reached promptly, but without any guidance on how to do so. Workers lost awareness of what WFH means and lacked the necessary tools for this transformation.

Keywords
COVID-19, employee productivity, remote work, teleworking, pandemic

Introduction

The rapidly evolving situation impacted by the emergence of COVID-19 on employee efficiency is examined in this chapter, as the study explored the changing

nature and impact of COVID-19's emergence on employee productivity. The unprecedented impact of COVID-19 on employee productivity in a rapidly evolving working environment as the new global pandemic hit the entire world is examined in this chapter. Impacts of COVID-19 on workers and workplaces across the globe have been dramatic. According to the Disaster Management Act No. 57 of 2002 (Republic of South Africa, 2002), President Cyril Ramaphosa announced the national state of disaster on March 15, 2020 to put the necessary measures in place to lessen the effects of COVID-19 on society and the economy.

A variety of rules and limitations were implemented, such as closing schools and other educational institutions, limiting the sale of alcohol after 6 p.m., and outlawing international travel and gatherings of more than 100 individuals (Nkate, 2020). The President then implemented further limitations and a 21-day nationwide lockdown starting on March 21, 2020 to stop the spread of the virus and 'flatten the curve' as a result of a rise in the number of COVID-19 cases (Ramaphosa, 2020a). All South Africans were required to remain at home during the lockdown restrictions, except those who had to go to work or take care of necessities such as purchasing food, receiving aid, or receiving medical attention.

The lockdown only applied to persons and organizations that were vital to the COVID-19 response in terms of services and goods. People classified as necessary personnel included those working in the health and medical fields, law enforcement, emergency services, traffic enforcement, the military, security and those responsible for producing, supplying, and providing important products and services. During the lockdown, businesses that were not allowed to operate were urged to carry on remotely (Ramaphosa, 2020b). The lockdown was ultimately prolonged beyond the initial 21-day period, and it became clear that organizations would need to come up with creative methods to adapt to the new situation.

Similar to how COVID-19 has forced organizations to review their plans, procedures, and strategies, it has brought about unforeseen changes to South Africa's workplace. Both corporate and public service organizations had to develop cutting-edge strategies to guarantee business continuity during the shutdown as a method

of adjusting to the 'new normal'. The study responds to the research question, namely how common was telework in different countries. The study is divided into 5 sections and structured in the following: introduction; literature consideration; theoretical framework, data presentation and discussion of findings; and conclusion.

Research Methodology

The study is qualitative research that reviews a variety of literature in the field of study. The study primarily collected data through desk research, using advanced search, and thematic content data analysis was adopted. This approach permitted the researchers to study various literature reports that were collected through desktop-based research, with written documents that are available either in the public or private domain. The researchers determine the relevance of the documents that they consult based on their significance to the study. Sileyew (2019) noted that several approaches are followed in research as method and design.

The research approach supports the researcher in determining the research findings. This method permits researchers to access various literature reports and determine the relevance of the documents they consult, based on their significance to the study (Silverman, 2016). This current paper primarily collected the data used in this study through secondary sources and analysed them based on content. The processes followed in conducting this study included a literature review of key documents in collating data – the authors made use of documentary analysis. Thus the researchers consulted a variety of sources through advance search such as books, reports, policy briefs, journals, articles, internet sources, news bulletins and gazettes that were found to be relevant to impact the study.

Literature Consideration: The Economic Effects of the COVID-19 Pandemic

During COVID-19 the phrase 'new normal' became popular because it defined a new manner of engaging with others and going about one's daily business (Dr YLM,

2020). The 'new normal' takes into account life after the epidemic. Everyone agrees that after COVID-19 life will never be the same. Although thousands of individuals may have lost loved-ones, the largest effect the coronavirus may have will be on how millions of people behave in the future, according to Whiteside (2020). The International Labor Organization (2020) point out that the epidemic has significantly decreased working hours and economic activity across the globe. This was brought on by stringent containment efforts that lasted for a long period and also led to workplace closures in a number of cases.

Organizations across the globe have utilized technology and remote work arrangements to enhance business continuity and increase productivity in order to lessen the consequences of the epidemic (Mulki, Bardhi, Lassk & Nanavaty-Dahl, 2009). Millions of workers in many countries have lost their jobs. Many self-employed workers saw their incomes collapse, and both job and income losses have been particularly severe for women (OECD, 2020a). The increased burden of unpaid care brought on by the crisis has particularly affected many unskilled workers (Acemoglu & Autor, 2011). The emergence of the coronavirus (COVID-19) also raises the risk that progress on gender equality may be put on hold or even reversed.

It is significant to point out that COVID-19 has had a major effect on jobs and workplaces all around the world. Despite policymakers' audacious attempts to help businesses and retain employment through job preservation programs, millions of people in a variety of countries have lost their jobs (Kahn, Lange & Wiczer, 2020). Meanwhile, many self-employed individuals saw their earnings plummet. As a result, the majority of countries took immediate measures to increase access to and generosity of unemployment minimum-income payments. Along with these measures, some nations implemented new cash grants aimed at those who were uninsured, covered expenditures, or in some situations, enforced mandatory transfers to ensure that no one slipped between the cracks (Clancy, 2020).

Private and public employment service providers (PES) have been put to the test as demand for their services skyrocketed in the first few months of the recession,

although their ability was heavily limited by the need to reduce face-to-face contact with work seekers (di Mauro and Syverson, 2020). Governments replied by streamlining the process of claiming benefits and increasing the digitization of programmes such as registering for job-search assistance and filing for benefits. Online learning opportunities were also expanded. The main aim of the study is to examine the impact of the rapidly evolving situation of COVID-19 emergence on employee productivity.

The economic effects of the COVID-19 pandemic have not been distributed evenly. Existing flaws have been revealed, as have disparities entrenched. Many of those with fewer resources and security, such as jobs in informal employment or complex job conditions, have become the most vulnerable to the repercussions of the crisis (di Mauro & Syverson, 2020). The current outbreak of coronavirus has had severe economic effects across the globe, and it does not seem that any nation will be spared (Enaifoghe, 2021a). This has far-reaching implications not only for the economy, but also for society as a whole, resulting in drastic shifts in how corporations and customers conduct themselves.

Another challenge is that if they struggle to navigate the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic (Enaifoghe, 2021b), many establishments will continue to face daunting and conflicting threats. Many who are now employed have been on the front lines in delivering vital care, though at risk of being infected with the coronavirus. Furthermore, the increased cost of unpaid treatment due to the crisis has disproportionately impacted individuals (Donadio, 2020). This raises the possibility that the gains made by many countries in gender equality over the past decades will be halted or reversed. Furthermore, COVID-19 has served as a sombre reminder of the increased risk of abuse and harassment that women face during times of crisis.

Furthermore, we investigate how age, race and ethnicity, gender, family status, personality, and cultural differences can serve as moderators to produce differential effects (Financial Times, 2020). The broad-scope summary of this study demonstrates an integrative approach for understanding the ramifications of

COVID-19 for work or employees and organisations, while also highlighting challenges for future study and recommendations to inform solutions. The crisis has been a sombre reminder of the higher risk of violence and harassment with which women are faced during times of crisis. Governments were forced to apply these measures in response to the continuous health and economic crises brought on by the COVID-19 epidemic (Enaifoghe, 2021a) – '[p]hysical distance measurements, which compel many businesses to widely use telework (working from home)' (Gorlick, 2020:5).

The unusual conditions under which telework was first used may have decreased efficiency 'for those who were able to work from home' prior to the COVID-19 epidemic (OECD, 2020b), as stated that Chinese contact-centre employees benefited significantly from telework under regular circumstances. Academics emphasized that 'we are home working alongside our children, in inappropriate quarters, with few alternatives and no in-office days,' though (Enaifoghe, Maramura & Ndlovu, 2021). In light of the current epidemic, this presents a significant problem for employees who work from home. The results demonstrate that businesses will experience a catastrophe in terms of productivity as a result of this (Gorlick, 2020).

Unquestionably, a poll conducted by 'one of Japan's research institutions' during the lockdown phase 'confirms poorer self-reported employee productivity' (Morikawa, 2020). Research shows that many companies are now pursuing 'no-regrets' steps to recover further from the pandemic. These individuals are approaching the crisis with an entrepreneurial mindset, by driving digital innovation, developing variable cost systems, and introducing agile operations. However, the world has shifted in recent times, with the pandemic beginning to peak in some markets and returning in others, including the expected 3rd wave. The confusion with regard to adopting the appropriate measures for reopening and reinvention remains the same, but businesses now need to understand how the pandemic's success, power, or recurrence in different geographic areas affects their recovery strategies.

How common was telework in different countries?

Already in 2015, a sizable number of employees in several OECD nations teleworked – that is, worked outside the office, from home, or in a public space – at least regularly the previous year (OECD, 2020d). Nonetheless, the number of individuals who work from home varies substantially among continents, ranging from roughly 25% in Portugal and Italy to more than twice as many in Sweden and Denmark (OECD, 2020e). It is interesting to note that the 'proportion of people who have teleworked differs from recent research measuring the variety of employment that can be fulfilled by teleworking since the crisis' (Dingel & Neiman, 2020; Boeri, Caiumi & Paccagnella, 2020).

This implies that, in addition to variations in the distribution of job types, which result in employees doing a different combination of tasks, there are differences in the industrial structure of countries. Other influences, such as history, management habits, digital technology, ability endowment, or employee age structure, might be driving these disparities.

The health and economic crises caused by the COVID-19 pandemic

This current study reviews the existing literature relating to the topic under study. The current health and economic crises caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, as well as the necessary physical distancing steps or measures, pushed many businesses to implement telework (working from home) on a wide scale (Enaifoghe, 2021a). Governments had to take physical distance-creating measures in response to the health and financial problems brought on by the COVID-19 pandemic, which forced many businesses to widely adopt telework (working from home) (Gorlick, 2020). This could encourage more people to use teleworking techniques following the crisis.

> *With a wide range of impacts and uncertain net effects on productivity and other indicators, authors say. Governments should promote investments in the physical and managerial capacity of firms and workers to telework (OECD, 2020b).*

To address the possible issues for employee 'well-being and longer-term innovation' (Enaifoghe, 2021:64), particularly those connected to the excessive downscaling of workplaces, in order to maximize the advantages for productivity and welfare implicit in the adoption of more widespread telework, '[t]elework has been crucial to sustaining production during the crisis, but its effects on productivity are unclear' (Ikwegbue, Enaifoghe, Maduku & Agwuna, 2021). This could accelerate the implementation of teleworking activities well after the lockdown, with a wide variety of consequences and unpredictable net effects on efficiency and other metrics.

Ikwegbue *et al*. (2021) contend that public policy and cooperation among social partners are crucial to ensuring that the cutting-edge, effective, and welfare-improving working methods that arose during the crisis are preserved and improved once the physical separation is stopped or over. To maximize the productivity and welfare benefits associated with more widespread telework, policymakers should promote investments in the physical and managerial capacity of enterprises and individuals to telework (Enaifoghe, 2021). This is further to resolve possible problems for worker well-being and long-term innovation, particularly related to unnecessary downscaling of workspaces.

Teleworking – also known as 'work-from-home' or 'home-office' – was a mandatory activity for many businesses and staff during the COVID-19 lockout (Harvard Business School, 2020). During this occurrence, communities underwent a large-scale 'forced experiment' in which industries, companies, and employees continued to exist while physically segregated, as long as they met the requisite technical, legal and digital security requirements. The social distancing with the 'forced experiment' to work from home holds the potential of having a huge effect on companies of all sizes, whether or not they have already supported teleworking (OECD, 2020c). Additionally, it should be mentioned that certain companies and employees, especially those who had previously employed telework, were able to better 'weather the storm' due to telework.

Throughout the recession, not everyone had the option to telework. Additionally, unequal telework access could have exacerbated already existing imbalances. For instance, many employees worked in roles that required physical presence during the lockdown time, especially young, less-skilled individuals at the bottom of the income distribution (Brussevich, Dabla-Norris & Khalid, 2020). In the present pandemic time, teleworking or working from home has been essential for sustaining staff productivity, which has an impact on the firm's competitiveness. In the near run, compared to the pre-pandemic era, it is possible that the unusual conditions surrounding the introduction of telework have decreased efficiency for those who were able to work from home.

It is undeniable that reduced self-reported worker productivity was confirmed by a poll conducted during the lockdown era by one of Japan's research institutions, according to Morikawa (2020). On the other hand, a poll of US hiring managers revealed that managers were more likely to have observed gains in short-term productivity than losses as a result of remote work (Ozimek, 2020:6). This suggests that productivity reductions that have occurred since the crisis are not certain. The adoption of a 'new standard' (the new normal) might be accelerated as a result, which would have been more gradual in the absence of global crisis. Ikwegbue *et al.* (2021) maintains that effective telework activities can be adopted more widely and intelligently as a result of the pandemic, which might lead to an increase in long-term productivity performance; enhancing employee productivity and well-being while cutting expenses for the business.

Given the difficulties and expenses involved with the necessary organizational and managerial adjustments, this may speed the transition to a new standard (the new normal), which would have been more gradual in the absence of the crisis (Ikwegbue *et al.*, 2021). This is in addition to other impediments such as cultural opposition or legal limitations, since new evidence is now supporting the theory: According to a recent US survey, 61.9 percent of hiring managers intend to emphasize remote work more in the future (Ozimek, 2020). However, these positive long-term productivity effects are offset by potentially negative long-term productivity effects caused by increased spatial distance among workers. Ikwegbue

et al. (2021) indicated that public policies and social partner dialogue will play an important role in promoting this transformation and spreading teleworking activities that improve both competitiveness and workplace well-being.

The strategy will assist businesses in making the requisite changes while mitigating future costs and encouraging more people to benefit from welfare-improving telework opportunities (Ozimek, 2020). Considering the likely worldwide expansion of this employment activity, it is crucial to comprehend the long-term impact of teleworking on firm-level and overall competitiveness. Future research will be conducted by the Global Forum on Productivity as part of its participation in the Human Side of Productivity project, which intends to empirically examine the relationship between telework and business productivity using specific data (OECD, 2020a).

As a first move, this study builds heavily on current research to address the impact of COVID-19 on work-from-home employees' productivity and the possible role of policymakers in promoting more extensive use of reliable and welfare-improving telework in the mid-to-long-term, as the imminent health crisis subsides and businesses and staff have more discretion as to whether or not to telework. This study will seek to address the prevalence of telework before COVID-19 so as to assess the need for increased use of telework after the crisis.

The Predominant Impact of Employee Productivity: Teleworking Pre–COVID–19

Understanding the predominant impact of employee teleworking amid pre-COVID-19 on employee productivity, the differences in the usage of occasional telework prior to the pandemic crisis will provide insight into the need for more frequent use of telework during regular periods (OECD, 2018). These also are conditions that may be in effect to use telework effectively or that might discourage its use (OECD, 2020a). For example, in certain countries or forms of companies, reasons such as a lack of ICT expertise, inefficient administrative processes, or activities involving physical contact prohibit the use of telework. Cross-country or cross-firm disparities

in telework prevalence indicate the potential for increasing telework through best organizational practices and public policy aimed at increasing access to it.

Hence the data on telework usage prior to the outbreak of the epidemic complements the knowledge gained from telework usage during the crisis. Numerous firms quickly implemented telework policies in response to the health crisis, which shows that prior to the crisis, utilization of telework was well below what was practical. In the US, for instance,

> out of 1500 recruitment and selection managers surveyed in April 2020, 94% stated that any of their staff had used telework during the crisis (Ozimek, 2020); another survey that is representative of the US population, out of 25000 respondents, 14% indicated that they had used telework during the crisis (Brussevich, Dabla-Norris & Khalid, 2020).

According to a survey conducted in April 2020, 34% of those working four weeks prior reported that they had moved to telework during this time frame (Brussevich, Dabla-Norris & Khalid, 2020). Teleworking during 'normal times' can, however, only be partially transferred from use during a crisis. Before the crisis, sporadic or even daily teleworking required only some duties to be accomplished remotely. However, under confinement, telework often permits all job-related tasks to be completed from home (OECD, 2020b). In addition, teleworking was commonly required of workers after the Great Depression. Although many individuals may continue to telework in the long run, many others may not wish to as long as legislative and other impediments to teleworking remain.

Theoretical Perspective

The foundation of this study is trust-based working (TBW). The overall pattern of real telework through occupations roughly matches the rankings by the scope of occupations to telework during the crisis, which was identified by Dingel and Neiman in 2020. This is consistent with evidence that some occupations are heavily invested in activities that are particularly vulnerable to telework (Dingel & Neiman, 202). However, the criterion for any activity to be completed via telework is more stringent than the criteria for an employment to be eligible for telework during a

crisis.. Many professions that cannot be performed totally remotely are nonetheless suitable for regular or occasional remote work, such as salespeople or instructors who can spend many days interacting with clients and pupils while performing administrative responsibilities at home.

Trust-Based Working

The Trust-Based Working theory helps to understand that the differences in telework across nations, industries and occupations, as well as differences between companies, can suggest which variables are conducive to telework in ways that influence productivity. The use of trust-based working time contracts (TBW) in Germany provides some data on the features of companies that use telework. Telework can be seen as a requirement for TBW. TBW, like telework, means relinquishing the power of working hours and evaluating job success purely on outputs (Viete & Erdsiek, 2018). Firms that employ TBW could be more likely to use telework.

In fact, teleworking from home is strongly associated with utilizing TBW in 2018 – the most recent year for which data on telework and TBW are available for Germany (correlation coefficient 0.3). According to the findings, TBW employment is more prevalent among profitable businesses, which are almost twice as likely to use it than less lucrative businesses. It is important to note that these findings do not mean that organizations employing TBW are more efficient; rather, productive firms might share traits, including the adoption of advanced management methods, which boost efficiency and enhance the likelihood that they would employ TBW. The outcomes, however, show that TBW employment is associated with high efficiency.

Larger firms also tend to have higher TBW rates. Further research reveals that despite having essentially equivalent features, such as efficiency, workforce size, business and company age, medium and large enterprises are far more likely to adopt TBW than small firms. For instance, big businesses are about 20% more likely than small businesses to adopt TBW. This significant impact may be due to a variety of characteristics correlated with the firm size that are not accounted for in the

model, such as the use of innovative management practices, which merits further investigation. Aside from efficiency and scale, the staff composition of the company is also important and linked to the employment of TBW. Another piece of research suggests that companies with newer, more skilled employees and administrators are more likely to employ TBW.

The chance of employing TBW, for instance, increases by around 2% when 10% of medium-skilled employees are replaced by high-skilled workers; conversely, replacing 10% of middle-aged managers with older ones lowers the probability by 0.7 percentage points. Since telework is more common in jobs requiring higher degrees, the link between qualifications and TBW makes sense (see Eurofound and International Labour Office, 2017). This would suggest that highly talented workers are more likely to be able to work autonomously or to engage in creative activities in a flexible work environment.

Similar to this, more qualified managers are more likely to approve TBW since they can carry it out more successfully, such as through developing relationships of trust with staff members. Companies with a higher percentage of elderly employees may find it more difficult to stray from traditional working paradigms, or older people may be less likely to develop the ICT skills necessary for telework, which may explain why TBW is less common in these organizations. It might also be a sign of conflicting interests, such as when young and middle-aged workers are particularly pressured by competing demands for better work-life balance due to the presence of small children at home and working parents.

The alternative of Working from home

In this section, a summary of working from home is provided. To reduce the risk of COVID-19 infection, this study conceptualized the notion of work from home (WFH) (Mukhopadhyay & Mukhopadhyay, 2020). On the other hand, WFH 'is not a new notion and has been brought to the attention of different schools of thought for many years.' This should be underlined. When WFH was initially introduced, it was referred to as 'telecommuting' or 'telework' by Nilles (1988) and Messenger and Gschwind (2016). WFH has been referred to in a number of ways throughout the

past 40 years, including remote work, flexible working environments, telework, telecommuting, and e-working.

To fulfil their commitments, the authors make reference to workers' capacity to perform in flexible workplaces, notably at home, by utilizing technology (Department of Public Service and Administration, 2020). When an employee works remotely for at least a portion of the day, they are engaging in a different type of work arrangement from the traditional primary or central office (Grant *et al.*, 2019); interacting with people inside and outside the organization via technological means, bearing in mind that 'elsewhere' refers to 'home.' 37 percent of employment in the United States, including financial work, business management, and professional and scientific services, may be completed 'from home during the COVID-19 pandemic' (Dingel & Neiman, 2020).

Some vocations, particularly those in healthcare, agriculture, and hospitality, cannot be performed at home. Although WFH is becoming more popular across the world, scholars disagree on its benefits and drawbacks. WFH benefits businesses and employees alike. A few benefits include shorter commute times, attempting to avoid office politics, utilizing less space in the office, raising motivation, improving gender diversity (e.g., hiring more women), better healthy workforces with lower absenteeism and turnover, higher talent retention, job satisfaction, and higher productivity (Caulfield, 2015:21). These advantages are supported by studies; for instance, workers in the Greater Dublin Area saved commuting time and money on travel. Telework can reduce attrition while boosting employee 'productivity, job engagement, and job performance' (Troup & Rose, 2012).

Similar to this, e-working can reduce work-life conflict and travel time while increasing productivity, flexibility, job satisfaction, and WLB (Grant *et al.*, 2019). As indicated by Purwanto *et al.* (2020), WFH may help employees by providing flexible work schedules and reducing the cost of travel. The drawbacks of WFH include social isolation, blurring boundaries between work and home, diversions, and employee cost sharing. WFH has various downsides, according to Purwanto *et al.* (2020), such as employees working from home needing to pay for their energy and

internet. Workers were disconnected from their co-workers, according to Collins and Moschler (2009), and managers were concerned about productivity losses when working from home. Additionally, co-worker relationships may be jeopardised (Gajendran & Harrison, 2007).

Employees working at home may be distracted by the presence of young children or family members (Baruch, 2000; Kazekami, 2020), and the blurred boundaries between work and family life lead to overwork (Grant *et al*., 2019). Eddleston and Mulki (2017) observed, in a similar vein, that WFH regulates the boundaries between work and family for remote employees to disengage from work. Research has demonstrated that working from home improves WLB. The same claim was made by Grant *et al*. (2013) who claimed that e-working will enhance WLB and enable former employees to blend work and personal time. E-workers discovered that being productive increased when they worked from home (Grant *et al*., 2019). Workplace satisfaction increased as a result of working from home, according to Bloom *et al*. (2015). WFH is also connected to a feeling of success in one's family life (Bick, Blandin & Mertens, 2020).

Telework boosts life satisfaction, according to worker productivity in Japan. To address the disease, the majority of countries have made WFH a top priority. Because there will be consequences for both groups in some way, policies need to be created bearing employers as well as employees in mind.

An Investigation framework: WFH on Employee productivity

To begin with, WFH is related to two aspects in the proposed framework: organisational and individual family. The COVID-19 outbreak has a considerable negative influence on both worker productivity and traditional labour market analyses. The same is true for assessments that emphasize production indication. Productivity evaluates the efficiency with which resources such as labour, capital, land and energy are used to produce goods and services as well as other intangible factors (such as management expertise). Businesses and national economies may

increase productivity in a sustainable fashion by making investments in new technologies, upgraded worker skills, better infrastructure, worker safety and health measures, and more efficient operational procedures.

Unprecedented increases in productivity in 2020

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic's effects on the global economy and labour market, labour productivity has increased to previously unheard-of levels. The worldwide production per hour worked rose by 4.9% in 2020, more than double the long-term average annual rate of 2.4% observed between 2005 and 2019. (OECD, 2020a). This is the fastest rate of increase in hourly productivity that has been seen globally since statistics have been available. A similar tendency is evident across all key nation income categories. The epidemic significantly and quickly changed the composition of employment between 2019 and 2020. Particularly, the percentage of time spent working overall in small enterprises dropped in 2020 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2021).

Aggregate labour productivity has grown at an unheard-of rate because of the compositional impact, which causes larger businesses to produce more per hour worked than smaller ones on average. This shouldn't be seen as advantageous. In actuality, COVID-19 had an unevenly detrimental effect on the labour market, with small enterprises and the individuals employed there bearing the brunt of the repercussions. Teleworking, commonly referred to as 'work-from-home' or 'home-office,' has been common practice for many companies and employees during the COVID-19 crisis lockdown.

As long as they complied with the necessary technological, statutory and digital security standards, enterprises, industries and personnel could continue to operate throughout this period of society's 'forced experiment' even though they were geographically separated from one another.

Whether or not a company has used teleworking before, it might have a big impact on all kinds of businesses (OECD, 2020b). The fact that not everyone had access to telework during the crisis may have worsened already-existing inequities. Despite

the fact that telework helped some businesses and employees, particularly those who had previously used it, better 'weather the storm,' not everyone had access to it during the crisis. For instance, during the crisis many employees held roles that required them to be present physically, especially young, less educated workers at the bottom of the pay scale (Brussevich, Dabla-Norris & Khalid, 2020). Telework has been crucial to sustaining output throughout the crisis, despite the fact that its effects on productivity are uncertain.

People who were permitted to work from home may have momentarily produced less than they would have in the absence of the crisis due to the unique conditions under which telework was performed. In the longer term, progress may accelerate to the extent that the crisis promotes the wider and more clever application of efficient telework practices, boosting worker productivity and well-being while cutting costs for corporations.

The consequence of Work From Home on Employees' Productivity

This could speed up the transition to a 'new normal,' which would have been longer in the absence of the crisis, given the costs and uncertainties surrounding the necessary organizational and management adjustments as well as other obstacles, such as cultural opposition or regulatory constraints. These positive longer-term productivity effects, such as less contact and poor creativity, are offset by possible drawbacks brought on by greater spatial separation among employees. The mixing of work and personal, family and social life results in covert overtime.

Thanks to social partner dialogue and public policy, the change may be fostered and teleworking practices that increase employee welfare and productivity can grow (Espinoza & Reznikova, 2020). They may aid firms in implementing the necessary changes that may assist organizations in implementing the necessary changes while reducing risks and enabling more employees to benefit from telework opportunities that enhance wellbeing.

Teleworking Exclusively from Home

Given that teleworking will become more prevalent internationally, it is crucial to comprehend the long-term effects on firms and overall productivity. It is significant to note that current studies assessing the range of tasks that can be performed by teleworking during this time period differ from the percentage of persons who have teleworked (Kifor, Săvescu & Dănuț, 2022). Jobs that provide some work-from-home time may not be ideal for teleworking exclusively. For instance, only 30.7% of current professions in Sweden may be performed while under rigorous confinement, despite the fact that around 57.2% of persons there reported doing some telework (Galanti, Guidetti, Mazzei, Zappalà & Toscano, 2021).

Although occupational activities may more closely represent telework limits due to the nature of the employment, it is important to note that cross-country disparities in the variety of tasks that may be accomplished totally from home are often lower than differences in the actual telework documented. This implies that, in addition to changes in the makeup of job types that result in workers executing a varied mix of activities in each country's industrial structure, other factors may also be at play. These disparity factors may be influenced by a variety of elements, including culture, management methods applied, digital infrastructure, skill endowment, and workforce age distribution (Vyas & Butakhieo, 2021).

The COVID–19 on employee productivity: An option to experience Work from Home?

To evaluate the productivity of workers who work from home as an alternative, we ask the critical research question: 'is the arrival of COVID-19 an option to experience Work from Home?' It is true that the emergence of COVID-19 provided the world with the opportunity to 'experience WFH, which had long been a desired work alternative for many, particularly in places like Hong Kong, where multiple family workforces are more common' (Purwanto *et al.*, 2020). The duty of elderly parents and/or small children, along with a demanding work environment, has posed difficulty, calling into question the WLB of Hong Kong's workforce.

Preliminary findings on employers' and workers' perceptions of WFH in Hong Kong suggest that the new working arrangement has been met with positive early reactions. Beyond the apparent degree of satisfaction, there are a number of holes in the present WFH framework which is leading to growing unhappiness with the absence of effective home-working regulations. The public's perception of WFH must be taken into account since it is linked to the effectiveness of WFH efforts. Looking back on the profession's early days, the great majority of replies were positive. According to a poll conducted in April 2020, more than 80% of employees wished at least partial WFH measures to be implemented, with percentages varying in how many days a week that should be, indicating a preference for a mixed pattern of working. According to the data:

> *…the most prevalent explanations for this were more time to relax (72.2 percent strongly agree), less work-related stress (63.8 percent strongly agree), and an improvement in WLB (60.7 percent strongly agree)'. Opinions also favoured employers, with 45 percent of respondents agreeing that companies give appropriate benefits or support to execute an effective WFH strategy (Wong & Cheung, 2020).*

However, while this was the most popular position, it did not represent the majority view, indicating that there was still potential for improvement even in the early days. This is evident in the same survey, with the majority of respondents agreeing to all of the issues mentioned, including a lack of hardware, disruption from family, and poor contact with co-workers.

Another study found that WFH had health advantages, with more than 80% of workers feeling psychologically relaxed while working from home. This survey also found that workers prefer and support:

> *WFH measures (73%), flextime (83%), and shortened working hours (77%). (Sun Life, 2020). Despite initial support from Hong Kong employees for WFH practices, it is evident that there are significant difficulties that must be addressed (JLL, 2020).*

Another research claims that the particular working environment of Hong Kong makes WFH less appealing to employees, with workers failing to distinguish

between personal and professional environments. According to the poll, 'workers 35 years and older had to balance between home and work responsibilities at the same time,' with one possible explanation being that individuals in this region tend to live in multi-generational families. Workers don't have as much leisure as their western counterparts, which leads to many distractions and an unbalance between work and family life. Additionally, 68 percent of workers reported that they missed going to work and were missing the personal connection, the professional environment, and face-to-face interaction necessary for stronger cooperation (JLL, 2020). Another piece of evidence is the fact that 'during the COVID-19 epidemic, public officials were permitted to work from home, and various government agencies offered information technology support, such as newly installed PCs, mobile devices, or other equipment.' Software and improved network, database, and communication capabilities are also included for their staff's effective WFH.

While organisations provide WFH-related help, employees may have issues in receiving information from the organisation, which can be problematic. Although employees are able to WFH to aid in the Hong Kong pandemic thanks to the unusual work structure, the current WFH approach lacks precise criteria. There was debate and uncertainty on whether people would be forced to work from home during inclement weather or if they would receive time off similar to the old working arrangement (Ng, 2020a). Therefore specific recommendations or instructions are required. Several Asian nations, including Hong Kong, have encountered the new normative workplace, WFH. Both at work and in their personal lives, employees have experienced the repercussions of this.

Concluding Remark

The study explored the changing nature and impact of the rapidly evolving situation of COVID 19 emergence on employee productivity in South Africa. According to research, the formerly coveted, highly attractive WFH has not shown to be one of the best solutions for the majority of Hong Kong's workers. WFH is still popular, although not in its current form. Better government rules and regulations should be in place to properly regulate and make WFH practicable. Guidance on adjusting

to distant online work is one area of policy where preparation and execution are extremely necessary.

The decision to cease in-person meetings and work was made quickly, but without any instructions on how to do so. Workers are uninformed of what WFH implies and lack the tools needed for this transformation, such as software, access to formal papers, and a suitable working environment. If this technique is to become a viable choice or the new normal, proper training is essential. Perhaps the working balance will be seen after the epidemic when WFH is no longer a forced obligation, but rather a flexible option.

The following are the suggested recommendation or proposals offered for several possible activities that the government might take to make WFH more realistic in a local setting. In the short term, the study recommends that the government implement a formal WFH guideline for employees and employers. The government must take COVID-19 risk assessment into account when developing the guidelines. They need to implement subsidies and provide other incentives to assist small and medium-sized businesses to implement WFH initiatives. This will enhance the current Distance Business Program, and promote family-friendly employment practises.

CHAPTER 2:

PUTTING A TRANSFORMED ONTO-EPISTEMOLOGICAL ETHIC TO WORK IN POST-COLONIAL AND POST-APARTHEID TALENT DEVELOPMENT

Johannes (Hannes) L van der Walt
Research Fellows, Edu-HRight Research Focus Area, Faculty of Education, North-West University, Potchefstroom

Izak J Oosthuizen
Research Fellows, Edu-HRight Research Focus Area, Faculty of Education, North-West University, Potchefstroom

Abstract

The development of the latent talent of young people in South Africa is of the utmost importance, given the current high unemployment rate. South Africans' ongoing struggle with their colonial and apartheid past, in particular with the after-effects of this heritage in the form of the colonisation or coloniality of the mind, counts as one of the major stumbling blocks in the way of unlocking young people's potential through education and training. It is suggested that a transformed onto-epistemological ethic be put to work to remove this obstacle in the way of talent development. Not only does a new ethic need to be put in place but also a new ontology (view of being), anthropology (view of the human being) and epistemology (view of knowledge, awareness), as well as a new approach to education and training. South Africans are not the first to deal with the issue of living in "two worlds". The chapter concludes with a sketch of a possible way towards a new future that also includes new ways of unlocking the talent pool among the youth.

Keywords

apartheid, coloniality, decolonisation, epistemology, ethic, ontology, talent development

Introduction and problem statement

In the fourth quarter of 2021, the unemployment rate in South Africa stood at 35,3%, and the youth unemployment rate at a staggering 66,5% (Take-Profit.Org, 2021). These high percentages imply (a) that many of the prospective (young) workers in the country do not (yet) possess the talent, skills and capabilities to contribute productively to the current market economy and are thus deemed to be unemployable, or (b) that the economy as such has become stagnant due to a raft of restrictive official policies and unforeseen circumstances such as the Covid-19 pandemic (2019-2021) and thus cannot absorb more (young) workers, or (c) that (young) people remain unemployed or are deemed unemployable as a result of the combined impact of all the factors and circumstances enumerated in (a) and (b). (Angola's unemployment rate stood at 32,9% in the fourth quarter of 2021 – the second worst in Africa, after South Africa) (Take-Profit.Org, 2021).

This condition is not unique to developing countries in the Global South. Similar situations have also surfaced in much more economically developed countries in the Global North, mainly due to the conditions mentioned in (b). On 13 April 2022, for instance, Alida Oppers, Dutch inspector-general of education, reported to the two ministers of education in the Netherlands that, mainly as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic, she had registered a marked decline in basic skills among school learners and a resultant growth in inequality as far as job and other opportunities were concerned (Verus Newsletter, 2022). Problems such as these are however more acute in the Global South due to the added and lingering impact of colonisation and – in South Africa – the enduring effects of apartheid policies. Colonial and apartheid policies gave origin, according to Urrieta and Calderón (2019:161), to classroom spaces and school contexts in which students' (learners' or trainees') identities were shaped within a context of limited possibilities geared to providing structuring support for the colonial power or the apartheid government.

It is important for a country such as South Africa, when taking stock of the talent available to the economy, to take into account the restrictions imposed on talent development during the long period of colonisation (1650s-1948) and the ensuing

apartheid dispensation (1948-1994). Government policies during these two periods led to a neglect in the development of the talent pool available in the ranks of the indigenous (ethnic African) population, the so-called coloured or brown population and citizens of Asian origin. It is argued below, based on studies done in South Africa and elsewhere in the world, that despite all the measures taken in South Africa during the past 28 years to address this problem of neglected talent, the South African talent pool has not come, and indeed cannot come, to full bloom as long as the lingering presence and effects of the phenomenon known as the "colonisation of the mind" of the previously colonised are felt.

The concept of "lingering colonisation of the mind"

Liberal democratic citizenship, as embodied and entrenched in the South African Constitution of 1996, may appear from one perspective, says Povinelli (2013:211, 212), to be promoting the freedom of the political and social destiny of a person (in the case discussed in this chapter, a learner/student/trainee as a future worker or a person currently in training for a job), enabling him or her to become and be a politically free citizen in such a liberal democracy, also in terms of his or her social identity and relations on the ground, including his or her social background and identity as a previously colonised and, hence, socially and economically deprived person. It is argued below, however, that prolonged and persistent colonisation of the mind continues to prevent many among the previously colonised in South Africa from being as personally and economically free as can be expected in a liberal democracy.

Colonisation something of the past?

Colonisation by a foreign power may be something of the past for South Africa, but its effects linger on in the sense that the mentality of those who were colonised remains embedded in the colonial order. Maldonado-Torres (2007:243) explains that the term "coloniality" encapsulates the myriad ways in which colonialism survives into the present, among other things in social formations such as labour, culture and knowledge production. Urrieta and Calderón (2019:146, 154) aver that colonialism has even led to "indigenous erasure", the dehumanisation of the

indigenous people and "cultural genocide" through "the logic of elimination" and "dehumanizing discourses" (also see Pochedley, 2016:54). While great strides have been made in the past 28 years in South Africa to establish a society based on liberal democratic values, social justice and fundamental rights, Mudau and Mtonga (2020: 45) are convinced that exclusion, marginalisation and social injustice remain deeply engrained in our society. These experiences have affected the manner in which the thoughts, ideas and actions of the previously colonised have been shaped and structured during colonial times (Zamora, 2016:2).

As a result of this lingering effect of colonialism, it has been difficult to overhaul knowledge systems, education and training in South Africa, which, according to Mudau and Mtonga (2020:45), remain largely rooted in colonial and Western worldviews and epistemological traditions. The notion of a lingering colonisation of the mind is succinctly captured in these authors' claim that South Africans' worldviews, education and training have remained "caught up in a conservative culture" (Mudau & Mtonga, 2020:47). This state of affairs could arguably be ascribed to the fact that European colonisation had created a world system constituted by a European "core" and a non-European "periphery". The European core led to a modern world of global capitalism, marked by an ensemble of sociocultural norms, attitudes and practices that can be traced to Renaissance and Enlightenment developments in Europe and which culminated in a commitment to liberalism as the legitimising philosophy of dominant states within an emergent neoliberal interstate system (Majumder, 2021:1). Although formal colonialism has ended, the modernity engendered by colonisation has led to the persistence of some "sedimented" colonial ways of being and knowing (i.e. a colonial ontology, anthropology and epistemology), based on systems of categorisation, classification and "taxonomisation", and the manners in which these are manifested in practices, artefacts and technologies (Ali, 2016:17). "Coloniality", according to Ali (2016:18), refers to the condition that remains following the dismantling of colonial and apartheid structures; it refers to the persistence of the colonial legacy in various cultural forms, practices, histories and knowledge structures.

Ali (2016: 19) continues as follows regarding the neglect of the talent pool of the indigenous population, currently referred to as the "previously colonised": the dark underside of Western modernity as a colonial order was that race (in the form of racial exclusion) was applied as the organising principle rather than capital and the advancement of all. This practice led to asymmetrical power relations. According to Majumder (2021:2), these tendencies have received new impetus in the 21st century due to economic globalisation (neoliberalism). The principles of this new "geo-economic" now amount to a second wave of "colonial" (neo-colonial) domination by erstwhile empires; this time with a different nomenclature (Majumder, 2021:1; also see Hershey, 2019:44-46). Calderón (2014:82) speaks of "old and new forms of colonization". This state of affairs has ethical implications: where should the previously colonised peoples position themselves vis-à-vis neoliberalism? (Also see Zamora, 2016: 60).

Colonisation of the mind

Shahjahan, Ramirez and De Oliveira Andreotti (2017:S53) define the colonisation of the mind as the "conscious/subconscious processes, … desires, identifications, and attachments" that have been embedded in the lives and minds of the previously colonised "through an ongoing logic of domination underlying former imperial powers … and a Eurocentric process of … knowing, being and representation". Colonisation disembedded the majority of South Africans from their original (indigenous) life-worlds and re-embedded them in the life-world of the colonising power. As a result, the effects of colonisation linger on in the hearts and the minds of the previously colonised (Povinelli, 2013:212, 219). Magula and Phoshoko (2020:95) refer to this colonisation of the mind in the following terms: "Direct colonisation may have ended in South Africa, however, its legacies in different spheres of our lives as in the education system continue." Calderón (2014:82) defines the colonisation of the mind as "the legacies and contemporary manifestations of coloniality (that) shape how we understand the world around us". It is clear from this outline that the colonisation of the mind amounts to "a mindset, a mentality, a way of looking at things" (Sacks, 2020:109).

Baloyi (2020:1/8) describes the colonisation of the mind in the following stark terms: "[C]olonisation had succeeded in putting native people in a space where they are not who they want to be. Black people … have no longer been able to define or even identify with their real selves." This has become for them a matter of "black self-hatred … that manifests itself in many forms in [their] daily lives. … It is from within black hatred that people start despising their own culture and traditions … self-hatred [has] been enacted by the racial inequalities of the past … [The] internalisation of self-hatred goes even deeper than can be imagined" (Baloyi, 2020:1/8). He continues: "[T]his helps to destroy black culture, and our identity as black Africans … [it] comes as a package with colonialism … self-hatred is … accompanied by self-neglect" (Baloyi, 2020:2/8). In saying all of this, he echoes a sentiment expressed by Hooks (1992:3) more than two decades ago, namely that formerly colonised people "have internalised white supremacist values and aesthetics, a way of looking and seeing the world that negates [their] value".

Important in light of the theme of this chapter, namely how to unleash the latent talent among previously disadvantaged South Africans, is Baloyi's (2020:3/8) view "that a black person does not regard him- or herself as having all the qualities of life, just as is the case with any other race". They tend to see themselves as inferior, people with a "dislocated mindset", people with "colonialism inflicted on their minds". The problem with this, according to Baloyi (2020:6/8), is that black people do not see themselves as contributing to the welfare of the nation because they may see themselves (and others may see them) as trying "to be something or someone he or she is not". Baloyi (2020:6/8) goes so far as to suspect that "psychological damage [has been done] to the minds of black people".

The extent to which the colonisation of the mind of previously colonised South Africans in actual fact is still lingering on can also be observed in statements such as Magula and Phoshoko's (2020:84) assertion that "minor inclusions of African knowledge systems [in legal training] has done nothing to dismantle the Eurocentrism embedded in the curricula". The current problem, in their opinion, "is the heavy reliance on Western culture, language and ideology and the cognitive dominance that creates self-doubt for Africans, and the over-glorification of

everything Western". Moreover, a colonised curriculum "impedes access to the full range of knowledge and prevents free enquiry and the search for the truth" (Magula & Phoshoko, 2020:90).

The "colonisation of the mind" issue is of particular concern to whoever wishes to develop the talent pool available among the previously colonised citizens of a country such as South Africa, who is devoted to the education, training and preparation of the previously deprived and marginalised to become politically and socially free and to become and be productive contributors to the economy of the country. In the remainder of this chapter, we proffer a possible way out of this predicament. A first step to consider is to put in place a transformed onto-epistemological ethic. That ethic, we contend, may constitute a firm basis for the reform of the education and training sector. The final sections of the chapter are devoted to a discussion of a possible programme for education and training reform that may possibly lead to the development of the latent talent pool in South Africa.

A transformed onto–epistemological ethic to be put in place

First and foremost, a transformed onto-epistemological ethic needs to be put in place. This is at the heart of the strategy to decolonise the minds of the previously colonised, those currently in training and those awaiting training or yearning for the opportunity to be trained for future employment. Shahjahan *et al*. (2017:S57) note that we should develop "a new onto-epistemic grammar" for this purpose. This, they say, involves "a self-reflexive move" and is arguably the most important step in the process of unleashing the latent talent among previously disadvantaged prospective workers in South Africa. The following line of reasoning explicates the meaning of the term "transformed onto-epistemological ethic".

A new ethic

The term "ethic" refers to a set of moral values held by an individual or group, a system of accepted beliefs that control behaviour, especially a system based on morals or a set of moral principles that influence or control a person or group's

behaviour. The moral system, says Sacks (2020:12), "is the voice of society within the self". It refers to the common good that limits and directs our various pursuits; it is what allows people to get on with one another without endless recourse to economics and politics. Morality is what broadens people's perspective beyond the self and its desires; it places the "self" in the midst of collective social order. In fact, according to Sacks (2020:12), "society is constituted by a shared morality". Morality creates trust. The stronger the moral bonds of community, the more powerful the force of trust, and the more people can achieve together. A society with a strong, shared moral code is a high-trust place.

A new ethic has to be put in place to achieve better development of the latent talent pool in South Africa, namely one on the basis of which one can talk "about the things that colonialism left undone", "things that stayed behind even though the colonial authority left for Europe" – a critique that deals with knowledge and identity issues (Jansen, 2017:n.p.). More attention is required to evaluate values and value systems that have been ousted or suppressed during colonial times. The "decolonial option" should be embraced as an ethic, thereby thinking through what it might mean to do something for and with those situated at the peripheries of the world system, such as previously disadvantaged trainees whose talents have yet to be developed (Ali, 2016:21). Among other things, values (such as Ubuntu, a philosophy in line with "homo Africanus" principles (see Magezi, 2019:325) have to be reinterpreted in terms of modern developments such as globalism (Kafanabo, 2019). Societal freedom cannot be sustained by market economies and liberal democratic politics alone. It needs a third element, says Sacks (2020:1), namely morality. That is, a concern for the welfare of all, an active commitment to justice and compassion and a willingness to ask what is good for all; in this case, especially for those who have been historically left behind and whose talents have not been optimally developed and employed.

A transformed onto–epistemology to be adopted

The phrase "a transformed onto-epistemology" implies, in light of the new ethic that has to be adopted, that educators, especially the trainers of future workers,

should see the change in their pedagogical approach as a paradigmatic issue and the creation of a new mindset (Magezi, 2019:320). Zamora (2016:13) maintains that the decolonisation of the mind amounts to "a project of reframing, a decolonial perspective that shifts the way we talk about social issues away from colonized ways of knowing – a form of 'epistemic disobedience'". Educators and trainers should focus their efforts and analyses on a critical examination and challenging of discursive structures and legacies of power. The goal here is to change the way in which they perceive reality, themselves and their behaviour (Zamora, 2016:3). This new mindset involves "delinking and border-thinking", as viewed by Ali (2016:19). Ali (2016:19) continues that doing so entails a reconsideration of the "body-politics" and the "geo-politics" of knowledge. That is, thinking about who is thinking and knowing, and from where the thinking is done. This is a departure from the Western abstract-scientific way of thinking; it is thinking about the prevailing material conditions, thinking from the periphery, the margins. The materiality of this thinking points to race and culture as still being seen (after colonialism and apartheid) as the structures of the political economy so that the corporeal experiences of those previously excluded from the knowledge production processes can surface. The decolonisation of the mind entails "to at once identify the epistemological and ontological projects of coloniality and to explore our (respective indigenous) relationships to these projects" (Calderón, 2014:87).

A new ontology – theorising about a new way of being

A transformed onto-epistemological ethic should be based on a new understanding of personal being and of the self as completely liberated and post-colonial. This implies the adoption of a new ontology and anthropology, which should ideally lead to the embracing of "new perceptions of self" (Baloyi, 2020:6/8). To decolonise the mind, Baloyi (2020:7/8) suggests that the previously colonised should begin accepting themselves as they are, after asking themselves who they are. They should also deny everything that works to degrade their lives, their culture and their future, and they should persist in reflecting "a true black conscience". These remarks are reminiscent of an utterance of Anzaldúa (1999:109): "Awareness of our situation must come before inner changes, which in turn come before changes in

society. Nothing happens in the 'real' world unless it first happens in the images in our heads."

In terms of this new paradigm or mindset, educators or trainers should firstly, see and approach their learners as new, post-colonised individuals, each with latent potential, each with their own unique background and culture, as people with a new future in a new post-colonial and -apartheid country and economy, and not as people still hamstrung by a colonial or apartheid hangover, struggling with a colonial mentality and mindset. Furthermore, they should assist and guide these learners or trainees to see themselves as completely free from the after-effects of colonisation, people already having successfully shaken off the shackles of colonialism and apartheid. Secondly, educators or trainers should see their students or trainees as people with optimism for the future and prepared to take on the challenges of the future. That is, people who are not satisfied with learning and teaching being perceived as "given" by educators or trainers (Magula & Phoshoko, 2020:92) but as co-constructed by themselves.

A new epistemology – theorising about a new awareness

A new ontology and anthropology also implies the adoption of a new epistemology. The decolonisation of the mind entails "breaking a monoculture of the mind" (Shahjahan *et al.*, 2017:S54). The previously colonised must stop justifying Western epistemologies as the only correct ones (Baloyi, 2020:6/8) but should instead tap into their own (indigenous) epistemologies and search for ways of life that somehow coincide with Western-type thinking. The decolonisation of the mind implies employing a methodology that requires one to move away from the colonial imaginary that "percolates" in the colonised mind. Part of this process is to understand the colonial logic behind the colonisation of the mind. A new theory should be developed that emanates from what the previously colonised live, breathe and experience in their everyday lives (Calderón, 2014:83). According to Anzaldúa's (2002:549) theory regarding the conocimiento (knowledge in the sense of awareness), the previously colonised should keep track of the ongoing circumstances of their lives, sort, sift and symbolise their experiences and try to arrange them into a pattern and a story that resonate with their reality. By carving

a path of conocimiento, the trainee will realise that coloniality or the colonialism of the mind has been operating in a manner that renders the indigenous mind invisible, and has permeated all of life and existence and has become the norm, that knowledge has been institutionalised in a colonial context and against a colonial background. This awareness will enable the trainee to identify the mechanisms, ideologies and practices that have up to now promoted coloniality – the colonialism of the mind.

The goal or purpose of the decolonisation of the mind is to eradicate the internalisation of colonial ways of thinking. Trainees have to be brought to the insight that they no longer) are victims but "have always been agentic towards directing their lives and the survival of their communities" (Urrieta & Calderón, 2019:169). This amounts to a process of reframing, a decolonial project that ensures that issues related to the lives of marginalised, previously colonised subjects become re-framed in order to best suit their present needs (Zamora, 2016:13, 30).

A new understanding of the self and of the past, the present and the future should shape how trainees see themselves, their place in the world, the country, the economy and their society, as well as how they think and argue about all of these. Mudau and Mtonga (2020:47) add the following reforms to this list: responsiveness to the social context; recognition of epistemological diversity; renewal of pedagogy and classroom practices; and establishing an institutional culture of openness and critical reflection. The adoption of this new approach should ideally lead to a transformation of education and training so that the talents latent in the previously disadvantaged population (trainees) can be optimally unleashed. We now turn to this challenge.

The transformation of education and training as such

Working towards transformed education and training

Mudau and Mtonga (2020:52 et seq.) expand on each of the reforms and changes with which the previous section ended. Most important in a programme to

ameliorate the problem of the lingering colonialism of the mind in the previously colonised is their advice regarding the transformation of education. In their opinion,

> [t]he transformation of education involves the continuous re-thinking and re-evaluation of the ways in which learning and teaching take place. This includes responsiveness and training new pedagogical methodologies and approaches. […] It further entails pursuing inquiry-led teaching and learning … address[ing] the invisibility of certain groups by … removing pedagogical and classroom hindrances [by] way of diversification … [being] sensitive to [learner, student, trainee] diversity by addressing students across differences such as race, sex, gender, sexuality, socio-economic class or disability (Mudau & Mtonga, 2020:54).

Such education can be advantageous to the student or trainee, his or her community and the market economy (without, as repeatedly stated in this chapter, undue emphasis on the neoliberal expectations of globalism (Gaini, 2018:4; also see Anangisye, 2019). Mudau and Mtonga (2020:55) correctly warn that a transformation of education also "can be dangerous and counter-productive if it is purely driven by policy agendas … in the absence of sound pedagogical considerations". Market economies and liberal politics will fail, Sacks points out (2020:2), if they are not undergirded by a moral sense that puts people's shared humanity first.

Making use of and revisiting Western education and training theories

Western-type theories of teaching and learning should be revisited by South African trainers and educationists "who understand their culture and paradigm way of thinking" (Magano, 2018:236). The current teaching and learning (training) situation in South Africa and other formerly colonised countries cannot ignore Western teaching-learning theories (Magano, 2018:238). However, the strong points of these theories should be reinterpreted from the vantage of the new post-colonial onto-epistemology and anthropology discussed above. Education for the decolonisation of the mind, as Ali (2016:19) suggests, is about who is doing something at a specific point in time, where they are doing it and what they are doing. This implies attention to both epistemology (in relation to knowing) and

ontology (in relation to being). What this means is that the geopolitical and body-political orientation of both instructor and trainee when engaging with new knowledge should be taken into consideration when assessing Western theories of being, knowledge, morality, education and training (Ali, 2016:21).

A new, revised education and training programme

Ideally, the transformative onto-epistemology, ethic and concomitant perspective on education and training outlined and discussed in the previous main section of this chapter should find application in practice. The following "programme" may be considered for this purpose.

The need to change curriculum content?

Some of those who reflect on the transformation of the teaching, learning and training processes in a post-colonial environment insist on having a "radical change of content in the curriculum so as to create an Afrocentric curriculum" (Magula & Phoshoko, 2020:91) or to be more proper to "the context of the Faroe Islands [1]" in order to render it more appropriate to "the cultural identities and values of the young people" (Gaini, 2018:6). Baloyi (2020:7/8) goes so far as to suggest that curriculums should be transformed "from the core", and Pochedley (2016:73) advise that all colonial structures must be dismantled. Shahjahan et al. (2017:S52) state that decoloniality "seeks to understand and disrupt coloniality" (emphasis added).

We would argue that a wholesale change of the entire content of the curriculum is not essential, since it could result in a "retreat into indigenisation … flowing from a romanticised past" (Jansen,2017). What is essential, in our opinion, is an onto-epistemological reinterpretation of the curriculum content so that it relates better to the needs, challenges and life-worlds of the students or trainees and meets the requirements of the workplace (see Magezi, 2019:320). This interpretation may necessitate adaptations in curriculum content, such as bringing in local African

---

[1] Scandinavian islands with a distinct indigenous population.

contextual realities, making use of African traditional knowledge and insights where applicable and possible, including relevant readings from available African literature and issues that affect African life and conditions, and challenging those issues, thereby gaining new cultural and social insights.

The curriculum should be of such a nature and content that it would pass muster in any other education system as far as a standard and didactical approach is concerned. A total Africanisation or "Faroe-isation" of the curriculum could render it more appropriate for local students but might close the doors to further study or job opportunities abroad for them if the curriculum cannot provide proof that universally acceptable learning content and skills have been studied, soundly and didactically taught, successfully mastered and acceptably assessed. It is a matter of perspective: the curriculum should contain globally acceptable knowledge and skills, but in order to make the content and skills more relevant to South African learners and to assist them in the process of developing their talent and potential, the curriculum content should be presented in a way that is relevant, acceptable and understandable for young people in the Global South, in this particular case, the historically disadvantaged youth of South Africa.

What is required is indeed a reformation of the students' (learners or trainees') historical awareness that they are involved in mastering internationally acceptable curriculum content but at the same time ensuring the survival of their distinctively African (Faroese, Oriental, Latin-American, as the case may be) culture. In doing so, they will contribute to the revitalisation and renationalisation of their language and culture that have for so long been pushed to the background by colonisation and apartheid, and thereby re-embrace what is familiar and durable amidst the powerful processes of modernisation and globalisation (Gaini, 2018:15). We agree with Jansen's (2017) advice that all curricula, including those in the education and training sector, should be strengthened as far as possible with knowledge from Africa, Asia and Latin America, alongside knowledge from the West. This will provide trainees with a better understanding of the broader world of knowledge regarding their trade. In brief, knowledge should also resonate with the African condition, and specifically with the condition of the formerly colonised. Modern

technology gives "potential for greater participation in knowledge production" and opportunities for trainees from the Global South to engage with curricula and knowledge "with a global imprint" (Jansen, 2017). We agree: there should be no disproportionate concern for (a romanticised) past at the expense of knowledge for the present and the future. Our focus in training should indeed be on the future.

It is clear from the above that a fine line has to be trodden here. On the one hand, education and training should not be employed as an instrument or vehicle for perpetuating the after-effects and hegemonies of colonisation and apartheid, for prolonging the effects of the power structures associated with colonialism. Education and training theory and practice should be rid of the entanglements of colonialism and apartheid that hardly relate to (in casu, African) trainees' life-worlds and experiences (Magezi, 2019:317). On the other hand, education and training theory and practice should lead the trainees to take self-ownership of what they are being taught. The learning content should be relevant to their life-worlds and create new forms and potential that could lead to new futures for them (Magezi, 2019:318). Magezi (2019:320, 326) puts this finely balanced approach as follows:

> *… decoloniality should [help trainees] more to a common ground on which ideas and knowledge can be built. [Educators/trainers must] be open, willing and comfortable about seamlessly embracing the two epistemological sources [the colonial and the indigenous] … The knowledge should be relevant locally (in South Africa), continentally (Africa) and globally (the entire world). … [Make use of a] mindset that promotes epistemologies and … approaches that engage with contemporary issues and try to integrate, where possible European thought with African thought to derive knowledge and wisdom from [all] people's wisdom and experiences.*

Bring trainees' own indigenous backgrounds to bear on their training

Young people must be assisted to understand and appreciate their own indigenous backgrounds and life philosophies that have been driven to the back- and underground for several centuries, ideally as they are articulated in their own indigenous languages (Povinelli, 2013:213). Trainers must understand the experiences and positions of their trainees as situational and contextual

(Pochedley, 2016:85). The decolonisation of the mind in pedagogical context should also be centred, as suggested by Urrieta and Calderón (2019:147, 149), on the various forms of activism, rage, healing, love, community and enduring colonialities of power that inform learners or trainees' experiences, also in and through education. In the process, it is important to develop sufficiently rigorous local knowledge that relates better to the present and the future needs and challenges of the students or trainees (Magula & Phoshoko, 2020:84) and also complies better with the requirements of the South African job market. Kafanabo (2019) cautions that many changes have affected traditional indigenous values since the beginning of colonialism; these effects must be assessed. There is always the possibility that some of the precolonial values might not have survived unscathed the impact of colonialism and apartheid.

Educators and trainers should accept that the interests of the various communities represented in a class of trainees will most likely not converge and be fully in alignment. Trainers should therefore display a nuanced understanding of the various interests at play during the discussion of a particular subject or topic taught in class. They should engage with the prevailing dominant onto-epistemology by also bringing to bear in the discussion the various non-dominant, less powerful (including marginalised) colonial worldviews and examine the various power relationships at work in community life (Calderón, 2014:90).

The idea here is not to impose a one-size-fits-all approach on the training situation – an approach to training that is one-dimensional and reductive – but to move towards a more complex understanding of reality and its situatedness in various contexts (Calderón, 2014:90, 94). The idea behind this approach is to paint cultural landscapes as bodies of knowledge that serve to support survivance, a story that is lived by individuals and their communities, and that could resist the colonisation of the mind (coloniality) and the concomitant loss of identity. This will help the trainees towards the development of identities and histories that have been marginalised by colonialism, and still continue to be marginalised by the colonisation of the mind, by the dominant discourses that previously excluded their identities and histories (Holm, 2020:3).

Make critical use of Western-type input

Trainees must also understand the Western way of life, and life- and worldviews in their own terms, and engage with this knowledge from the vantage of their own indigenous philosophies; this engagement should constitute a real political activity (Povinelli, 2013:213). While we do not agree with Magula and Phoshoko (2020:89) that decolonising the curriculum would "mean using methodologies and learning materials that disrupt European hegemonies", we do agree with their view that a revision of the school and training curriculum should open doors for students and trainees to the full range of knowledge and enable free enquiry and the search for truth. Magano (2018:236) correctly states that the Western ways of doing things need not necessarily be undermined, but education aimed at dismantling the lingering colonisation of the mind should "speak to the teaching and learning context from a different world view". The students or trainees should be enabled to address their own and their communities' issues, thereby contributing to a better world for all (Sacks, 2020:17). Their teaching and learning should reflect their own post-colonial worldviews and lived realities.

Prepare trainees for a purposeful existence in a liberal democracy

The approach to curriculum reform outlined in this section is also required so that learners, students or trainees can become equipped for functioning effectively in a liberal democracy such as that of South Africa (of course, without undue emphasis on neoliberal precepts such as heavy competition, productivity above all, excessive emphasis on profit and the bottom line and the commodity-centred calculus of the global industry [Hershey, 2019:48]). We agree with Magula and Phoshoko (2020:91) when they draw attention to the importance of attending to what is taught and how it is taught. Measures should be taken to ensure that what is taught is relevant to the needs and lives of the previously colonised and the currently marginalised sectors of the population and especially for their preparation to access lucrative job opportunities. The emphasis should be on what people need within their cultural and social contexts, and not necessarily on what they want. The curriculum should therefore be context sensitive: cultural and economic – including the (job) market

(Anangisye, 2019). In saying this, Anangisye agrees with Magano (2018:235) that a schooling or training environment that will benefit young people should be created.

Furthermore, trainees should be led to understand that no one should be defined, nor should their life possibilities be defined, by any aspect of their previously colonised being or current social being. The space in which a person as a student, learner, trainee and possible future worker in the economy finds him- or herself is ontologically neutral in itself. It is merely a "container" for the learner as an "emergent human" and future worker to make a home for him- or herself in the world (Povinelli, 2013:220).

Follow a concerted didactical approach

Trainees should be guided to understand that a combination of the insights expressed in the previous paragraphs in this section of the chapter should ideally lead to a shared mode of being in the world (Ben-Porath & Smith, 2013:10). We agree with Pochedley (2016:6) that the didactic approach outlined in the previous paragraphs can be applied in any classroom. The programme outlined above will hopefully help trainees to come to terms and articulate their intangible, spiritual and emotional sentiments (Pochedley, 2016:22), thereby overcoming the colonisation of their minds. Didactics (teaching and learning, in casu in the education and training context) is "fundamentally about transformation" (Pochedley, 2016:32). It assists the trainee to come into being and constantly alter that being. Pedagogy is more than simply the act of teaching and training; it is an active and critical engagement with the world.

Pochedley (2016:55) makes the important point that people from many backgrounds have to live together in South Africa and have to be trained to develop insight, understanding and empathy with and for the dignity, culture, language, background and religion of all the others for inclusive and equitable reasons. The development of the latent talent pool in South Africa should not only concentrate on skills and capabilities development for the purpose of bolstering the economy of the country and ensuring economic growth, but should also be about building and healing relationships. The reality in which we live – a post-colonial and post-

apartheid dispensation – is all we have. Teaching-learning and training should help trainees to know how to live together and how to share, for the benefit of all South Africans. Talent development must be centred on notions of mutual beneficence, relationality and interconnectedness. Our didactics during training should reflect these sentiments; it should concentrate on "an ecology of … interknowledges" that grounds our training effort, education and communal life on new modes of engagement and questions that are perceived to be worth asking (Shahjahan *et al.*, 2017:S68).

We, as post–colonials, are not the first (or only) people confronted with the challenge of facing changing our mindset

Previously colonised individuals and communities since the 1960s are not the first in history who have to face a new cultural and educational dispensation and the question as to whether to change or adapt their mindset as a result of the engagement with new conditions. Jewish individuals, families and communities have often been confronted through their history of a thousand years in Europe with the challenges of enforced exiles and expulsions, ghettoes and pogroms, and have repeatedly demonstrated their ability to navigate through such troubled waters (Sacks, 2020:63).

As post-colonised and post-apartheid South Africans, we also can learn much from the situation that the early Christians had to deal with during the first two or three centuries after the ascension of Jesus Christ. Some of these early Christians grew up and lived in Israel (where they had been immersed in the Hebrew or Aramaic language, culture, education and philosophy, and in Judaism as the dominant religion), others in Asia Minor and Greece (where they had been immersed in the Greek culture, language, educational theory and practice, and the Attic pantheon) or in Rome (where they had been immersed in the Roman culture, traditions, education, and Roman polytheism). They remained Hebrews or Jews, Greeks or Romans after their conversion to Christianity; it was impossible for them to denounce their past education, their cultures and their languages (Van der Walt,

1999:2). As a result, they found themselves living in two worlds after their conversion to Christianity, much like 21st-century South Africans are now living in two worlds – in a post-colonial, post-apartheid liberal-democratic world or environment based on a progressive constitution (1996), on the one hand, and at the same time, in a world still permeated with many of the lingering effects and the impact of colonialism and apartheid.

Like the early Christians, post-colonial and post-apartheid South Africans find themselves confronted with challenges regarding at least the following four areas or aspects of their lives: (a) their daily existence (as recently converted Christians in a Hebrew or Greek or Roman, as the case might have been, environment); (b) the cultural diversity in their environment; (c) the politics of the state (Jerusalem, Athens or Rome); and (d) the life- and worldview or philosophy of the surrounding community. Especially the latter aspect constituted a serious dilemma for the early Christians after their adoption of a quite different religion and worldview. The discussion above in this chapter shows that this is much the same dilemma in which post-colonial and -apartheid South Africans find themselves in the two worlds in which they have lived since 1994. Although the political context has formally changed since 1994, many South Africans are still struggling with the ongoing effects of the colonisation of the mind.

Like 21st-century South Africans, the early Christians searched for a solution to this problem of living in "two worlds" by finding the key to reconciling their new status with the lingering effects of their "old" view of life and existence. Reflection on this dilemma brought to light that they had four options for dealing with the lingering effects of their personal past, culture, education and life- and worldview: (a) they could simply and uncritically continue with their lives (as Jews, Greeks or Romans); (b) they could contrive to merge their new Christian life- and worldview and existence with their previous philosophy and way of life; (c) they could select elements from their previous existence and life- and worldview and make them part of their new life and way of thinking; or (d) they could summarily reject their past life and life- and worldview (Van der Walt, 1999:3). Post-colonial and post-apartheid South Africans have precisely these same four options going forward: (a)

they can simply and uncritically proceed with their lives as post-colonials, pretending that the colonial past and apartheid never happened and do not have a lingering effect or impact on their lives; (b) they can attempt to reconcile or merge elements from their new post-colonial and -apartheid situation with the most favourable elements of the pre-1994 way of life in South Africa; (c) they can select only some acceptable elements from the colonial and apartheid past and make these part of their new liberated life; or (d) they can simply reject their past colonial and apartheid life in the hope that they will be able to build a future without having to look back to either the good or the bad of the colonial or apartheid past.

The advice given by the Apostolic Fathers with respect to these four options in the first centuries AD is enlightening. Justin Martyr (100-165) revealed little sense of an antithesis (opposition) between Christianity and the previous Greek philosophy and way of life. He sought to minimise the differences between these worldviews and ways of life so as to make it as easy as possible for a Greek to make the transition to Christianity. He wished to make Christianity intellectually respectable and therefore easy to believe and convert to (Frame, 2015:91). Clement of Alexandria (155-220) too followed an accommodating route by stating that Greek philosophy had prepared the Greeks for the coming and acceptance of Christ (Tarnas, 2010:104). Origen (185-254) also followed an accommodating view in that, although he had high regard for Scripture as the Word of God, his allegorical interpretation thereof made it possible to teach a wide variety of speculative philosophical ideas that could accommodate the non-Christian philosophical ideas of his time (Frame, 2015:102). His friend and colleague Ambrosius of Alexandria (c.212-250) similarly followed an accommodating strategy by stating that the classic philosophers must have learnt their trade from the Bible (Van der Walt, 1978:40-44). Minucius Felix (died AD 250) did the same by stating that the Greek and Roman arts should not be rejected but made use of by Christians. Hieronymus (Saint Jerome) (347-420) also took an accommodating stance because of his background; he had been brought up in the Latin-Christian tradition and had enjoyed prolonged contact with Greek-speaking Christians (Van der Walt, 1978:40-44).

Tertullian (160-220) followed the oppositional route by stating that those who did not convert to Christianity had no right to even enter into a debate with the Christians, for they rejected the apostolic rule of faith (Frame, 2015:97). He regarded all "doctrina saecularis litteraturae" as folly in the eyes of God and hence rejectable (Van der Walt, 1978:40). Athanasius (290-373) too was less accommodating. He emphasised the fundamentals of Christian worship and salvation. On these points, he was uncompromising and emphatic (Frame, 2015:107). Lactantius (250-325) assumed an in-between position by rejecting Greek philosophy as such, but arguing that as knowledge acquisition was a universal human ability, it was admissible to study at a Greek institution of learning.

We need not belabour this argument much further. Suffice it to say that as 21st-century post-colonial and post-apartheid South African trainers and trainees (this applies to post-colonials elsewhere in the world as well), we have several options open to us. We trust that our own position as authors of this chapter has already emerged from our discussion of the lingering effects of the colonisation of the mind and in our suggestions on how to overcome the enduring effects thereof through the adoption of a new ethic, a new ontology, a new anthropology, a new epistemology and a new educational programme. Our stance is that an accommodating strategy needs to be followed going forward. We do not support the oppositional approach that every vestige of the colonial and the apartheid past should be removed, destroyed or dismantled. It has hopefully become clear from the discussion above that, as post-colonial teachers and trainers and as post-colonial students and trainees, we should exploit and make use of every favourable and useful element that colonialism and apartheid have brought to us, but that we should be critical of our colonial and apartheid heritage.

There are many useful elements from the pre-1994 past that we can retain. Life in the post-colonial and post-apartheid South Africa today is unthinkable without English as the language of teaching and learning, and of training and equipping our youth to become industrious and productive workers in the local and global economy. The same goes for the modern economy that we are working in, an economy that – despite its colonial and apartheid background and the way that

people and their labour had been exploited – counts as modern and progressive. This argument also applies to our sophisticated manufacturing, financial and commercial sectors – again despite their colonial and apartheid roots. (The collapse of some of the colonial and apartheid systems, such as transport – roads, trains, bus lines, the police, the electricity grid – and the rise of phenomena such as state capture and corruption, cannot be blamed on colonialism and apartheid but is the result of ineffective management. This is not to deny that colonialism and apartheid had many similar problems of their own, many of which have been overcome in the present dispensation.) In the end, as the Stoic philosopher Epictetus (as quoted in Holiday & Hanselman, 2016:9) advised, all trainers and trainees have to decide for themselves what is within their control and what is beyond their control. Each trainer and trainee has to make use of everything in the past and the present that will help the teaching-learning situation along on the road towards success.

Conclusion

Decolonisation of the mind remains an ongoing and open process of learning, relearning and unlearning in practical life and in the education and training context where learners strive to become liberated from colonial and apartheid entanglements in their life-worlds and training environments. The first step in working towards the decolonisation of the mind both of trainers and trainees is putting a transformed onto-epistemology to work for the purpose of optimally developing the latent talent pool in South Africa. The second step is not to be bent on the total dismantling or destruction of the Western heritage that has so far dominated the minds and lives of the previously colonised and attempting to replace it wholesale with indigenous worldviews and perspectives as alternatives to the modern, colonial, Western forms of being and knowing, but rather to work towards the dismantling of the monoculture of the mind associated with the colonialised mind. This entails assisting trainees to gain the understanding that there are many ways of being in the world, many ways of living and working, and that the Western ways of being, thinking and doing have value and need to be appreciated but also complemented with valuable indigenous ways of being, doing and working.

The extent to which the South African talent pool will and can be developed depends on the degree to which training programmes, trainers and trainees display a pluriversal approach. Programmes, trainers and trainees should embrace a variety of stories about progress and development. This will open doors to a wider range of job opportunities, and trainees will be more appropriately prepared for taking up those jobs. The decolonisation of the mind, as discussed in this chapter, will hopefully lead to a deeper understanding of the shared fate of all South Africans. Our principal task as educators and trainers of young people in South Africa is indeed to put a transformed onto-epistemological ethic to work.

CHAPTER 3:

TALENT WELLNESS AND -RESILIENCE MANAGEMENT IN A VUCA ENVIRONMENT: HUMAN RESOURCE PROFESSIONALS' PERSPECTIVE

Jennifer C. Nzonzo
NWU Business School, North-West University, South Africa

Yvonne du Plessis
NWU Business School, North-West University, South Africa

Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to provide insights into the challenges faced by human resources professionals when developing talent resilience and wellness interventions in a volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) environment. The exogenous (external) and endogenous (internal) implications of the VUCA environment affect the resilience levels of employees, since they have to cope with unprecedented changes. It is against this backdrop that this study adopted a qualitative research approach focusing on human resource management (HRM) professionals' experiences and perspectives of the management of talent wellness and -resilience in a VUCA environment.

A sample of 10 HRM professionals was purposively selected from a population of 1 110 HR professionals registered with a South African human resources professional body for semi-structured, face-to-face interviews. The interview transcripts were thematically analysed. The key findings from the research revealed that the VUCA world has implications on both an exogenous level, e.g., a highly competitive environment, and an endogenous level i.e., lowered wellness levels. Effective wellness management interventions therefore are required to enhance talent resilience through talent wellness on various dimensions. The findings of this study contribute to practical knowledge on how HRM practices can improve talent resilience and, ultimately, organisational performance, in today's dynamic work environment.

Keywords

human resource management; talent resilience; wellness management; VUCA (volatile, uncertain, complex, ambiguous

Introduction

The dynamic global environment, known as a volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) context, creates numerous challenges for organisations in meeting their business objectives and remaining sustainable. These challenging dynamics take the form of digital disruptions, automation, and high employee turnover, and, as recently experienced, a pandemic that brought about numerous structural and social challenges (Borg, Borg, Scott-Young & Naderpajouh, 2020; Gandhi, 2021). While such environments can yield opportunities for organisations and their employees, they are also disruptive, and can leave organisations and their employees vulnerable (Alhaider, 2022; Du & Chen, 2018).

The context challenges with which SVUCA are faced have resulted in managers and stakeholders having to refocus on interventions that enhance talent- and organisational resilience – especially during the Covid-19 crisis (Hancock & Schaninger, 2020; Ngoc Su, Luc Tra, Thi, Nguyen & O'Mahony, 2021). Such crises have highlighted the need for a paradigm shift towards developing talent resilience, as conventional organisational practices have become less effective or even obsolete, and organisations are now faced with having to develop new ways of managing processes and developing and retaining the required talent, and also ensuring the resilience of such talent (Karumuri & Kore, 2021; Khan, 2021; Lee, Yahiaoui, Lee & Cooke, 2022).

To effectively manage the ramifications of a VUCA environment, talent management needs to be driven by business leaders, including human resource management (HRM) professionals, and in alignment with the business strategy. HRM professionals need to provide both strategic and practical support to all levels of the organisation (Hirsh & Tyler, 2017; Villajos, Tordera & Peiró, 2019; Winn & Dykes, 2019), as organisations need engaged and resilient employees who are able to deal with challenges in innovative and creative ways. It therefore stands to

reason that HR managers and stakeholders at all levels in organisations need to co-operate in devising strategies for managing the internal and external implications of today's dynamic business- and work environment (Daubner-Siva, Ybema, Vinkenburg & Beech, 2018; Paul & Jena, 2022). Hence an analysis of the VUCA environment is imperative in informing leaders regarding the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats in their environment, based on which they will then be able to take decisive steps in addressing the negative ramifications (Baran & Woznyj, 2020).Talent management has been well researched in competitive environments, with a focus on attraction, recruitment, selection, development, and retention. However, in a VUCA context, new challenges and impediments arise often, affecting the efficacy of existing talent management practices, especially those related to wellness; challenges which negatively impact individual performance and, ultimately, the performance of the organisation. Talent wellness and -resilience as key aspects of employee- and organisational performance in a VUCA context are under-researched (Caligiuri, De Cieri, Minbaeva, Verbeke & Zimmermann, 2020), despite a need to shift the focus from the traditional and conventional talent management practices towards incorporating and integrating effective interventions that address the physical, psychological, emotional, and social wellness of employees.

In the VUCA environment, talented employees are often pushed to continuously improve their performance. They are assumed to be resilient because they are talented. However, organisations need to consider how long talented employees can perform effectively under such expectations before vulnerability sets in and their wellness is affected. This paper explores talent wellness and -resilience management in a VUCA environment from the perspective of HRM professionals working in South African organisations. The following research questions guided the study:

- How important is the management of wellness interventions to aid talent resilience in a VUCA environment?
- What are the challenges encountered in the implementation of integrated talent wellness and -resilience interventions in a VUCA environment?

- What interventions should be implemented by HR professionals to improve the adoption of integrated talent wellness and -resilience interventions in a VUCA environment?

The subsequent section discusses the VUCA world and the concepts of talent wellness and talent resilience. Thereafter, we discuss the methodology that was adopted for the research, followed by the findings, supported by verbatim quotes from the interview transcripts and recent literature. This is followed by a discussion of the contributions of the study and recommendations for practice. The final section highlights the limitations of the study and avenues for future research.

Literature review

The VUCA world

Du and Chen (2018) define the elements of the VUCA world as follows:

- **V**olatility is an unstable situation that may be of unpredictable duration.
- **U**ncertainty is the lack of predictability of events and their consequences.
- **C**omplexity is the chaos associated with a situation that lacks simplicity and is difficult to comprehend.
- **A**mbiguity is evident when issues are subject to multiple interpretations.

The VUCA elements affect businesses worldwide, and the leaders of today need to remain adaptive in considering the implications of a VUCA world in their strategy planning and implementation (Dhillon & Nguyen, 2021; Nangia & Mohsin, 2019). The previously identified boundaries of the marketplaces are shifting continuously — sometimes slowly, sometimes quickly, and ultimately affect employees in the execution of their duties (Dhillon & Nguyen, 2021). HR professionals and stakeholders in organisations must therefore take cognisance that a sustainable future is possible only if organisations are flexible and align themselves with and adapt to internal and external change dynamics. The complexity of the VUCA world means it is challenging to foresee what aspects of the organisation will be influenced by which factors; therefore a strategic mindset is crucially important in addressing what is known and what is unknown (Mayer & Wilke, 2022).

The past two decades have seen paradigm shifts with regard to the strategic and functional roles of HRM. These shifts have led to HR professionals and organisational stakeholders placing an emphasis on employees as assets who play a pivotal role in organisational performance and sustainability (Hartmann & Lussier, 2020; Ngoc Su *et al.*, 2021). From the above, it is clear that HR professionals should pay closer attention to interventions that foster employee wellness and wellbeing in order to improve organisational performance, productivity, and profitability in the long run (Villajos *et al.*, 2019).

Park *et al.* (2021) maintain that the factors that influence the resilience levels of employees are classified into internal, social capital, and societal factors. Internal factors are innate to an individual (e.g., emotional intelligence), the person's outlook (e.g., locus of control), competencies, skills, and the ability to reflect. Resilience therefore has to be considered from an integrated viewpoint.

Employees' resilience is evident in how they respond and adapt to external (exogenous) and internal (endogenous) challenges that affect the execution of their work. Talent resilience is a dynamic quality that is linked to wellness, and is affected by the environment and situations or events. Hence an individual may exhibit certain resilience tendencies in certain environments based on the environmental dynamics at play.

Exogenous and Endogenous Factors

Organisations need to be aware of both the exogenous and endogenous factors that affect the organisation and the wellness of individual employees. These include social factors (Chad *et al.*, 2021), the workplace, and employees' family environment. Mendy (2020) posits that HRM professionals should now constantly monitor and evaluate the internal and external implications of today's changing environment. For example, Peker and Cengiz (2022) found that the fear of contracting COVID-19 negatively predicted happiness and positively predicted perceived stress, and that resilience moderated the relationship between fear of the virus and loss of happiness. The lockdowns of the Covid-19 pandemic caused employees further distress due to job insecurity, financial insecurity, having to

transition from working at the office to working from home, and worrying about their personal health and the health of their loved ones (Tomčiková, Svetozarovova & Coculova, 2021).

Winn and Dykes (2019) note that a hostile workplace results in pervasive negative consequences that create a stressful environment, which adversely affects employees' professional and personal life. Hosseini and Jafari Bazyar (2019) found that fulfilling the psychological contract has a positive effect on the attitude and willingness of employees to share knowledge, which, in turn, improves employees' ability to cope as well as their resilience.

Hence environments that foster positive relationships are crucial for improving employee resilience (Claus, 2019; De Simone, 2014; Hill, MacNamara, Collins & Rodgers, 2016). Furthermore, engaged employees have much smoother relationships with their superiors compared to disengaged employees (Kaliannan & Adjovu, 2015). In strategically addressing these circumstances, it is essential to first identify the internal and external implications of the VUCA world, and then determine the wellness management interventions that will enhance talent resilience; without wellness, there can be no resilience (Claus, 2019).

Talent and talent wellness

With regard to the definition of talent, Tansley (2011:271) notes the following:

> [T]alent is defined from a number of different standpoints, which are behavioural aspects (such as having a "can-do" attitude); knowledge; skills (having enough creative flair to create new realities and experiences and thus new knowledge); and competencies and cognitive capability (having diversity of thought or flexibility in producing a particular state of mind which matches organisational requirements, irrelevant of job role).

Such talent is an organisation's most valuable asset; it therefore has to be optimised and sustained, which requires talent wellness. While some authors consider wellness and wellbeing to be the same thing and use the terms interchangeably, others posit that wellness is a person's physical state, while wellbeing is a person's state of mind (DeSimone, 2014; Vercio, Loo, Green, Kim & Beck Dallaghan, 2021).

In the context of the present research, we use the terms interchangeably, and position talent wellness in a number of domains as underpinning talent resilience.

Villajos *et al*. (2019) posit that the eudaimonic conceptualisation of wellbeing is related to positive psychology, and focuses on how individuals accomplish their personal goals and find meaning in their lives. The authors add that eudaimonic wellbeing facilitates the development of creativity, innovativeness, willpower, and tenacity in an individual. Another perspective is hedonism, which holds that only pleasure is intrinsically valuable, which forms the basis for judging the quality of our lives (De Klerk, 2005).

The key determinants of wellbeing, according to a recent survey in a comprehensive Gallup (2021) study of more than 150 countries and similar research by Phan, Mills and Fleming (2021), are five interconnected elements that shape our lives: (1) career wellbeing: individuals enjoy the work they perform every day; (2) social wellbeing: healthy relationships; (3) financial wellbeing; (4) physical wellbeing: energy to accomplish tasks; and (5) community wellbeing: a combination of social, economic, environmental, cultural, and political circumstances that individuals perceived as enabling them to reach their full potential.

Claus (2019) holds that achieving optimum wellbeing also requires a balance between work and other spheres of life, such as family, and that wellbeing is evident in interpersonal competencies, adaptability and proactiveness. We can therefore conclude that wellbeing is a multidimensional concept that encompasses idiosyncratic societal, physical, mental, and health-related aspects (Paul & Jena, 2022).

Talent resilience

Resilience is crucial for any system to withstand and deal with major challenges and disruptions within an acceptable time, taking into account the risks and costs (Haimes, 2009). It is the ability to remain functioning while adapting in response to stress and to "bounce back" from adversity (Park, Luberto, Chad-Friedman, Traeger, Hall, Perez, Goshe, Vranceanu, Baim, Denninger, Fricchione, Benson, & Lechner,

2021). Park *et al*. (2021) note that certain factors enhance resilience in both mind and body, and that individuals can be taught resilience through interventions that address and enhance adaptive behaviours, problem-solving skills, optimism, emotional coping strategies, and social skills.

Jeffrey and Linda (2006, in Nteogwuija & Wechie, 2019) define employee resilience as the capacity of employees to cope, adapt, and even thrive in response to dynamic and challenging environments. Jeffrey and Linda (2012, in Nteogwuija & Wechie, 2019:103), identified eight measures of employee resilience, namely "self-assurance, personal vision, flexibility, and adaptability, organized, problem solver, interpersonal competence, socially connected and proactiveness".

During disruptions, as we saw with the COVID-19 pandemic, improving organisational and employees' resilience is imperative. Such resilience enables organisations to better respond to and recover from crises through strategies for effectively managing a dynamic environment (Akbari & Khormaiee, 2015; Hirsh & Tyler, 2017; Sharma, Rangarajan & Paesbrugghe, 2020).

However, for employees to thrive, their organisations have to support them. In the context of our research, we define talent resilience as the capacity and capability of employees to first, reflect on the external and internal influences affecting their capability to effectively perform at work, and second, devise strategies to cope and thrive in the midst of these influences.

Organisational and talent resilience are crucial to organisational performance and sustainability, and it is therefore imperative that HR professionals and stakeholders maintain high employee morale and promote resilience (Daubner-Siva *et al*., 2018; Hill *et al*., 2016; Stokes, Liu, Smith, Leidner, Moore & Rowland, 2016; Winn & Dykes, 2019). Talent resilience can be developed and enhanced through training, self-training programmes, mentoring, and coaching (Jaja & Amah, 2014). Developing talent resilience thus entails gaining an understanding of individuals and appropriate responses to their needs and aspirations, including developing and deploying them in ways that benefit both the business and the individual (Alhaider, 2022).

Methodology

Research approach

The research followed a qualitative approach, as the aim was to gather rich descriptions and views from participants (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Eriksson & Kovalainen, 2008).

Population and sample

The population of the study comprised 1 110 HRM professionals registered with a HRM professional body in South Africa, from which 10 participants were purposively selected. The HR professional body was considered appropriate for this study due to the specialised nature of the research topic. The following inclusion criteria applied: (1) registration with at least one HR professional body; (2) a minimum of one year's work experience in the talent management and -wellness domain; and (3) an occupational role in a key sector, such as retail, education, construction, engineering, or health within South Africa.

Table 1 provides a profile of the participants' gender, educational qualifications, work experience category, seniority level, and industry sector.

Table 1: Participant Profile

Participant	Gender	Educational Qualification	Work Experience	Seniority Level	Industry sector
1	Female	Honours	1–3 years	Junior	Retail
2	Male	Master's	4–6 years	Middle	Education
3	Female	Master's	1–3 years	Junior	Construction
4	Female	Honours	4–6 years	Middle	Manufacturing
5	Male	Master's	7–9 years	Senior	Consulting
6	Male	Master's	10+ years	Senior	HRM consultant in various sectors (engineering, telecommunicati

					ons, banking, education)
7	Female	Master's	10+ years	Senior	Education
8	Female	Honours	10+ years	Senior	Retail
9	Female	Honours	10+ years	Senior	Engineering and consulting
10	Male	Master's	10+ years	Senior	Health care and retail

As shown in Table 1, the sample comprised six women and four men. In terms of educational qualifications, four participants held an honours degree and six held a master's degree. Participants' work experience in HRM varied from one to 10 or more years. The industry sectors in which the participants operated included retail, education, construction, engineering, and health, among others, and the majority were employed in senior positions.

Data gathering and Analysis

Semi-structured, face-to-face interviews were conducted, guided by an interview guide containing open-ended questions. The interview data were transcribed, and the transcripts were analysed using inductive thematic analysis, which involves coding the data, identifying patterns and resemblances, and developing and refining themes (Wilson, 1998).

Strategies to ensure quality research

Trustworthiness in qualitative research is pivotal in ensuring confidence in the data, interpretation, and findings, and is achieved through strategies to ensure credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The study was conducted using an established and recognised methodology, and credibility was further enhanced through extended engagement with participants and triangulation of notes taken during the interviews with the transcripts, in a process of continuously examining and questioning the data in arriving at the findings. Transferability was enhanced by providing sufficient details on the study context, the focus of the study, and the methodology followed to allow readers to

judge whether the findings may be applicable to their context. Dependability was assured by detailing the manner in which the findings were derived, i.e. demonstrating consistency between the data and the findings, supported by verbatim quotes from the interview transcripts. Conformability was ensured by guarding against bias during the analysis, applying the code-recode procedure, and keeping an audit trail.

Ethical considerations

Permission was obtained from the professional HR body to contact members. Participation was voluntary, and consent to record the interviews was obtained prior to conducting the face-to-face interviews. Participants were assured of anonymity, and the data are kept in a secure location.

Findings and discussion

Six themes emerged from the data, depicted by Figure 1.
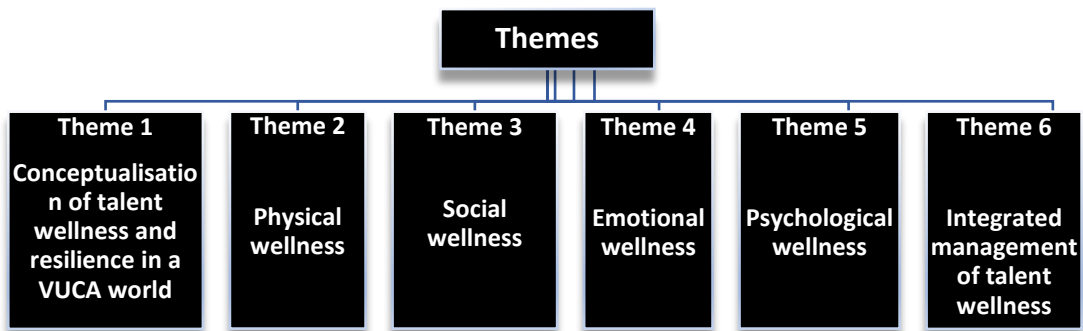
Figure 1: Key themes that emerged from the data

Source: Researchers' own

Theme 1: Conceptualisation of talent and wellness in a VUCA world

With regard to the conceptualisation of talent, the participants noted the following:

> *"If you have talent, you have a skill which can fulfil a particular objective. It is a holistic process that is multidimensional" (Participant 5).*

"Talent looks at the skills, abilities, and competencies of individuals we are bringing into the organisation" (Participant 6).

"Talent refers to high and talented superior performers in an organisation. It is a critical and a scarce skill, with a lot of emphasis on creativity, innovation, attitude, and the special ability. It can be born or innate, or it can be developed through training and development" (Participant 7).

Participants' views are aligned with that of Tansley (2011) who defines talent as comprising behavioural aspects, knowledge, skills and competencies, and cognitive ability that match the organisation's requirements, regardless of the occupational role. This implies that understanding and responding to employees' interests and aspirations and developing and deploying them in ways that benefit both the business and the individual aids the development of talent resilience. This theme also supports the findings of Haimes (2009) and Nteogwuija and Wechie (2019) that resilient employees are able to cope with a VUCA environment through adaptability, proactiveness, and interpersonal competencies. This theme is also aligned with the definition of talent resilience applied in the present study as the ability of employees to:

- do introspection regarding the external and internal influences affecting their ability to perform effectively at work; and
- devise strategies to cope and thrive despite external and internal influences.

Participants shared their conceptualisation of wellness, the determinants of which were mental, physical, emotional, social, and psychological wellbeing.

"Wellness is the ability of a person to take care of themselves socially, spiritually, and physically" (Participant 1).

"Wellness is when companies try to motivate their employees by making sure that their psychology is good and their environment is good and conducive" (Participant 4).

"Wellness is combination of physical, emotional, spiritual, social, and psychological wellbeing and the ability to communicate with other people, communicating with peers and family" (Participant 8).

The conceptualisations provided by the participants corroborate the view of researchers such as Gallup (2021) and Phan *et al*. (2021) that wellness can relate to many areas or domains in our lives, including financial, social, spiritual, physical, emotional, and occupational. Flourishing through enhanced interpersonal competencies, adaptability, and proactiveness is important in improving talent resilience.

From the data we can also infer the eudaimonic aspect of wellbeing, which is based on the individual choices employees make to achieve greater accomplishment and meaning (Villajos *et al*., 2019) and its relation to positive psychology, as well as the hedonism approach, i.e. individuals' judgement of the quality of their lives (De Klerk, 2005). In view of this, HR practices that foster eudemonic and hedonic wellbeing foster an environment in which employees flourish through improved wellness.

Theme 2: Physical wellness

With regard to physical wellness, participants mentioned the following:

> *"Physical wellness highly affects the employee performance at work" (Participant 1).*

> *"Physical wellbeing really does affect the performance of work…" (Participant 3).*

> *"Physical health contributes to your overall health. It reduces stress, blood pressure, and other lifestyle ailments that may hinder you to perform your duties. Hence it is very important" (Participant 5).*

> *"It does, to a great extent. If employees are not physically fit, they are bound to make mistakes and errors. Secondly, this may also affect the organisation overall, as they may take time off to attend to their health issues" (Participant 9).*

This theme confirms the finding of Day and Randell (2014) that interventions that focus on employees maintaining healthy lifestyle habits such as physical activities, nutrition, weight management, stress management, and cessation of the use of tobacco enhance physical wellbeing.

Theme 3: Social wellness

Most participants confirmed the importance of social relationships at work and at home in enhancing social resilience. Social capital is the social networks that are available to an individual for support, such as community associations and religious groups (Park *et al*., 2021). Furthermore, participants highlighted the deleterious effects of poor working relations between managers and employees.

> *"Employees can relate to each other, but not with management. Some managers do not want to effectively communicate with their employees"* (Participant 1).

> *"Among colleagues, there must be collegiality, which links with respect among colleagues"* (Participant 5).

> *"Social wellness is of paramount importance. A lot of employees leave jobs owing to bad managerial styles. Sometimes, the way we speak to each other leaves a lot to be desired. The employee is left without proper directions. So, work relationships between managers and employees are critical"* (Participant 6).

> *"Work relationships are very important… They contribute to improving the wellbeing of employees. We spend most of our time at work, and it is essential that we build effective relationships, so that we can meet organisational goals"* (Participant 9).

The points raised by participants with regard to the value of social capital are aligned with the view of Winn and Dykes (2019) who note that societal factors such as cultural background, community (including religious or educational), affect working relationships. Participants highlighted the importance of fostering an environment that promotes social resilience. A lack of social resilience will ultimately affect organisational performance through decreased productivity (Akbari & Khormaiee, 2015).

Theme 4: Emotional wellness

Most of the participants viewed emotional wellness as a crucial factor in enhancing talent resilience in a dynamic environment.

> *"Emotions are contagious… If others are having bad emotions, this often negatively impacts on organisational productivity"* (Participant 2).

"I think … it is important. You will not have to burden or push the employee to get the job done. If their emotional wellbeing is good, you do not have to beg them to get the job done" (Participant 8).

"If the emotional wellness of employees is not adequately addressed, we are likely to find that the achievement of organisational goals is hampered" (Participant 9).

This theme confirms the view of Nteogwuija and Wechie (2019) that resilience results from the ability to control one's personal emotions and perceptions of competence. From an emotional wellness management perspective, employees require individual and organisational support to cope with today's disruptive and stressful work environment. Ensuring organisational and employee resilience is crucial for any system to withstand major challenges and disruptions within an acceptable time frame (Haimes, 2009).

Theme 5: Psychological wellness

Participants highlighted the importance of managing employees' psychological wellness in order to achieve organisational goals.

"Psychological wellbeing is something that deals with inner intelligence of an individual. The ability of management to provide a flourishing environment for psychological wellbeing to thrive helps the organisation in meeting organisational goals" (Participant 1).

"The organisation must have an understanding of what an employee's personal goals are in order to match them with theirs" (Participant 2).

"That is very important. A lot of people are frustrated because they are in jobs for the money and they find no meaning and purpose in their jobs. Purpose drives productivity at the end of the day. It is an internal inertia for them to produce results; hence, psychological wellbeing is important" (Participant 6).

This theme aligns with the findings by Peker and Cengiz (2022) on the importance of psychological resilience in order to cope with stress and frustration. In this regard, Claus (2019) notes that a work–life balance is crucial in achieving optimum psychological wellbeing. Claus (2019) adds that fostering a sense of personal control over schedules and responsibilities improves the psychological wellness of

employees. Psychological wellbeing is further enhanced by employees finding meaning in their jobs (Claus, 2019).

Theme 6: Integrated talent resilient and wellness management practices for a VUCA world

Overall, the findings of the present study confirm literature that indicate that both exogenous and endogenous factors related to the VUCA world play a role in all domains of talent wellness and, therefore talent resilience (Baran & Woznyj, 2020; Daubner-Siva *et al*., 2018; Mayer & Wilke, 2022; Paul & Jena, 2022). This is a pivotal consideration in identifying the wellness management interventions that will foster talent resilience in employees in the VUCA world. One participant noted the following:

> *"The world is changing so fast, and most organisations need to keep in pace with the Fourth Industrial Revolution and changes in the political and economic landscape" (Participant 3).*

Participants noted that enhancing talent resilience in the VUCA world requires an integrated approach to wellness – one that considers the individual aspects of wellness.

> *"We have a customer feedback platform in our organisation. If our customers give us feedback that an employee was rude, disengaged, then we propose the right intervention strategy for the employee" (Participant 10).*

> *"Organisations should develop and implement, strong, robust, unique strategies to ensure the retention of highly talented and competitive employees in order to survive in today's global environment."*

This theme confirms the view of Akbari and Khormaiee (2015) and Borg *et al*. (2020) that fostering resilience through management interventions is important in a dynamic environment.

Participants further noted that talent wellness and -resilience management intervention should integrate the various stakeholders in the organisation at all

functional levels, and that it is the responsibility of management and organisations' HR professionals.

> *"All the stakeholders in the organisation should play a significant role, with HR leading the process. At a senior level, there must be sponsorship of employees' wellness programmes. Management also needs to provide the budget for wellness programmes" (Participant 10).*

Participants further corroborated the view of Villajos *et al*. (2019) that an integrated approach to talent resilience is important by noting that the design of interventions should take into account cultural and generational differences.

> *"The integration of wellness and talent initiatives should be a top priority for top management, with line managers also driving the process" (Participant 9).*

> *"There are differences in cultures across generations. For instance, younger generations need to be managed differently from the older generations."*

Overall, the findings confirm that conventional organisational practices are likely to become less effective or even obsolete, and that new ways of managing talent need to be devised, as suggested in recent literature (Karumuri & Kore, 2021; Khan, 2021; Lee *et al*., 2022). Furthermore, to effectively manage the ramifications of a VUCA world, HR professionals should provide strategic and practical support to all levels of the organisation (Hirsh & Tyler, 2017) and design holistic and integrated wellness and resilience interventions that take into consideration different cultures and generations. Such interventions and EAPs should be designed to enhance the mental, psychological, social, emotional, and physical resilience of employees. This approach will foster interpersonal competencies, adaptability, and a proactive mindset, which will result in enhanced talent resilience (Akbari & Khormaiee, 2015; Borg *et al*., 2020; Day & Randell, 2014; Jin & Tang, 2021; Vötter, 2009).

Winn and Dykes (2019) posit that designing strategic interventions in the current landscape requires a new breed of global HR practitioner, one who can integrate various practices in ensuring that employees are resilient in multiple domains to be able to sustain high performance in the VUCA world.

Based on the findings, we propose the following integrated framework for the management of talent wellness and resilience in a VUCA world.
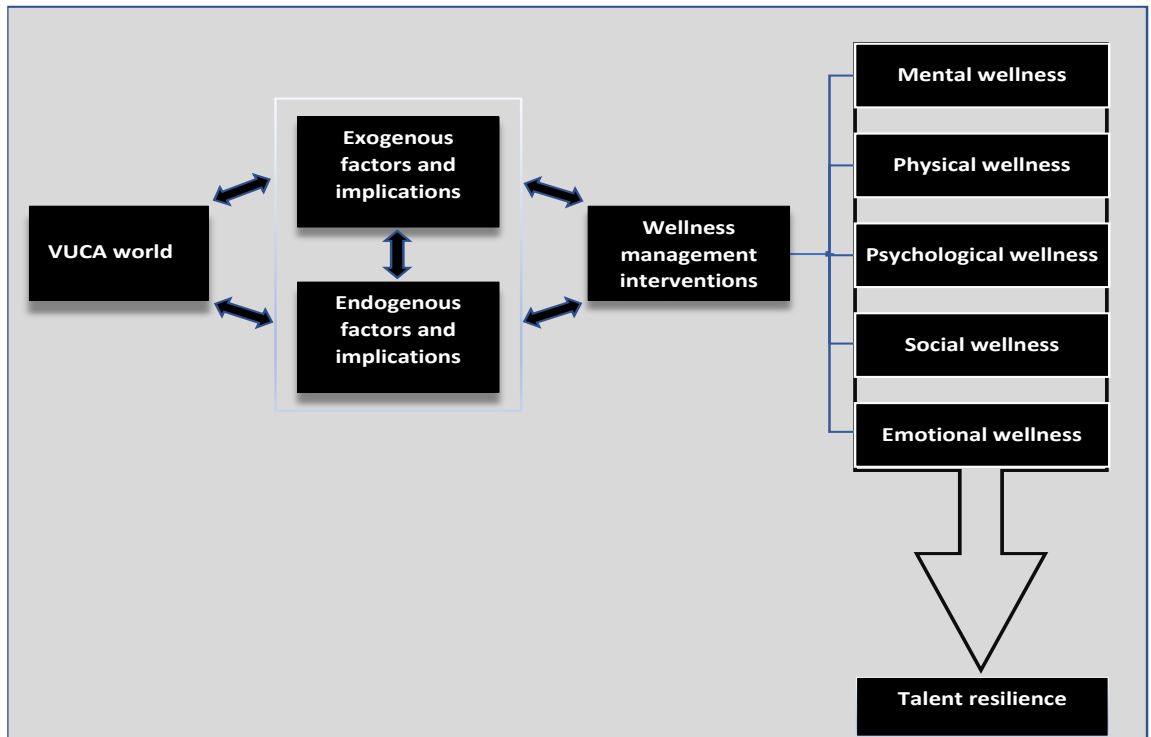
Figure 2: Integrated Framework for the Management of Talent Wellness and Talent Resilience in a VUCA World

Source: Researchers' own

This integrated framework takes into consideration that the VUCA world's impacts on an organisation are both exogenous and endogenous. The impacts can occur in isolation or concurrently, and may be related and interactive. Exogenous factors emanate from the external environment, and include economic conditions, business risks, pandemics, industry dynamics (such as competition), and legislation, among other factors. The endogenous factors emanate from the internal environment peculiar to the organisation, such as the engagement levels of employees, the organisational culture, staff morale, levels of organisational citizenship behaviours, and commitment, among other factors. This is why an integrated talent-wellness analysis is required; one that considers the exogenous

and endogenous factors and their implications, now and in the future, to determine the appropriate wellness management interventions that the organisation needs to adopt in order to address all the talent wellness domains, namely:

- **Mental wellness** — the ability or life skills of an individual to adapt to hardships, stress, emotional difficulties, and mental health adversity;
- **Physical wellness** — the ability to recover and optimise function in response to the stressors and adversity;
- **Psychological resilience** — the ability to cope mentally or emotionally with a crisis and also find meaning in one's job;
- **Social wellness** — the ability or capacity of individuals and social units to cope with and flourish within a social system); and
- **Emotional wellness** — the ability of an employee to adapt to stressful situations or crises.

Based on the above integrated analysis of talent resilience and wellness management in a VUCA world, it is important for HR practitioners and other relevant stakeholders to explore innovative and relevant ways of developing talent resilience. Winn and Dykes (2019) posit that designing new strategic interventions in the current landscape requires a new breed of global HR practitioners who can integrate and apply management practices that are currently only partially utilised in the HR profession. These tools and practices include design thinking, agile management, and data analytics (Claus, 2019).

Contribution of the study and recommendations for practice

Contribution of the study

This study yielded important insights into the management of talent wellness and talent resilience in a VUCA world, which informed the integrated framework presented in Figure 2. The proposed framework depicts the interlinkages between the VUCA world and how the effects could be buffered through talent wellness management so as to achieve talent resilience.

The framework illustrates that both exogenous and endogenous factors related to the VUCA world impact and hold implications the talent wellness of organisations — at both the organisational and individual level — which needs to be taken into consideration when adopting interventions that will ensure talent wellness in the mental, physical, social, psychological, and social domains, to achieve talent resilience.

On the individual level, the impact is evident in employees' perceptions of their wellbeing due to having to deal with frequent challenges and new experiences and ways of working. At the organisational level, the impact of the VUCA world requires strategic planning to deal with the challenges and ensure talent resilience. Managers therefore need to ensure static resilience, through effective deployment of resources, and, when necessary, dynamic resilience, through reassessment of resources and acquisition of the necessary resources (Hosseini & Jafari Bazyar, 2019; Lee *et al.*, 2022; Mendy, 2020).

Fostering talent resilience is crucially important in ensuring organisational sustainability in a VUCA world. The VUCA world's exogenous and endogenous factors and the implications thereof impact organisations differently, and it is crucial for management and HR practitioners to holistically understand these and the organisational culture, to determine the most effective wellness interventions. The study confirmed that, in an ever-changing context of competitiveness and clientelism, talent resilience is important in motivating employees to effectively perform at work (Nangia & Mohsin, 2019).

Managerial implications

Based on the findings of this study, we recommend that, to adapt and thrive in a VUCA environment, first, HR practitioners and other relevant stakeholders place renewed focus on enhancing talent resilience through wellness interventions. HRM professionals and other relevant stakeholders then need to set new guidelines and adjust policies to align with the changing needs of the world of work (Ghandi, 2021).

In determining which wellness interventions to prioritise, managers and HR professionals should consider the prevailing organisational culture. One way of dealing with a VUCA environment is by building agility, which is the capability of individuals, teams, and the organisation as a whole to sense and respond rapidly to change (Baran & Woznyj, 2020; Bundtzen & Hinrichs, 2021; Winn & Dykes, 2019). HR professionals should design bespoke wellness interventions that address talent wellness in alignment with the organisational strategy, which efforts could be greatly enhanced through the frequent use of analytics. (Claus, 2019; Hartmann & Lussier, 2020; Sharma *et al.*, 2020).

Regular evaluation is crucial in identifying areas where talent resilience is lacking and how it could be improved (Dewar, Hirt & Keller, 2019; Malinga, Stander & Nell, 2019). This includes using social network analyses to map interactions and gathering and analysing employee sentiments through organisational climate- and engagement surveys (Hancock & Schaninger, 2020). Finally, it is important for HR professionals and relevant stakeholders to build a culture that is based on continuous improvement, flexibility, and a growth mindset, signalling to employees that agile behaviours are the norm and are expected (Baran & Woznyj, 2020; Karumuri & Kore, 2021; Mayer & Wilke, 2022). Based on our findings and in line with the recommendations of Claus (2019), we propose that organisations foster a positive organisational culture that enhances talent resilience in the following areas:

- ***Acknowledging employee performance***: Verbally acknowledging employees' success plays a pivotal role in enhancing a positive organisational culture, which yields higher levels of employee engagement.
- ***Assisting employees in working toward goals***: This includes clarifying goals and providing clear directions on how performance is measured.
- ***Promoting health and wellness***: Organisations should invest in relevant and tailor-made EAPs.
- ***Developing employees***: The endogenous and exogenous factors and implications of the VUCA world require employees to develop new skill sets. Equipping talented employees with the relevant skills will help them

navigate the changing world of work and improve their performance; ultimately benefitting the organisation's performance and sustainability.

Conclusion

Each organisation responds differently to the VUCA environment (Bundtzen & Hinrichs, 2021; Marques & Berry, 2021); hence organisations — and HR professionals, in particular — need to be aware and abreast of both internal and external challenges and influences (Hancock & Schaninger, 2020; Kaliannan & Adjovu, 2015; Winn & Dykes, 2019). Organisations need to accurately determine the current state of talent wellness, and then employ targeted and relevant interventions in order to enhance talent wellness in all domains, with the ultimate aim of enhancing talent resilience, which will positively impact organisational performance and sustainability.

Limitations and areas for further research

This study has several limitations. The research approach was qualitative, and future studies could complement the findings with quantitative data so as to validate the framework. The context of the study was a less industrialised country, and future research should include more industrialised countries and participants on various organisational levels. Ongoing research should be conducted on the exact nature of the exogenous and endogenous implications of the VUCA world and wellness interventions that are effective in fostering specific dimensions of talent wellness in order to achieve talent resilience.

CHAPTER 4:

ADVANCING GENDER EQUALITY AND SUSTAINABILITY THROUGH THE EXPANDED PUBLIC WORKS PROGRAMMES

Aluncedo Zikhali
Department of Public Administration, Walter Sisulu University

Noluthando S. Matsiliza
Professor in Public Administration, Walter Sisulu University

Abstract

This chapter reflects on the strategies for advancing gender equality using the case of the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). The EPWP is a social safety net that provides job opportunities for unemployed individuals to be trained in the short term, particularly women and youth. Even though the EPWP programme was meant to emancipate women and youth and to try to address the issue of unemployment, a gender gap still exists in the implementation of poverty-alleviation programmes. Gender inequality has been an issue in post-apartheid South Africa and has led to dissatisfaction in most of the vulnerable groups. Using the case of the Winnie Madikizela Mandela (WMM) municipal area, this chapter demonstrates how the EPWP strategized and enhanced gender equality in the Winnie Madikizela municipality. This chapter thus reports on the literature review as well as the empirical study that addresses the hypothetical question as to whether the EPWP's strategies can address gender equality in South Africa. A purposive sample of sixty participants was drawn from the population of the WMM municipal area. To respond to the question, this chapter elaborated on the background of the EPWP, policies supporting gender equality in SA, the case of EPWP as a social net to address unemployment such as EPWP, and the way forward as well as conclusions.

Keywords

Gender mainstreaming, public policy, job creation, unemployment, diversity, Expanded Public Works Programme, inequality, poverty alleviation

Introduction

Around the world it is expected that women will be 27 per cent less likely than men to join the workforce (Kuhn, Milasi & Yoon, 2018). Women with lower participation rates have fewer job opportunities, which affects their ability to make money and makes them financially less secure (Niymbanira & Sabela, 2019). Levendale (2017) points out that differences between men and women cannot be explained by differences in education or age alone; instead, they are caused by the underestimation of women's work and abilities. In addition to losing their jobs, because they must take care of their families, women also have to deal with discrimination. In addition to this, Levendale (2017) asserts that women continue doing a large amount of unpaid housework in both developed and developing countries, which means they have less time to work paid jobs. Women are doing at least 2.5 times as much unpaid housework as do men, on average (Lovedale, 2017).

At the national level, the EPW has been lauded for generating jobs that amounted to R6.1 billion (approximately USD 460 million) (DoPW, 2019). The EPWP at Phase 1 (2004 09) was targeted to advance a cumulative total of 1 million job opportunities, which was indeed attained. As far as EPWP Phase 2 (2009-14) is concerned, 80% of the planned target was achieved by creating job opportunities for 4.5 million planned for 2014. The new EPWP Phase 3 (2014-19) was set to achieve a cumulative total of 6 million job opportunities by 2019 over five years.

This chapter reports on the literature reviewed and the analysis of the baseline data collected to analyse the strategies adopted to advance gender equality using the case of the EPWP in the Eastern Cape. Data were drawn from various primary and secondary sources such as interview transcripts, questionnaires, articles from accredited journals, commissioned reports, policy documents, and books. A literature review from numerous studies on EPWP was also scrutinised as meta-data. This also included government documents reporting on various EPWP sector reports aimed at determining the role, benefits, and obstacles faced by women during their emancipation on EPWP projects.

Background

Globally, South Africa is reported to experience a high rate of inequality in employment rates as far as job opportunities are concerned, based on race and gender (Quarterly Labour Force Survey, 2021). Throughout history, women have been pushed aside and seen as less important than men. Scholars alluded to the effects of people's cultural and social behaviours on employment owing to gender framing by their societies and argue that it seems as if these frameworks make existing differences between male and female counterparts to be worse (Research Policy Brief, 2013-2017). In South Africa, men and women' are equally protected by the Constitution (1996) when it comes to human rights issues. The difference in the application of these rights emanates from various views and interests of the agencies that implement their public programmes. Act 108 of the Constitution (1996) of the Republic of South Africa protects the sovereignty of the country and is committed to achieving equal rights for all South Africans. Chapter 2 of the Constitution (1996) of the Republic of South Africa (1996), Section 9 (2) of the Bill of Rights also protects human rights for all people. Since 1994, government agencies and businesses have had to hire at least half women for all senior and top management jobs. Women should be appointed and promoted to positions where they can make decisions instead of being stuck in roles where they must carry out decisions.

Literature Review

Policies and Legislation Supporting EPWP

The Constitution of South Africa (Act No. 108 of 1996)

The South Africa Constitution (1996), Chapter 10, Section 195(1) asserts respect for fundamental human rights and pledges not to support any form of discrimination. This pledge is also supported by the affirmation of principles guiding public administration to promote efficient, economic, and effective resource management. At the most, the needs of the people must be met (Section 195(1) b and e of the South African Constitution, 1996). All citizens' rights are protected and

they all have the right to access essential services such as basic education, social security, health care, housing, food, water, and others. Hence the EPWP has a basis in its affirmation to provide opportunities to all those who deserve them, without any form of gender discrimination.

Reconstruction and Development Programme

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP, 1994) was a comprehensive socio-economic strategy to revamp the public sector that has been eroded by apartheid policies that introduced racial and gender inequality in South Africa. The RDP policy was endorsed in 1994 by the ANC, which is a government party, aiming at rebuilding the sectors in SA by addressing imbalances of the past by advocating for mobilized resources for nation-building and democracy. The RDPs have a linkage to special programmes such as EPWP since they are focusing on reconstruction and development by addressing imbalances such as gender inequality. The EPWP did that by advocating for equal job opportunities for women and youth, without compromising their rights and by creating jobs through public works, i.e. dwellings are built, and services are provided in such a way that they create jobs.

The programme's five main goals were (RDP, 1994):

- meeting fundamental needs,
- building the economy,
- the democratisation of the government and society,
- human resource development, and
- putting the RDP into action.

The RDP did not last long, owing to shortages of resources. Hence certain departments such as public works and social development has to continue with the agenda to address the imbalances of the past and provide basic needs targeting the underprivileged (Matsiliza, 2019).

National Skills Development (Act No. 97 of 1998)

The post-apartheid era demanded a more skilled workforce as part of re-engineering the performance of the government of South Africa. Along with various policies such as the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), the Broad-Based Economic Empowerment (BBEE) and skill development came up as important areas of focus for improving the performance of public sector agencies. The National Skills Development

Act (1998) was endorsed to also promote communities and community-based organisations to participate in job creation at the local level. This act also supports the special condition of employment for all workers on EPWPs, it further protects them to benefit from the training and skill development offered by these programmes, focusing on the objectives and special conditions of the EPWPs. Mawila (2014) agrees that employment opportunities, which are integrated with skills training, can achieve the objectives of these EPW programmes while improving the performance of the workers and beneficiaries once they have completed the programme.

The Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA, 1997)

Like other policies, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act (BCEA, 1997) also supports the implementation of EPWP in South Africa. The trainees under the EPWP also have terms that are defined by the Ministerial Determination, while working on the special Public Works Programmes. They also follow the same code of good practice for specific Public Works Programmes' employment conditions as other public servants for the period they are employed. The main aspect of this legislation is that it establishes criteria for the protection of workers under the EPWP, the same as in other government departments since there are resource implications.

Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) Strategy

The growth, employment, and redistribution strategy (GEAR) (1997) was endorsed in South Africa to improve the macroeconomic dimension that can boost the economy to sustain development. The focus was to develop and broaden the participation of all men equally through employment and economic activities as

well as redistributing income opportunities to all vulnerable groups. Even though the GEAR strategy was not lauded by the trade industry, it identified a need to enhance job creation as a strategy to tackle unemployment; thus supporting the EPWP's supporting frameworks in the short to medium term (EPWP Report, 2019).

Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (ASGISA)

The ASGISA was also endorsed by the ruling party as a strategy for South Africa's government to announce a goal in 2004 to reduce poverty and unemployment by half by 2014 (Presidency, 2006). The ASGISA aimed to remove the poor from the poverty trap by achieving its goal through the EPWP (which was adopted in all nine provinces). Through National Development Planning, the government earmarked R370 billion to fund the ASGISA infrastructure projects focusing on enhancing the economic hubs in areas of development such as electricity, telecommunication, and transport. The other sector of the built environment will focus on improving service delivery through the EPWP, mostly in underdeveloped areas. Using the Municipal infrastructure grant, the EPWP, the ASGISA implemented its strategy to advance opportunities by employing women and youth in areas of service provision.

Gender mainstreaming in the South African Labour Force

South Africa (SA) with a diverse labour market is not stable owing to circumstantial socio-economic factors that impact its job market. South Africa is an international and regional labour outlier that is a window to opportunity for international and regional job seekers. It is very fragmented, with a high unemployment rate (26.7 per cent in the first quarter of 2018), and few people work in the non-agricultural informal economy (Kingdon & Knight, 2007; STATS SA, 2018). Even though the unemployment rate is high in SA, the number of men and women working has gone up remarkably since the middle of the 1990s. Beukes et al. (2017) assert that policies for creating jobs tend to focus more on the number of jobs created and less on the quality and capacity of skilled labour. Skills and talents therefore are not a priority and can be used in newly created work opportunities.

Most women work in the informal sector, where pay is low and there is less job security and no benefits. In politics, however, there have been huge changes in the

number of women in parliament (45 per cent), and South Africa is now one of the countries with the most women in parliament. Even so, there is still a need to balance all gender profiles in the recruitment of senior positions because women are still underrepresented in senior positions. Only 13 per cent of the boards of publicly traded companies are made up of women (OECD, 2012). The situation is exacerbated by the gender gap in salaries of positions between men and women in South Africa's formal labour market (Casale, 2004; Levendale, 2017).

The inclusion of women is always impacted by culture, habits, ways of thinking, social norms, and biases that always delay them in accessing job opportunities. Women have been framed as overseeing reproduction, domestic and housework that include nursing children and other people with special needs (Glaser, 2003; ILO, 2016). Women work less or don't work at all; hence they can take care of unpaid housework (Glaser, 2003; Levendale, 2017). Domestic responsibilities can benefit the family and kids while they are not favourable for women to climb the career ladders, study and improve their skills, and accumulate knowledge and wealth. Most women still work part-time or in the informal sector, doing jobs like caregiving, cleaning, catering, and working at cash registers, which pay less or require "payment in kind" (Chen et al., 2005; World Bank, 2005; ILO, 2016).

Since most women only get paid when they work, being a parent often puts part-time working women in and out of poverty. Women usually choose low-paying jobs with flexible hours (Gradín, 2020). Even though they know it will hurt them, it lets them take care of the home, children and their spouses and they regard it as their traditional job (Bellamy & Rake, 2005; ILO, 2016). Contract jobs are usually risky because they have low status, few rewards, and little protection. Labour differs from things like capital and land in that it cannot be saved for later use. If workers are not used, they are gone for good. Even though there are benefits to using women to their fullest potential at work, women are still not used to their fullest potential. When women are not used enough in the workplace, valuable resources are wasted, since women can make a huge difference in a society's productivity and economic outlook.

Reddy et al. (2015) call for equal treatment and fair job placement where women and men alike can compete equally without discrimination. The gender employment gap is the difference between the rates of employment of men and women, with the majority of one group not working (Mascherini, Bisello & Leston, 2016). Women are statistically more likely to be unemployed or underemployed than men, and most women tend to stay out of the job market (International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2018). The European Foundation (2016) also says that women usually have a hard time securing jobs.

Even though the economy cannot absorb certain skilled personnel, there is a remarkable increase in job creation (Festus et al., 2015). There has been a steady increase in the number of women employed, which is estimated at 39.1 per cent in 1995 to 43.9 per cent in 2013. (Festus et al., 2015). While we are celebrating an increase in the employment rates of females, there is a shift in the gender roles of females which also leaves a gap in family settings during the absence of women.

Underemployment is a multifaceted concept used broadly since there are many kinds of underemployment. The definition may depend on the setting, the industry, the period, and other things, for instance the person's level of skill and experience. Beukes et al. (2017) say that underemployment is a situation in which the employed population is overqualified or does not use all of its productive potential. The time-based or time-related method used in the study is a type of underemployment in which people's skills and experience are not used to their full potential because they must work for a set number of hours. This means that the workers are limited to using all their abilities to their full potential. Underemployment among women can show up in different ways, like when they are overqualified or underqualified and their skills are under-utilised. Women with the right skills and of gender bias and other social and cultural factors. In addition to this, underemployment can be caused by underqualified applicants, which means they don't have the appropriate skills for the job. This is one of the main reasons why women tend to take temporary or seasonal jobs. The other reason for people preferring to take even under-paying jobs is that they have been jobless for a while and have no income to support their households. In some circumstances, some people choose not to invest in women's

education because they think it is a waste of resources. Some women do not prioritise being educated , resulting in them being stuck in low-wage paid jobs and joblessness, which adds no value to the economy.

Employment Characteristics

The labour movement and employers can do more by complying with Goal 8 of Sustainable Development (SDGs) for 2030, which is committed to support inclusive growth and development that is supported through decent work for all. It is estimated that by 2030, the SDG target of 8.5 will be achieved by producing decent employment, without discriminating against people as a result of their gender orientation. It is envisaged in the SDGs for 2030 that men, women, and children will have decent jobs without gender disparities in South Africa (Niymbanira & Sabela, 2019).

Differences in Employment Based on Gender

Occupational segregation is the main reason men and women do not have the same number of quality jobs. In many industries and jobs, there are more women than there should be. Estimates show that women are still overrepresented in 'clerical, service, and sales jobs' and 'Elementary occupations' compared to their share of all jobs (ILO, 2016).

Black African women are the most vulnerable with an **unemployment rate** of **41,0%** in Q2:2021. This is 4,2 percentage points higher than the national average.

OFFICIAL unemployment rate by population group and sex
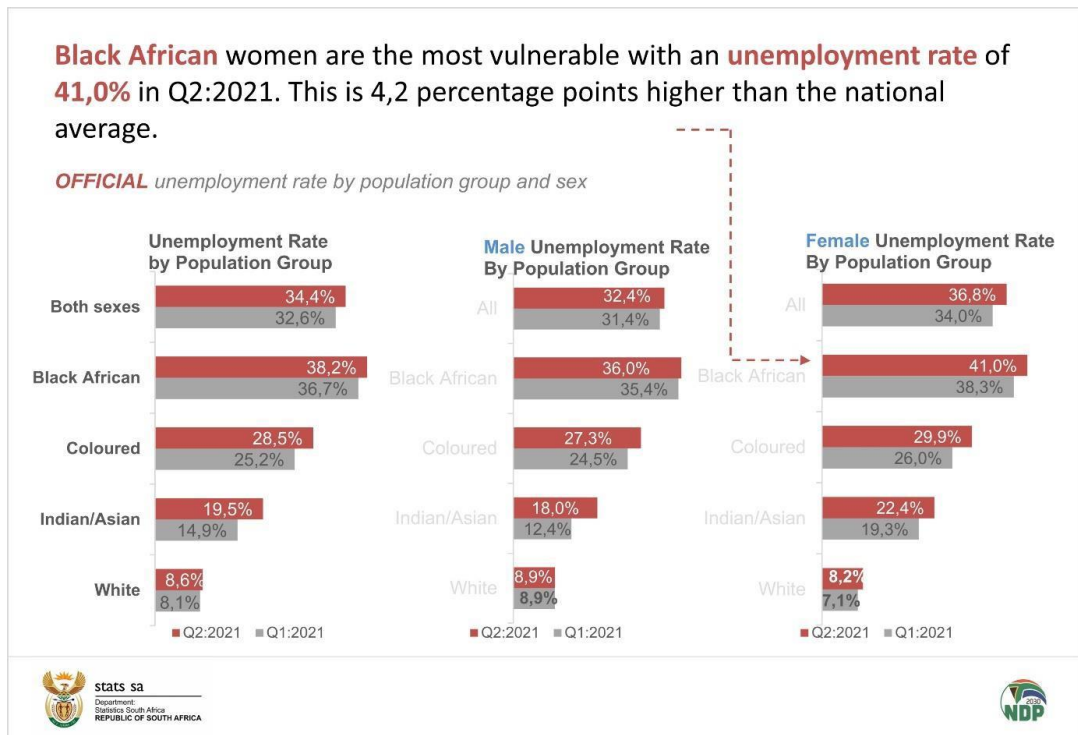
Figure 1 Unemployment rate by gender

Source: STATS SA (2020/2021)

Figure 1 above is extracted from the STATSA (2021) and it illustrates disparities in the rate of unemployment among men and women in South Africa. According to STATS SA, most domestic work is done by women, and women have always outnumbered men in this job field. In 2016, about 94,1 % of domestic employees were women. The most common job for Black women in South Africa is doing housework. Because of limited education and knowledge of their rights, domestic workers must deal with abuse and exploitation every day (Tolla, 2013). In line with the STATSA, the issues of gender nationally can be addressed by using diverse strategies such as job creation through programmes such as the EPWP facilitated by DoPW.

Employment Situation

Since unpaid care work is seen as a woman's duty, it is a large part of the lives of women all over the world (Ferrant, Pesando & Nowacka, 2014). One thing that makes it difficult for women to secure paid jobs is that their identities are tied to

the home. Self-employment (employer and independent contractor) is trying for women because they do not have enough money, do not possess enough business skills, and cannot join informal community networks that control opportunities (Levendale, 2017).

Women that do unpaid work are twice more unemployed than men doing the same unpaid work. Each person must decide how to divide their time between work and play, making things, having children, and paid and unpaid work. As more people want time off, fewer people are willing to work. So, every minute a woman spends doing unpaid work is a minute she cannot spend doing things that will help her get ahead in the market. Men and women do not share unpaid care work in the same way, which is not only a violation of women's rights but also a way to keep them from becoming financially independent (Ferrant et al., 2014).

The Conditions of Employment

Even so, the way different social security measures are planned and carried out may make it more difficult for women to use them. This is especially true for programs that work much like social insurance and is closely tied to official jobs. Even though there are no records that explain why men get full-time jobs easier than women, programmes such EPWP and others must be used as a gateway for addressing bias against women in securing formal jobs (Niymbanira and Sabela, 2019).

Advancing gender equality through the EPWP: A case study oOf Winnie Madikizela Mandela Local Municipality

Introduction

This section reports on the analysis of findings from the data collected to assess the advancement of gender equality during the implementation of the EPWP at ward 4 of Winnie Madikizela Mandela (WMM) Local Municipality in the Eastern Cape. A purposive sample of sixty participants was drawn from the population of WMM municipality to collect data that would respond to the aim of the study. Through

the department of public works and the local municipality, the initiatives for the EPWP to target women were supported by the government at national and provincial levels.

The South African government's policy targets preparing a young and vulnerable group of people such as women for decent work that can contribute to sustainable livelihoods, education, health, rural development, food security, and land reform (Heyl, 2015:1). Based on this study, the EPWP is regarded as a social safety net that provides paid job possibilities for large numbers of unemployed individuals and it pays attention to the gender dimensions of public works programs.

Because of long-standing institutional impediments and inherent biases in gender relations, assuming a 'gender-neutral' strategy in public works programs is a dream that can be achieved. To ensure that public works programmes give opportunities for both men and women, specific and deliberate actions are required. Even though the EPWP programme was meant to emancipate women and youth and try to address the issue of unemployment, there is still a gender gap in the implementation of poverty alleviation programmes.

Problem statement

The current increase in unemployment rates in the Eastern Cape Province emanates from the apartheid legacy problem of poverty. Even though the EPWP managed to emancipate women and youth, there are still gender disparities in the rate of unemployment in South Africa (STATS SA, 2020). The challenge of implementing public works special problems is the insufficient resources to address the gender gap in the implementation of poverty alleviation programmes. The ILO (2015:14) asserts that the EPWP targeted a short-term strategy for job creation, as a result, the playing field is not levelled in the success of gender emancipation (ILO,2015:14). Some of the drawbacks regarding the implementation of the programme emanate from the legacy policies of inequality and racial discrimination (Hochfeld, Stuart, & Sophie, 2017:1). These challenges as observed as barriers in the whole plight to address gender disparities in job creation (Hochfeld et al., 2017:1).

Research Methodology

This study provided baseline information to assess the advancement of gender equality using the case of the EPWP in the Eastern Cape. This study adopted a qualitative research methodology to collect and analyse qualitative data. The EPWP beneficiaries of ward 4 of Winnie Madikizela Mandela Local Municipality were interviewed and data were also collected from the hand-delivered questionnaires. Individual semi-structured interviews with the beneficiaries of EPWP projects were used to acquire qualitative data. A thematic approach was followed to collect data. A thematic approach was followed since it has been lauded for its nature of being able to describe and interpret data while also selecting codes and constructing themes in the process (Kiger & Varpio, 2020).

A purposive sample of sixty participants was drawn from the population of WMM municipality whereby the sum of 55% were males and 42% women. With regard to age, 50.0% of the respondents ranged between 18 and 29 years of age, 49.7% from age 30 to 39, and 8.3% from age 40 to 49. Based on these figures, the youth was in the majority while the mature participants were few.

Data analysis and interpretation

The Inclusion of Women in the EPWP

The participants were probed on whether the study was targeting women to be included in the EPWP. The majority of respondents (67%) revealed that EPWP does prioritise gender equality when recruiting, while 33% disagreed. While job adverts were posted on various platforms and government websites, not all were successful in finding the advertised positions. This study also revealed positive results that can be lauded from the implementation of the EPWP through job creation, restoring dignity to women, providing safety nets to families, boosting the infrastructure and economic activities in the area, and enhancing gender diversity at the workplace. However, challenges still that impact women's progress because they are allowed to work for six months only and be unemployed again after their placement at the EPWP.

This study notes that the WMM municipality should advance gender equality by making sure that the Department of Public Works trains its personnel to understand the dynamics around gender equality in being able to take part in the advancement of gender equality where there is equity and where women are represented. According to the Department of Public Works (DoPW, 2022) they prioritise empowering women to access economic opportunities through job creation. The DoPW alluded that by the period 2021-2022, the implementation bodies, with the government included such as the social partners, had implemented 4,674 projects across all nine Provinces; thus creating 472,646 work opportunities (DoPW, 2022).

The EPWP was allocated as a public works programme aiming at advancing not only youth but also the vulnerable groups in South Africa, such as women. However, the Department of Public Works responded to the call to address unemployment in South Africa by initiating its first phase of implementing the EPWP in 2004-2009. At programme level, through various departments, the EPWP creates job opportunities in diverse sectors such as infrastructure, non-state, environment, and social and culture by:

- increasing labour-intensive infrastructure projects;
- creating job opportunities through non-profit organisations and community work programmes;
- creating work opportunities in a public environment and cultural programmes; and
- creating work opportunities in public social programmes.

The EPWP targeted to offer jobs to a minimum of one million people in South Africa over a year (2004-2009).

Effects of the EPWP performance

When participants were probed to allude to the effects of the EPWP, they indicated positive gains they observed ranging from the direct impact on their personal lives and society. While the EPWP is split into 4 sectors, they focused on the social sector which targeted the wellness of women and rebuilding their strength, especially children and the elderly. The respondents lauded the EPWP as it was observed to

be making a significant change in their lives by offering positive effects stated as the following:

- These programmes are important because they provide work opportunities for the poor.
- The EPWP provides people with skills whether for them to find work or create their businesses.
- These programmes contribute to our household income, which later contributes to sustainable livelihoods.
- EPWP provides internships and training for graduates so they can find jobs.
- These programmes do not only provide job opportunities; they also help in developing our communities, for example infrastructure development.

The EPWP is also regarded as offering jobs in short-term, low-paid, labour-intensive employment opportunities. Some of the candidates for the short-term jobs were jobless after six months, after having acquired a few skills. The short-term jobs were extensions to the pre-existing departmental public works programmes jobs aimed at alleviating poverty (Ben-Zeev, 2016:1). The other important question that raised concern was whether these artisans were able to learn enough skills to be competent for work over six months.

According to the literature, the additional priority of EPWP is on areas of sustainable livelihoods, education, health, rural development, food security, and land reform. According to Heyl (2015:6), EPWP is a social safety net that has positive impacts on the poor, destitute and vulnerable groups such as women and youth. Its beginnings can be traced back to the Growth and Development Summit (GDS) in 2003. Even though the need for job opportunities is higher than that which the government programmes such as EPWP can offer, there are few households headed by women which are using their income from EPWP jobs as income assistance to support their families and address their social-economic needs (Kagisanyo & Cheng, 2018). According to Amusan and Ngoh (2016), single-headed households need assistance since they face challenges while fighting poverty and the societal stigma related to the role of women in society.

The other positive effect can be observed from the participants on their restoration of dignity while working in various infrastructure and administrative positions. Through these programmes, women can work in the same public workplaces that men work. Through the EPWP, the long discrimination tendencies can be addressed by creating balanced and fair job placements without any discrimination because of gender and sexual orientation (Department of Public Works, 2015). Ben-Zeev (2016) mentions that the EPWP was also implemented by state-owned enterprises (SOEs), which consisted of sectors aiming at producing good corporate governance practices, looking at targets set on vulnerable people. particularly the 60 per cent of women, 20 per cent of youth (between ages 10 and 24 years), and 2 per cent disabled people.

Importantly, Public Works Programmes (PWPs) were considered tools to assist in restoring the dignity of the poor and underprivileged and improving their lives. The country's weakening economy and societal stereotypes have laid the basis for women to be less employed than men in post-apartheid society. However, in post-apartheid society, women are expected to be active in the economy through labour and fight these disparities created by society. Thus the Expanded Public Works Programme was another government effort aiming at bridging the gap between unemployed low-skilled workers and the economy by incorporating them with a rising industry (Dladla, 2017).

The goal of the PWP, according to Biyase and Bromberger (2015B), was to alleviate poverty through labour and the building of public assets. utilising labour-intensive approaches. EPWP was created to incorporate and promote additional community-based public work programmes. It also focused on enhancing the intensity of labour in government agencies through infrastructure. The EPWP offers jobs to young women who were under the social relief grant, thereby decreasing the number of women depending on government handouts. When women are employed, they can enhance their skills and competencies and get cash stipends that assist them in addressing their needs (Hochfeld et al., 2017:1).

Social cohesion is another interesting account of the benefits of EPWP that surfaced in the study conducted by Ngoh (2016). It emerged when they assessed the role of women in EPWP at Madimola Village in Northwest Province. Ngoh (2016) maintains that women are provided with a new visible role through the EPWP to advance the social cohesion at Modimola Village through public forums and meetings. These women have been observed participating in capturing community needs and conflict resolution strategies by approaching parties involved and finding successful ways to resolve conflicts with village headsmen and community leaders. Gugerty and Kremer (2008) support the increased community social cohesions advancing through the EPWP as a sign of increased social cohesion that aims at alleviating conflicts and restoring peace in communities.

Challenges of implementing job creation programmes

Participants indicated that the EPWP placements were in the short term. 38 per cent were in the infrastructure sector occupying junior positions, 25 per cent were in the environment and culture sector and another 25 per cent were in the social sector, and 12 per cent were in the non-state sector. The main challenge of this programme was that few women were placed in a supervisory role, most of them occupied junior positions with fewer chances of acquiring management and supervisory skills. Nhlapo and Vyas-Doorgapersad (2016) point out that women are not being fully empowered in public departments in a significant way because of various reasons such as the shortage of resources and the lack of understanding of human rights equality and other interests.

When participants were asked to explain their challenges regarding gender priorities at work, one of the participants indicated some and said:

> *"Working for the programme has been a challenge because the stipends are always late, especially now during Covid-19.*

> *Ever since I started working for the programme, I never experienced any challenge". (Personal communication, 23rd November 2021).*

One of the respondents who is a recipient of the EPWP was not satisfied with the working conditions and said:

"The stipends are very low; they cannot even cover the basic needs.

This has been a great programme for me" (Personal communication, 23rd November 2021).

To further state the obstacles faced by women at work, participants uttered the following words:

"We as women are always discriminated from men because we are regarded as weak and cannot do the work that can be done by men.

Women are always not treated equally to men.

Women tend to be sexually harassed by men at work, which makes them uncomfortable to work" (Personal communication, 23rd November 2021).

Based on the above discussion, women face diverse challenges that are barriers to their success. According to Nyangiwe –Ndika (2015:7) frequently, women continue to work in environments where they face a variety of challenges. Male stereotyping at work as patriarchal, as well as societal attitudes, organizational culture, organizational policies, political influences, and many other barriers that affect women at work and force them to cluster in lower levels of employment, are among the challenges that women face and that continue to be a barrier to them (Personal communication, 23rd November 2021).

Some basic work procedures and methods of EPWP have also been proven to affect employee performance (Antonopoulos, 2009). Added to this, a limited number of programmes exist that recognise women as a separate group with different needs and interests. This includes finding and training women, as well as meeting their everyday needs. Considering this background, this paper looks at cases of gender mainstreaming in South Africa. In the EPWP at Winnie Madikizela Mandela, women were dissatisfied with their conditions at work. One of the participants also alluded to it by saying:

We as women are always discriminated against by men because we are regarded as weak and cannot do the work that can be done by men. Women are always not treated equally to men. Women tend to be sexually harassed by men at work,

> which makes them uncomfortable at work. (Personal communication, 23 November 2021).

According to Nyangiwe-Ndika (2015:7) women frequently continue to be exposed to unhealthy working environments that affect their feelings and discourage them from working properly. Male stereotypes are revealed by a few participants blaming their influence on programme implementation as patriarchal. These stereotypes at work should be eliminated concurrently with the eradication of societal attitudes, policies not favourable to women, organisational culture, and other barriers that affect women at work.

Statistics South Africa (Stats SA, 2019) identified a high percentage of 52 per cent of the majority of undeployed women residing in rural areas where there are limited opportunities for women receiving any special programmes aimed at addressing imbalances of the past such as EPWP. These women lack access to basic services and amenities owing to improperly developed infrastructure in rural areas.

The lesson learnt from this case is that the EPWP targeted vulnerable people who lack education and knowledge of public programmes. These participants were selected from communities with a clear understanding of their procedures and criteria for participation. They only know what they are told to do by the researcher. Beierl (2022) points out that there is a need to align the EPWP objectives, through the EPWP managers, and the researcher's expectations and research objectives, to identify gaps and prepare strategies to address them.

Policy Implication: Reframing Diversity and Inclusion

The implementation of the EPWP was outlined by the Department of Public Works as initially envisioned to accommodate 60 per cent of women in the short term, while another author questioned the efficacy of the EPWP's gender dimension to address the inclusion of a sector (road construction). The initiative was good as it prioritised women and youth. It is not clear whether or not this leads to the eradication of racialised gender inequality and iniquity as a sustainable livelihood for women in rural areas such as Winnie Madikizela Mandela Local Municipality's Ward 4. The policies informing poverty alleviation strategies must prioritise

sustainable programmes and must be revisited to address current issues. The fact that the programme was launched with such a huge responsibility to address gender inequality, therefore there is progress in reframing gender diversity in the Eastern Cape. The discussion further, must outline the historical development of EPWP, which depicts the struggle of stakeholders in framing gender diversity.

Conclusions and recommendations

The case study presented some insights into gender mainstreaming through policies and legislation that support EPWP. This chapter demonstrated strategies used by EPWP to address diversity through job creation. Using the case of how the Winnie Madikizela Mandela community responded to the issues of gender inequality, the EPWP programmes can be lauded for providing job opportunities to a few women. There are also emerging issues that are challenging the implementation of the programme, such as limited income without benefits. Since the EPWP is aligned with various policy directives, government needs to further infuse gender diversity in policies supporting the implementation of special programmes that managed to achieve the set targets in the medium and long term. As the way forward, this chapter suggests that women be encouraged to become involved from the beginning of planning for these programmes until the monitoring of the last phase, by advancing in more broad terms of participating in rural development.

This chapter recommends that the EPWP programmes can yield better results if the employment period of various participants can be extended to two years to allow participants to acquire more skills that can enhance their expertise and competencies. Women should also be encouraged to be placed in better-paying jobs within EPWP. To top it all off, education should be prioritised as a key factor to advance participation in these special projects. Women must be encouraged to study and have post-matric qualifications before they can participate in these EPWP programmes so that they can understand and be aware of issues dealt with in these programmes in a broader sense that is equally important as a man.

Lastly, the EPWP coordinators and managers must be encouraged to practise principles of good governance, by practising transparency, democracy, openness, inclusion and participation, accountability, and responsiveness. These principles can have a positive effect on the EPWP and can also lead to success. This section reviewed existing literature that seeks to investigate whether EPWP advances gender equality for Black women for sustainable livelihoods. From the information presented above, the authors aired different views on the concept of EPWP in South Africa.

CHAPTER 5:

TALENT MANAGEMENT IN THE INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS LANDSCAPE

Caroline Ntara

Monarch Business School, Switzerland

Abstract

Talent management is integral with the international business landscape. However, international business has been somewhat stymied in its approach to talent management owing to its concentration on firm-level paradigms. Firm-level paradigms, namely cross border, eclectic and extension have caused scholars and practitioners to assume that international business is only about the firm and its operations. This has propagated the assertion that the multinational enterprise is the singular unit of study in international business thought. As a result, skills and knowledge imparted to employees and learners concentrate on how to make the global enterprise succeed. This has had a ripple effect on and direct implications for the content and skill requirements from global business practitioners and learning institutions. The present business landscape and a new forward-looking paradigm have been largely ignored. The proposed emerging/evolving interaction paradigm which is all-encompassing considering the interaction of multiple stakeholders in the international business landscape has received the least attention from scholars. This chapter is structured as a literature review that shows the nexus between talent management and international business inquiry while considering real-world practical applications. The dynamic and fast-paced global business environment presents complex challenges which call for a shift in thinking. This research presents talent management gaps and recommends a holistic and broad view of the global business landscape for scholars and talent management practitioners.

Keywords

International business, Talent, Talent management, Firm-level paradigms, Emerging interaction paradigm, Global talent management

Introduction

Talent management (TM) is one of the practices with growing significance in the global business landscape (Pagan-Castaño, Ballester-Miquel & Sánchez-García et.al., 2022). This trend is unsurprising because global businesses realise that their competitive advantage in a cutthroat environment depends on their ability to attract, develop, and retain the right talent. Several authors agree that companies in today's global marketplace are keen on poaching the best talent from each other. One possible origin of this awareness is the study by McKinsey & Co. in 2001, which predicted a "war for talent" between companies owing to the rising demand for talent but immense paucity in its supply (Bonneton, Schworm and Festing et al., 2019; Ibrahim & Daniel, 2018; Mahapatra & Dash, 2022). Talent has been variably defined in the existing literature. Some perceive it as an inherent attribute possessed by few individuals with the capability of significantly and positively impacting current and future organisational performance in terms of goal attainment, profit-making, market value, operational excellence, and customer satisfaction, among other outcomes (Fernandes, Pedro & Lobo et al., 2022). Other researchers define talent as the sum of an individual's abilities such as intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgment, attitude, character, drive, aptitude, performance, learning and growth potential (El Dahshan et al., 2018; Shweta, 2020).

Talent management was originally introduced by David Watkins to refer to the new focus on human potential in Human Resources Management (HRM) (Al-zagheer, Ali & Shawabkeh et al., 2022; Borisova et al., 2017). TM denotes an organisation's proactive anticipation of its human capital demand and the creation of a plan to meet that need. It involves establishing systems and strategies for raising productivity by initiating and reinforcing processes for searching for, recognising, hiring, developing, deploying, and retaining competent people with the required aptitude and skills to achieve organisational goals and address present and future business needs (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2020). The responsibility for TM falls on multiple stakeholders including the board of directors, the chief executive officer,

other senior executives, the Human Resources (HR) department, talent professionals, line managers, and individual employees (Theys & Schultz, 2020).

In recognition of the globalised nature of today's world, TM has evolved into Global Talent Management (GTM), which deals with TM-related topics but additionally considers global mobility and draws insights from multiple fields, including international business (IB), HRM, and strategic management (Selivanovskikh, 2020). GTM covers all organisational activities, especially HR practices, geared towards attracting, selecting, developing, and retaining the best staff in the most strategic roles on a global scale (Bonneton et al., 2019). GTM is a proactive strategy for discovering, developing, and retaining high-value employees on an international level. TM practices evolve in response to the effects of external forces on the workplace –, one of which is globalisation. On the one hand, globalisation has diversified the demographic composition of the workforce, whose members have become increasingly mobile and diverse, making talent flow and its management problematic for international businesses (King & Vaiman, 2019; Selivanovskikh, 2020).

On the other hand, globalisation has widened the scope of possibilities for job-seekers so that they can identify and pursue job and business opportunities worldwide, which fuels their mobility all the more (Rout & Satpathy, 2020). GTM is more demanding than domestic TM because the skill sets required in international operations are complex (Dean & East, 2019). Globalisation calls for skills that prepare people for the global marketplace, meaning that they can drive business beyond national and regional boundaries. Among the most essential are hard/technical skills (for instance, multitasking, problem-solving, strategic and business management, project management, finance, marketing, language, research, conflict resolution and literacy in computers and information technology) and soft skills (for example, collaboration, communication, interpersonal relations/rapport-building/networking, adaptability, resilience, emotional intelligence, cross-cultural awareness/competence, and leadership) (Kyaw et al., 2017). Therefore, individuals possessing a combination of these technical,

methodological, and social competencies stand better chances of employability globally than those without them or those with only the hard skills.

Considering the argument above, it is clear that skills and knowledge are important for global businesses to thrive. In addition, this study argues that there is an urgent need for education curricula to be updated to meet the changing talent management landscape However, despite the importance of talent management in international business, research by (Kabwe & Okorie, 2019) states:

> *There are relatively limited dedicated studies on the value and effectiveness of TM as an identifiable international practice and its contribution to international business… if TM is effectively implemented (sic) can result in the development of unique competences, which can ease the burdens of cross-border business challenges (Kabwe & Okorie, 2019, p.1).*

In addition, studies such as those done by Anlesinya, Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2019), Dimanche and Lo (2022), El Dahshan, Ismail Keshk and Dorgham, (2018) and Shah, memon and Tumio (2021) agree that talent management gaps exist in international business. This has an impact on the practical application of TM in the global marketplace. This chapter is structured as a literature review that interrogates the nexus between international business and talent management. The evolution of international business as an area of inquiry and the challenges faced by IB practitioners shed light on the relevant skills that are needed in the global marketplace. The chapter also delves deeper into the perspectives of global business indicating that the challenges faced by talent managers currently are a result of concentration on firm-level paradigms and the all-encompassing emerging/evolving interaction paradigm being left underexplored. Hence this research presents new thinking by exploring international business thought and paradigms and links them to TM while highlighting gaps to enhance scholarly discourse and practical application.

Literature Review

The meaning of International Business

Table 1: Evolution of International Business Inquiry

Evolution of the Construct		
Period	**Stage of Evolution**	**Characteristics**
1880s	The Firm	Domestic / International reach through Export (Cyert & March, 1963; Johanson & Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975; Jones, 2017; Penrose, 1959).
1960s	The Multinational Enterprise (MNE)	Centralised Headquarters/ localised national or regional operations/ Foreign Direct Investment (Cox, 1997; Li & Guisinger, 1992; Wright & Ricks, 1970)
1970s	The Transnational Enterprise (TNE)	Centralised headquarters/ Assumptions of no borders (Skully, 1976; Stewart, 1972).
1990s	Globalisation	No borders, international workforce, global supply chains etc. (Maruca, 1994; Shenkar, 2004).
2000s	Bilateral and Multilateral trade	Trade between states, Trade blocs, Treaties, customs unions etc (Czinkota *et al*., 2002; Kameda, 2005).

International business has evolved over the years with scholars interrogating aspects relevant to its definition at different times in history (Table 1). An understanding of the evolution of international business as a construct can help in shedding light on why learning institutions and global business practitioners need to pay attention to the skills and knowledge imparted to their learners and workers.

The earliest definition (1880s-1950s) of international business revolved around the firm and its operations in the domestic and international markets. International business was defined as a study that looks at the firm and its operations across borders. In this case, firms were not moving across borders but their products were sold to other markets through export channels (Jones, 2017). The study of international business was thus limited to the firm and how its processes could become better to facilitate business in other markets. The firm was considered domestic as it operated within its own country. It applied strategies which were meant to remain within its marketplace and follow domestic market trends, while

exporting to overseas clients. One of the strategies was coming up with a sales subsidiary to facilitate sales to other markets. The need to meet customer requirements prompted companies to open their own service and sales offices abroad. Depending on the performance in the overseas market, firms could then decide to have an international division. This meant setting up the assembly or manufacturing their products abroad. This way firms were able to meet their goals and objectives. This definition of the firm was interrogated by many scholars such as Barney (1991), Cyert and March (1963), Johanson and Vahlne, (1977), Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul (1975) and Penrose (1959). During this period, TM practices were keen on training that could help in capturing the local and global market. This definition did not consider the complexities that come with exporting goods across borders in today's global landscape.

In the last half of the 1960s, scholars became aware that the principal engines of growth in many contemporary industries took the form of multinational enterprises (Jones, 2017). Multinational Enterprises (MNEs) were considered a source of capital where investors looked forward to high revenues. The term Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) became commonplace to mean that an MNE has foreign investments that generate capital. Scholars in international business thought changed their focus to this new definition of international business and started interrogating the MNE. FDI then evolved from the simple idea of generating capital to other critical topical areas such as competition, market entry strategies, culture, global management, internationalisation processes, risk in international business, types of MNEs, international production, international supply chains, knowledge and technology transfer, among other key topical areas (Jones, 2017; Kechagia & Metaxas, 2022). Thus the contemporary definition of multinationals as organisations that manage and own productive assets in countries other than their home country started to permeate the international business literature. Some of the key scholars who interrogated the MNE include Anderson and Gatignon (1986), Dunning (1998), Kogut and Singh (1988), Li and Guisinger (1992), Maruca (1994), O'Grady and Lane (1996), Rugman and Verbeke (2004) and Sullivan (1994). This definition of the MNE, like the definition of the firm, was keen on training employees in capturing the market and increasing sales and profitability.

With changes in the global landscape, the definition of international business changed to not only look at the firm and MNE but also to an all-encompassing definition that looks at other aspects affecting the firm or MNE. International coalitions and alliances were of interest to international business scholars and global business practitioners (Wright & Ricks, 1970). Traditionally, researchers looking at the firm or MNE looked at them as having clear boundaries. However, the foreseeable image of a solitary, typically monolithic entity spanning a diverse set of foreign locations became increasingly obsolete, prompting a novel definition of international business. The new definition thus considered international business to be a field of study that looks at the ever-changing boundaries of businesses, the penetrability of those boundaries, the process of negotiating and bargaining in alliances, the involvement of human processes ,and the protection of core competencies, among other issues brought about by globalisation (Wright & Ricks, 1970).

Globalisation facilitated the opening of borders and inter-country trade agreements around the world. As such, transnational organisations became significantly widespread. Scholars and global business practitioners looked at this new aspect as a form of state power. The majority of transnational organisations spread out from the Americas to other parts of the world before other nations started business operations abroad. A corporation in a host nation signified its home nation and its activities, whether good or bad, were all linked to its nation of origin (Nayyar, 1978; Premarathna, 2021; Stewart, 1972). The new broad definition came with more expectations and stress as managing in a global environment was not easy. Researchers such as Kircher (1964), Moxon and Fagafi-nejad (1977), Nayyar (1978), Skully (1976) and Stewart (1972) went further to interrogate this new phenomenon of going global and its significance to the international business landscape. As relates to TM, this definition considered the global operations of firms and the business environment in defining the skills necessary for employees. At this point, it was important to have individuals that possessed the skills and knowledge necessary to run an enterprise traversing different continents.

Globalisation led to a deeper understanding of the definition of international business. In this case, trade between countries became recognized as an aspect of international business. The concepts of bilateral and multilateral trade became significant. Bilateral trade refers to trade between two countries while multilateral trade is trade between three or more countries (Aldonas, 1997; Hayakawa & Kimura, 2015). Scholars started interrogating the aspect of national competitiveness, home and host country dynamics. International business became a field that considers other areas beyond the firm and their contributions (Toyne & Nigh, 1998). Since nations were already trading with one another in the form of multinational enterprise, transnational enterprise, imports and exports, regional blocs such as the European Union and others globally already existed. However, countries were facing challenges in the full execution of these agreements (Melo & Tsikata, 2014; Qobo, 2007). During this period, nations started taking trade agreements seriously and countries sharing borders started having conversations about regionalisation. The idea was not merely to trade with one another, but to strengthen contacts to have global bargaining influence, increase economic gains and raise the standards of living of their people (Chao et al., 2006; Mwasha, 2015). The definition of international business evolved to become the trade of services, goods, capital, knowledge and technology across national borders which involves cross-border transactions of services and goods between two or more states (Czinkota et al., 2002; Kameda, 2005).

However, despite the evolution of IB, the latest definition receives the least attention with scholars and business practitioners still considering only the firm, which reflects in the lens of global talent management. The need for more research and educational curricula that consider aspects beyond the firm is critical. With trade between countries, huge issues and challenges present themselves that require critical talents and skills to be developed. Some of these issues that require educators and employers to take a different approach include global pandemics, different payment systems, complicated global supply chains, climate change and global environmental issues, among others.

The Narrow Perspective of IB

Talent management is affected by the narrow perspective of IB. International business inquiry has been largely about the firm and its operations locally and abroad (Peng, 2004; Sullivan & Daniels, 2008). The narrow perspective focuses on firm-level paradigms whose intention is to interrogate the firm as the only unit of study (Figure 1). The extension, cross border and eclectic paradigms fall under firm-level paradigms and were largely developed to cater for the narrow focus (Toyne, 1997). International business scholars proposed the extension paradigm to investigate the activities of a firm as it tries to venture from a home market to a foreign market (Peng, 2004; Toyne & Nigh, 1998). A new line of thought proposed the cross-border paradigm to investigate the challenges that these firms face as they extend their operations to other regions (Toyne & Nigh, 1998). Lastly, the eclectic paradigm was proposed by John Dunning to assist firms in choosing between Ownership, Location and Internalisation advantages (Dunning, 1980). In their thinking, understanding the advantages that a firm is bound to access would then help in the decision-making process. Ownership allows firms to have access to key resources necessary for the achievement of their goals and objectives. Furthermore, they are able to minimise costs while maximising revenue. Location advantages allow easy accessibility to a firm making it possible to reach customers. Internalisation makes it possible for firms to make decisions that work best for their business as they move across borders.
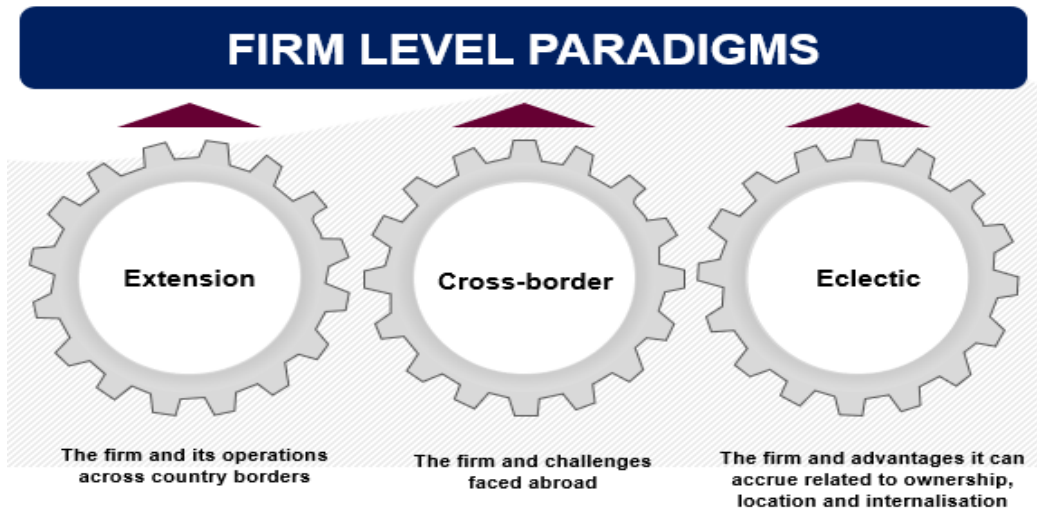
Figure 1: Firm-level paradigms (Source: Author, 2023)

Scholars who contributed to these paradigms such as (Davidson, 1980; Dunning, 1998; Johanson & Vahlne, 1977; Kogut & Zander, 1993; Penrose, 1959; Rugman & Verbeke, 2004; Sullivan, 1994) influenced the thinking around international business inquiry and its practical application in the marketplace. This narrow perspective of IB has been criticised by scholars as being too limiting causing international business to fail in the achievement of its objectives (Sullivan & Daniels, 2008; Toyne & Nigh, 1998). The focus on the firm has led to a ripple effect in the skills and knowledge imparted to individuals seeking to work in the global business environment (Dimanche & Lo, 2022; McDonnell et al., 2017). By looking entirely at the firm, international business seems to be an area that only looks at the profit-making of global organisations and how their employees participate in this process. The narrow focus leads to ignoring critical aspects in the global marketplace that affect the firm and its operations. However, it is possible to make strides in the right direction by considering the expanded view of international business.

Expanded View of International Business.

Scholarship in IB shows that the theory of the firm has dominated the discourse over the years (Buckley & Lessard, 2005). This has had a ripple effect on global talent management practices with more concentration on skills specific to the firm. However, there are still gaps in talent management when dealing with the skills and

knowledge requirements of global firms. A new line of thought insists that there is a need for a more expansive view of IB (Buckley, Doh & Benischke., 2017). Rigour in IB research is needed so that scholars can contribute to the challenging global business environment (Cerar et al., 2021; Lorraine Eden et al., 2020; Nielsen et al., 2020). The emerging interaction paradigm is suggested as the new all-encompassing paradigm that can assist in building credible research in the area of international business (Figure 2). This paradigm looks at international business with a broad lens intended to capture all aspects affecting the global environment beyond the firm. Hence it considers the hierarchical, multilevel business processes that are key in today's global marketplace. Furthermore, the emerging paradigm gives an all-encompassing or inclusive outlook toward business on a global scale, presenting a holistic view of IB as an area of inquiry. This therefore makes it possible to unpack the complex business landscape and can have direct implications on talent management practices.
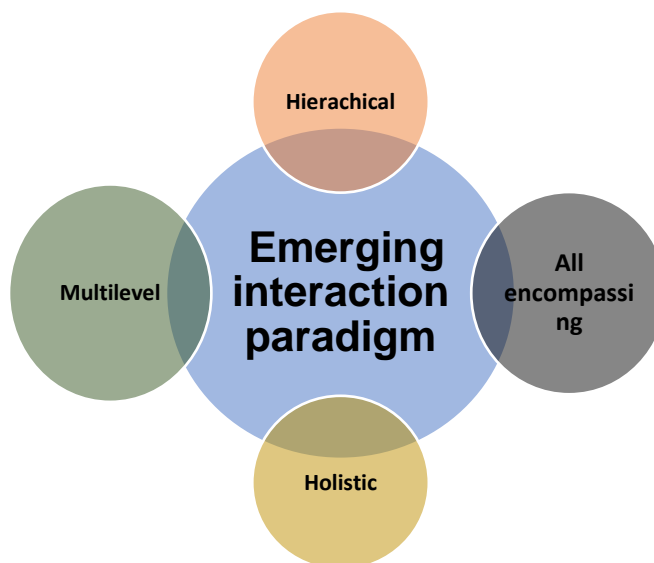
Figure 2: The emerging/evolving interaction paradigm (Author, 2023).

To shed light on the outlook of the emerging interaction paradigm, the holistic, all-encompassing, multilevel and hierarchical view is seen in Table 2. The emerging interaction paradigm indicates that the firm is only one level of IB inquiry and notes that there is the individual, group, industry, nation and supra-societal levels.

Table 2: Levels of International Business (Toyne & Nigh, 1998)

Level	Explanation
Supra-societal	• Boundary conditions such as trade agreements, international monetary systems • Organisations such as WTO, EU and other regional trading blocs.
Societal / Nation-State	• Boundary conditions such as national policies and laws • National politics and economic situations etc.
Industry	• Conditions that industries create such as competition, technology, specialisation, lobbying, political pressure etc.
Firm	• Conditions that individual firms create such as employment policies, economic impact and profitability, among others.
Group	• Conditions of groups within firms looking at issues such as changes in working conditions, learning, impact on employment, change etc.
Individual	• Individual conditions such as work-life balance, motivation, talent expertise etc.

All the levels of international business are important and the singular effort to look at the firm level and align talent management practices at this level leaves a gap in practical application. Thus the suggestion based on this research is to ensure that TM considers the levels of IB in their entirety to deal with the global marketplace effectively. Based on the review of IB scholarship it appears that the societal and supra-societal levels have received the least attention from IB scholars because of their concentration on the narrow perspective.

Furthermore, developing countries are gaining importance and slowly playing a larger role in the world economy; thus educators and global business practitioners should align their training towards understanding and discussing features of the

developing countries and emerging market firms since traditional management systems might not align with those in developing nations. For example, Darley and Luethge (2019) demonstrate that western accreditation standards are inconsistent with African business problems neither are they addressing the educational needs in the context. This research direction is prevalent in mainstream IB research. Scholars in international business discourse indicate that Scholarship from African countries are largely missing in key research. These studies are concentrated on the Americas, Europe and Asia with Africa receiving the least attention (Cerar et al., 2021; Hyman et al., 2008; Nielsen et al., 2020; Valbuena & Montenegro, 2017). The problems facing African businesses may not equally affect those in other parts of the world. This has direct implications on the skills and knowledge imparted and creates a marketplace that ignores certain regions and their specific needs. Furthermore, simplistic methodologies referred to as weak methods that do not contribute to theory and practice in IB thought bedevil international business inquiry making the scholarship in the area weak and unable to contribute to policy and practical directions (Cerar et al., 2021; Lorraine, Eden & Nielsen, 2020; Nielsen et al., 2020) in areas such as global talent management. Scholars propose triangulation and mixed methods research to fill this gap.

To comprehend why it is important to embrace the emerging interaction paradigm, a look at global business challenges sheds light on the skills needed for global business practitioners.

Challenges Facing International Businesses

To gain an understanding of the need for an expanded view of IB, it is important to look at the current challenges facing global businesses today. It is important to note that political, environmental and economic issues are gradually becoming the responsibility of international business practitioners. Educators and talent managers can thus aim at preparing individuals to embrace the challenges and opportunities of international business. While the universal marketplace becomes more accessible and interconnected, the dangers involved in undertaking business overseas are not to be taken lightly. Talent managers need to be cognizant of the

challenges affecting global businesses. Understanding challenges guides in making decisions on the relevant skills and knowledge that employees need (Premarathna, 2021).

First, global businesses face the challenge of complying with the foreign laws, policies and regulations of their host countries (Kumar, 2017). Hence gaining a complete understanding of the local regulations and laws governing the target market is crucial. From tax considerations through to trade laws, manoeuvring legal requirements is a vital function for any fruitful international business. Suitability to trade is a noteworthy consideration, as are possible tariffs and the legal expenses related to entering new markets. It is critical to note that labour and employment requirements also vary by country. With the intricacy involved in employment laws and foreign trade, investing in experienced and knowledgeable employees can prove invaluable. Beyond respecting official laws and regulations, participating in international business often entails following other unwritten cultural principles (Hofstede, 1980; Kogut & Singh, 1988). This can prove challenging in developing markets with vague regulations or likely corruption. In response, talent managers must train employees to abide by the laws of the host country. Global businesses need to be cautious so as not to engage in any dubious activities, which might be lawful but could have future reputational consequences (Kechagia & Metaxas, 2022).

Furthermore, the location of employees and a firm's structure are important. Talent management in this context calls for firms to prepare employees that can handle the global business environment and the complexities that arise daily. This calls for both soft and hard skills training. Questions on centralisation or decentralisation of operations guide the decision on where employees should be located. Coordinating global teams and ensuring there is synchrony is a key challenge in global business management (Kyaw et al., 2017).

Consequently, when going global paying taxes to host countries becomes standard practice. Tax compliance is possibly the most critical. This can present a challenge to global businesses that are legally responsible for corporation tax abroad. The

challenge of handling diverse tax systems, compliance requirements and rates can make the accounting role of a global business challenging. In this case, considering the risk of several layers of taxation and focusing on tax efficiency (Contractor, 2016) requires training in both hard and soft skills.

In addition to this, it is also not easy to set up prices for products and services in the global market. Businesses need to consider the costs incurred and expected revenue before making this decision. Knowledge of the prices of competitors in the local market can help in the pricing decision. However, the challenge also comes in because firms need to choose how they want to position their product in the market. This has an impact on the penetration of the product or service in the market. The growth in technology and innovation has led to many universal payment methods. However, these payment methods can become a challenge because what is acceptable in the home market may not be available in the host country. The challenge, in this case, is being able to accept global payment systems and considering those that are acceptable in the desired market (Cavusgil et al., 2015; Krugman & Obstfeld, 2002). Payment methods go hand in hand with currency rates. Currencies are subject to fluctuation and it is important to make a choice on which currency to use. The exchange rate can make it difficult to navigate pricing decisions in the global marketplace. This is because the rates are unpredictable and subject to fluctuation and volatility. The fluctuation has a major impact on supplier and customer relationships with the business. When it comes to sourcing services and products from overseas, managing supply chains and suppliers can also be a complicated process. Unfortunately, the complexity and length of supply chains increase the likelihood of working with suppliers who may have illegal and unethical business practices. Global businesses must be cognizant of such suppliers and maintain ethical and legal business conduct (Buckley et al., 2017). To handle these challenges, employees should have both hard and soft skills.

Furthermore, online sales are attractive because of globalisation. A firm can have a target market that is purely online. Global businesses are faced with the challenge of meeting the needs of consumers who desire to buy their product and have it shipped wherever they are on the globe. Choosing the right shipment method can

become a challenge. Global businesses need to make important choices on the best mode of shipping based on volume, destination, cost and the product that is being shipped. This choice has implications on the cost incurred by the consumer and the revenue earned by the business (Dabic et al., 2021). Subsequently, global businesses are faced with the challenge of communication. Good communication is central to an effective IB strategy. However, considering culture as a key parameter in global business can help in communicating properly. Cultural complexity and a focus on what people can understand and appreciate is a challenge that many global businesses (Hofstede, 1980; Kogut & Singh, 1988; Mwasha, 2015). Effective communication with customers and colleagues abroad is essential for global business success. This goes beyond language barriers because non-verbal communication such as body language is a key aspect of culture. Awareness of acceptable business etiquette, religious and cultural traditions can help navigate potential communication problems in the global business environment. It is interesting to note that cultural differences can have a direct implication on the demand for a product in the global market (Dabic et al., 2021; Eden & Lenway, 2001).

Consequently, political instability and uncertainty is a challenge that may face global businesses. Issues such as unstable policies, corruption, and leadership problems in host countries can be problematic. Changes in governments can lead to changes in regulations, interest rates and policy that can prove harmful to foreign direct investment. Added to this, a rising trend supporting economic nationalism makes the current global political scene potentially aggressive toward global businesses (Jones, 2017; Ravenhill, 2016).

Lastly, there are environmental effects and risks of climate change that have become a key agenda of many global businesses. Environmental concerns are now at the forefront of the development agenda in international business. Some key considerations for any global business include how production methods can impact the environment through pollution or waste. Beyond an ethical or legal incentive to be eco-friendly, having environmentally cognizant business practices can interest

new and forward-thinking consumers (Lundan, 2018; Mwasha, 2015; Premarathna, 2021).

A look at global business challenges denotes that skill and knowledge gaps exist that GTM practices need to consider. These challenges as echoed by the emerging interaction paradigm go beyond the firm and its operations. The challenges require the participation of multiple stakeholders and a view of international business that is holistic, all-encompassing, hierarchical and multilevel. To deal with these challenges there are specific skills that are required in the global marketplace. A look at the talent management gaps (Anlesinya et al., 2019; Dimanche & Lo, 2022) reveals how global businesses can link challenges to the skills relevant today.

4. Talent management Gaps and Global Business

Talent management has grown tremendously as a field of scholarly and practical interest, but some major gaps remain (Figure 3).
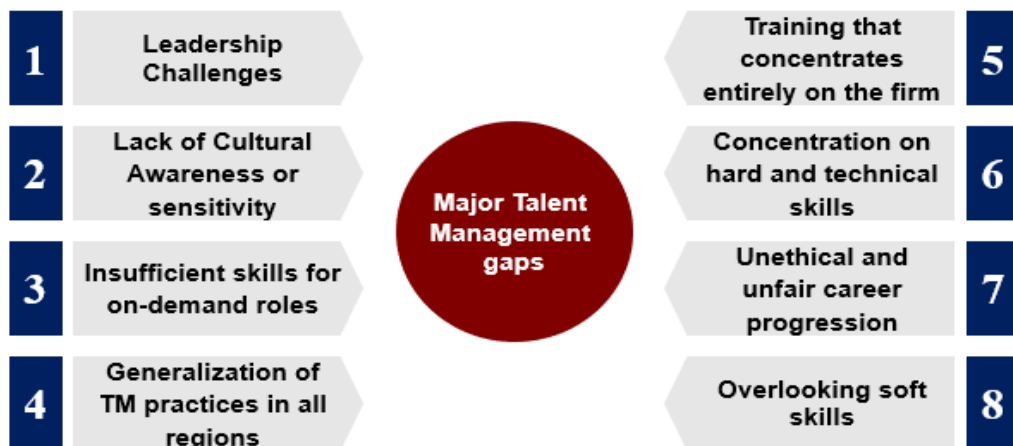
Figure 3: Major talent management gaps in international business (Author, 2023)

First, leadership has received inadequate focus in TM and international business training programs. Ashif (2019) mentions that many organisations fail to handle talent efficiently because their leaders do not recognize their roles (or the importance of their part) in TM. This observation implies a lack of comprehension of the link between TM and effective leadership and suggests that educators and practitioners overlook this connection. Das Mohapatra and Behera (2020) add that the emphasis of TM and IB curricula is often on diversity training without

consideration of the mediating influence of capable leadership and organisational policy on how effectively talent is managed. Furthermore, there is a need to transform the global manager role, which is limited to monitoring, controlling, and supervisory functions, into one of a global leader which entails giving expert direction and support. This finding underscores the underestimated significance of leadership in TM theory and practice. While technology has earned much attention in IB as a tool for global expansion, it has not been explored enough in TM. For example, few MNCs employ Talent Analytics to gauge the effectiveness of workforce planning and management practices or to align human capital investments with business results (Borisova et al., 2017). This discrepancy highlights a lack of know-how regarding the use of data or evidence-based TM activities supported by technology. Hence TM and IB curricula need to furnish students and professionals already working in the global marketplace with knowledge on leveraging their skills for optimum TM.

Moreover, leadership needs to form an integral part of growing global talent through TM and IB courses. A global manager leads by identifying and developing talented staff to work as business, functional, or country managers overseeing the international operations of the business (Kyaw et al., 2017). Effective leadership also ensures that global business practitioners do not simply view TM as important, but that they follow through with visible actions, rewards, or consequences (King & Vaiman, 2019). For instance, successful global businesses demonstrate capable leadership by practising employer branding, which synthesizes marketing principles and recruitment activities to establish a long-term strategy for managing employees and other stakeholders' awareness and perceptions of the organisation (Whysall et al., 2019). Leadership training should impart competencies, such as organising ability, intellectuality, persuasive skills, and an inspiring outlook, which together enable competent diversity management (Ashif, 2019). Hence leadership is vital in recognising and grooming potential talent, for example through mentoring and coaching, to ascend the career ladder or improve global mobility and employability.

Second, matters of fairness, equity, and justice manifest variably in different cultural contexts owing to variances in the ways people relate to one another. For example, collectivist cultures espouse group-based compensation methods to foster in-group harmony (Ashif, 2019). Hence applying individualised rewards in such settings might evoke feelings of inequity or injustice and disrupt teamwork and group cohesion. Awareness or sensitivity to cross-cultural differences thus is crucial and should be an essential element of TM and IB training. Moreover, ethics should form a core component of TM and IB curricula because of its criticality to organisational success and growing global talent. TM and IB trainees and practitioners need to learn how to implement staffing activities that promote employees' perceptions of equity, fairness, and justice (McDonnell et al., 2017). Related to ethical knowledge is the awareness of the influence of culture or cultural preferences, norms, and values on TM and other human resource practices (Sindhura, 2022). This know-how is instrumental in attracting new talent and retaining existing talent for the long term, especially for global businesses operating in multiple and culturally diverse settings. TM and HRM professionals, particularly global managers, can gain greater cross-cultural understanding through international experience (Ashif, 2019). Hence opportunities for acquiring such experience should be provided during internship or on-the-job training through rotational international assignments.

Third, the insufficiency of skills and training for undertaking emerging and on-demand roles in the technology industry. Examples of these positions are app developers, robot and drone operators, driverless car engineers, specialists in cloud computing, data analytics, augmented and virtual reality, 3D printing, and the Internet of Things, among other technological advances (Whysall et al., 2019). Klarin et al. (2021) point out that skills are needed to cater for the global marketplace in line with factors related to the lowering of trade barriers, globalisation and technological advancements. They argue that these aspects should be integrated with the modern training curricula. When faced with such new or inexistent talent demands, firms are at a loss on how to respond as they are used to lateral hiring or poaching readymade talent from competitors to fill urgent human capital vacancies (Whysall et al., 2019). The rapidly rising developments in

the global business landscape have thus exacerbated the already existing skills and human capital shortages. These changes also pose implications for TM and international business curricula in terms of the technical skills and courses offered to students or working individuals seeking further career or professional advancement.

In addition, there are generalisations of TM practices across the world with no consideration for differences in ways of working. The education needs of every part of the world differs and talent managers should pay special attention to what areas they should place emphasis on. This is important in MNEs spanning many regions requiring employees to learn what is important in their context. The disparity is exacerbated when accreditation standards from one part of the world are used in other parts failing to address business problems or educational needs (Darley & Luethge, 2019). With limited knowledge on the trajectory of international business thought, training consists of firm level paradigms leaving out the emerging paradigm and current thinking in IB (Nielsen et al., 2020).

Yet another TM gap is the emphasis on hard skills, whereas soft skills receive minimal attention. A possible cause of this oversight is the increased need for professionals with both basic and advanced skills or knowledge workers, particularly technical experts, owing to the modern technology-driven age and knowledge economy in which businesses find themselves operating. Thus TM and international business tend to focus on teaching such disciplines as management, strategy, marketing, business, and finance (Mohammed et al., 2019). However, educators fail to realise that the global marketplace is highly competitive, rendering technical skills (on their own) insufficient for workers and companies to compete in such an environment (Dean & East, 2019; Kyaw et al., 2017). Hence TM and IB curricula need to evolve to prepare students/graduates to become the most valuable employees in their organisations by equipping them with a mix of hard and soft skills. Equipping students or current employees with up-to-date knowledge and skills will make them increasingly attractive to employers and enhance their career mobility beyond national borders. However, TM and IB courses should not merely concentrate on hard and technical skills training. On the contrary, they should

equally incorporate soft skills education to produce graduates with such competencies as interpersonal communication, cross-cultural sensitivity, conflict resolution, diversity management, and emotional intelligence (Dean & East, 2019). Individuals entering or already inside the labour market need soft skills, in addition to technical ones, to better prepare themselves to be able to work in different countries with diverse groups of people and cultures.

Furthermore, TM raises some ethical issues that have largely been ignored in TM education and international business curricula. These concerns particularly involve fairness, equity, and justice, which are cornerstones of a successful global business (Brenkert, 2019). For instance, TM emphasizes the selection of high-performing employees for promotion or career progression, forgetting that the excellent performance of this group is contingent upon other supporting individuals, who may be seen as medium or low performers. This focus on -A performers- may increase their retention but polarize other individuals in the organisation and create an employment structure marked by extreme wage dispersion and the differentiated treatment of employees (McDonnell et al., 2017). Accusations of inequity of opportunity or perceived injustice or lack of fairness may arise and, as a result, diminish cooperation and morale, damage the public reputation and fuel the turnover of staff who are not deemed to be star performers.

A look at the challenges faced and skills required presents the way forward for global business practitioners in the areas that need their input. Specifically, soft skills are largely lacking and the need to inculcate skills related to global awareness, ethics in business, dynamic Leadership, relationship building, cross-cultural communication skills, excellent networking abilities, collaboration, interpersonal influence, adaptive thinking, emotional intelligence and resilience is paramount in filling the identified talent gaps in the global business landscape (Table 3).

Table 3: Challenges vs relevant knowledge and skills

Challenges in International Business	Skills and Knowledge requirements
• Foreign laws and regulations	• Global awareness
• International accounting	• Ethics in business
• Cultural differences	• Dynamic Leadership
• Global pricing approach	• Relationship building
• Global company structure	• Cross-cultural communication skills.
• Global payment systems	
• Currency rates	• Excellent networking abilities.
• Global shipment methods	• Collaboration.
• Communication problems	• Interpersonal influence.
• Political risks	• Adaptive thinking.
• Supply chain complexity	• Emotional intelligence.
• Exploitation of labour	• Resilience.
• Global environmental issues	• General communication skills
• Global pandemics	• Cultural awareness
• Climate change	• Hard skills
	• Technical skills

Based upon the literature review, table 2 links challenges faced by global businesses and the skills and knowledge requirements in today's global marketplace. However, the question remains as to how scholars and talent practitioners can use the emerging interaction paradigm to handle talent management challenges and ensure the right skills and knowledge are imparted. Section 4.1 narrows down the gaps and what can be done to resolve them.

The link between Talent management and the emerging interaction paradigm

Considering Talent management gaps in the context of the emerging interaction paradigm exposes the need for GTM practices that look beyond skills relevant to the firm. The emerging interaction paradigm has been suggested as a forward-looking paradigm that can guide scholarly contributions and business practice.

Global business practitioners face difficulty in imparting the right knowledge and skills to deal with emerging and big issues prevalent in the global marketplace; issues such as climate change, pandemics, and global economic turmoil. However, the question global talent managers need to ask in the context of international business is what skills are relevant in today's global marketplace. Linking talent management and international business practice to emerging issues and current challenges is important (Whysall, 2019). TM and international business training should keep pace with the demand for new or previously overlooked skill sets as a result of the ongoing technological or fourth industrial revolution. Figure 4 notes that the major talent management gaps according to the emerging interaction paradigm are the scope, methodology and unit of study. The present research suggests that filling these gaps has the potential of resolving or effectively handling the current talent management challenges facing the global marketplace.

State of current scholarship and practice

❑ Tendency to generalize GTM practices to all parts of the world
❑ Africa is understudied
❑ Accreditation standards in one part of the world may not capture actual problems needing training in another
❑ Lack of a holistic approach to handling global talent

SCOPE

❑ Use of simplistic methodologies in international business scholarship thus affecting its ability to contribute to other areas such as TM, potentially having a direct implication on global talent management practices

METHODOLOGY

❑ Use of the firm as the prime unit of study in IB, causing other significant issues such as climate change and global pandemics to be ignored in global TM training
❑ The focus of training has been profitability and growth ignoring soft skill development and unhealthy talent competition

UNIT OF STUDY

Revamping talent management in IB

✓ Unit of study to extend to all levels of IB
✓ Use of mixed methods and triangulation methodologies with a focus on problem-solving
✓ Expand the scope of GTM practices based on the needs in a given location/market. Avoid generalising situations and challenges in individual locations/markets

Figure 4: Gaps filled by the emerging interaction paradigm (Author, 2023)

To fill these gaps, this current study proposes that scholarship in IB should extend to all levels of IB instead of concentrating exclusively on the firm. In so doing, global talent managers will realise a holistic approach to handling global talent that

interrogates all levels of IB thought. Secondly, Talent management should keep on problem-solving and this is achievable by applying robust methodologies that are keen to provide direction to talent managers. Lastly, it is important to expand the scope of GTM practices to avoid generalising approaches where they do not apply.

Conclusion

IB scholars do not propose doing away with firm-level paradigms (Buckley, 2002; Buckley et al., 2017; Buckley & Casson, 2021; Peng, 2004). They simply suggest that the firm is only one aspect of international business and the need to interrogate the societal and supra-societal levels is critical. This research notes that working with the emerging interaction paradigm holds the potential of enhancing global talent management practices. The findings indicate that the challenges facing IB require skills that can be useful in the dynamic global marketplace. Scholarship on global talent management should consider all levels of IB, apply mixed methods research and triangulation and encourage GTM practices based on challenges in a given location.

Lastly, this study faced several limitations. First, there are limited studies that link IB and TM. Added to this, owing to time constraints, the research was structured as a literature review interrogating past research. Future research can concentrate on scholarly discussions that link IB and TM to enhance practical application by global business practitioners and educators. Empirical studies on the nexus between IB and TM are also necessary in upcoming scholarship.

CHAPTER 6:

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEES' PERCEPTIONS OF FAIRNESS IN PERFORMANCE REVIEWS AND THEIR MOTIVATION WITHIN THE PUBLIC SERVICE AMONG NORTH-WEST PROVINCIAL ARMY OFFICIALS

Yolande Jane Van Der Merwe

North-West University, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences – Business Administration, Mafikeng Campus;
Bachelor of Commerce degree in Management, Post-graduate Diploma in Human Resource Management and Masters degree in Business Administration

Petrus Albertus Botha

Professor, North-West University, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences (North West Business School);
MA Public Management (University of Stellenbosh) and PhD in Organisational Behaviour (University of Pretoria)

Kezell Klinck

Lecturer, North-West University, Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences, Mafikeng campus;
BA Comm, B Admin Hons in Industrial Relations (North-West University), Masters in Human Resources Management (North-West University), PhD in Business Management (North-West University)

Ajhan Laloo

Independent Statistical Analyst, Bachelor of Science (BSc), University of Cape Town

Deborah Mokgojwa

Lecturer, North-West University, Faculty of Economics and Management Sciences;
Bachelor of Administration in Human Resource Management (North-West University), BAdmin Honours in Human Resource Management (North-West University), MAdmin in Human Resource Management (North-West University), PhD in Labour Relations (North-West University)

Abstract

The purpose of this research was to examine the link between employees' perceptions of fairness in performance assessments and their public service motivation in the SA Army in the North West province. The study aimed at providing suggestions for enhancing employees' perceptions of fairness in performance assessments and public service motivation. Performance management, which includes performance assessments, plays a vital role in shaping employees' perceptions of fairness and public service motivation. This study focused on identifying the factors that influence motivation and explored the relationship between these factors and employees' perceptions of fairness during performance assessments in the public service. The study aimed to educate managers about their responsibility in managing performance by setting goals, monitoring performance, assessing performance, and providing feedback in a fair and just manner. To obtain real-world insights into these research questions, a cross-sectional correlation design and quantitative techniques were used. A self-administered questionnaire was distributed to the study population, which comprised active members of the SA Army at all rank levels. The sample size consisted of 199 participants selected from a study population of 416 active members of the NW army. The collected data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, ANOVA, t-test, and Pearson product-moment correlation test. The study found a weak positive correlation between employees' perceptions of performance assessments and their desire to serve in the public sector. Despite a low degree of perceived fairness in performance assessments, employees exhibited high levels of public service motivation. Therefore the study recommended that the SA Army's management strengthen the performance assessment process to retain high levels of public service motivation among employees.

Keywords
employee perceptions, employee performance, fairness, motivation, relationship

Introduction

Performance management (hereafter PM) is a purpose strategy that makes use of performance reviews to influence how fairness and public motivation are perceived by employees in the public sector. The author claims that this method increases job performance in a corporation by determining whether the employee adds value to the enterprise and making sure that measures are taken to increase that value

(Tool, 2012). The main objective of the study is to ascertain the relationship between the perception of performance assessment fairness and public service motivation among South African Army personnel at three military bases in the North West province: Joint Tactical Headquarters North West, 10 South African Infantry Battalion (Mahikeng), and 2 South African Infantry Battalion (Zeerust) (Mahikeng). Performance assessments (PA) form part of the performance management system in the field of human resource management (Lithakong, 2014). Park (2014) and Mabaleng (2014) explain that performance assessments can be used to manage South African Army (SA Army) personnel by ensuring acceptable performance, establishing organisational goals, and reviewing objectives against which performance is assessed. Park (2014) maintains that rewards and recognition are connected to performance assessments, which encourage members of the SA Army to work hard and have a shared vision of success and the organisation's objectives. Employees must provide for their families,; thus recognition, job stability, and adequate salary and incentives are all motivating factors. The organisation will receive the best of the individual's performance, who will be able to motivate others, from experience. If one has employment security and a suitable work environment, the organisation will get the best of one's performance and be able to motivate others. The irony of a lack of motivation is that employees will go to work merely to get their day over with, regardless of whether or not they are productive, as long as they are paid at the end of the month (Mabika, 2017).

Problem statement

The study was motivated by the researcher's personal experience working with performance assessments and public service motivation, which led her to observe issues faced by members of the South African Army. The researcher noticed that the members were facing a lack of input on progress during the performance review process, which led to certain issues. The researcher's observation was supported by other research findings as well. According to Du Plessis and Van Niekerk (2017), feedback from supervisors on employees' performance, be it favourable or unfavourable, is crucial for increasing performance and development. However, the study established that employees in the SA Army were not receiving this feedback

during the performance review process, leading to a lack of clarity about their performance and how to improve it. Not receiving feedback on their performance can have significant consequences, as employees may feel demotivated and disengaged from their work if they do not receive feedback. Furthermore, the lack of input on progress can lead to a lack of accountability for both the employees and the organisation, as there is no clear way to measure performance or identify areas for improvement. Overall, the researcher's personal observations and the support of other research findings highlight the importance of providing feedback during the performance review process to increase employee performance and development, and to maintain accountability within organisations. Low employee PM leads to low motivation, low morale, and high turnover. Tsiu (2012) underlined that as well-managed performance appraisals support a stronger relationship between the employee and manager and more motivation, supervisors are accountable for managing performance.

Performance incentives are given to employees based more on their moral character than their work performance. Workers want to know that the outputs equal their inputs in terms of talent, experience, and effort, which suggests that they expect primary goals to match actual outcomes, as stated by Matlala (2011).

Supervisors rate members based on their traits instead of their performance because of assessment errors and biased ratings (Chen, Sparrow & Cooper, 2016). Because the halo effect can cause failure in other areas, increased knowledge among employees and employers alike is the only way to avoid this mistake (Mkhize, 2018).

A new problem statement was developed in light of the concerns with the performance assessment system and public service motivation previously mentioned. Particularly the performance assessment system was seen as unjust by South African Army personnel at three military locations in the North West Province, which had a negative influence on their dedication to public service. The purpose of this study was to ascertain how the North West Province South African

Army personnel perceived the fairness of the performance assessment system and how this impression of fairness affected their drive to serve the people.

Research objectives

The following are the research objectives of this study:

- Examine the perceptions of fairness of the performance assessment among members of the SA Army; Determine how motivated SA Army members are perceived to serve the public.;
- Determine whether differences exist in the average scores for public service motivation and perceived fairness in performance assessments across gender, age groups, and employee levels/ranks. Determine whether the perceived fairness of the performance assessment system can be linked to the level of enthusiasm for public service among members of the SA Army.

Main research question and sub-questions

The following key research questions were looked into so as to fulfill the aforementioned objectives of the study:

- How fair is the SA Army's performance assessment system assessed to be?
- How are SA Army members seen to be motivated by a desire to serve the public?

Is there a variation in the average perceived fairness of performance assessment and public service motivation scores among different gender groups, various age groups, and employee levels/ranks? What is the nature of the relationship between public service motivation (the dependent variable) and perceived fairness of the performance assessment (the independent variable)?

Literature review

The literature review focuses on the constructs used in this study.

Performance Management Systems

Several studies have PM system and discovered that, while it originated in the First World War (man-to-man or merit system), measuring the performance of military members, a New Public Management system model (hereafter PMSM) was developed in the 1990s (Ciaxote, Mothusi & Molokwane, 2020). Lapuente and Van der Walle (2020) hold that new public management is characterised as a venture to instil private-sector business management ideas into the public sector, with the PM system being one of these ideas. The PM system falls under the New PMSM and covers a broader spectrum of entities, namely the public and private sectors, including the universities. Caixote et al. (2020) also confirm that although the PM system gained serious recognition in the 1980s, the government still faced numerous challenges in implementing the PM system because it was more short-term focused and managed by employing top-down management. Previous studies have shown that the reason why the PM system gained so much recognition during the 1980s is that the organisation could have a shared vision, and employees could understand their role in contributing to the vision, mission and goals of the organisation through their performance and productivity (Alam, 2017).

When the PM system is viewed as fair and efficiently administered, it is adopted as a crucial mechanism for boosting effective job performance and public service motivation (SA Army) (Mabona, 2013; Xipu, 2010). Consequently, for the PM system to be implemented effectively in the (SA Army), managers must be conversant with public service motive (Aguinis, 2009). Armstrong (2021) describes the PM system as a formal procedure to boost organisational performance by supporting the growth of its members. Public service motivation is described by Miao, Eva, Newman, and Schwartz (2018) as a particular kind of unselfish or generous motivation that is active and motivated by particular ideas and ideals present in public organisations. Hence it is obvious that staff members need to be trained and motivated to provide good service (Matlala, 2011). Yet, as indicated by Hall (2017), the PM system's implementation is still difficult owing to a dearth of administrative tasks, poor management, a lack of comparison, and inadequate strategic planning. Mabona (2013) found that the majority of survey respondents

rated the PM system as uncomfortable, challenging, and stressful since it was so challenging to apply successfully. Nonetheless, one of management's most crucial responsibilities is to make sure that the organisation performs at a high level and that inconvenience, uncertainty, and stress are limited to a minimum (Mabona, 2013). Trait theories are generic and form part of personalities, namely that leaders have internal leadership attributes. Leadership is recognised by the indivdual's personality qualities, such as intelligence, creativity, innovativeness, determination, self-esteem and the way they interact socially. The six characteristics of leadership are: inner motivation, complete honesty, integrity, confidence, the right mindset and experience and knowledge of their core subject and business (Asrar-ul-Haq and Anwar, 2018).

The legal framework which governs the employee/employer Performance Management System (PMS)

The majority of survey respondents, as established in a recent study by Mabona (2013), rated the PM system as uncomfortable, challenging, and stressful since it was so challenging to apply successfully. To ensure that the organisation performs at a high level and that discomfort, uncertainty, and stress are limited to a minimum, however, is one of management's most crucial responsibilities (Mabona, 2013):

Section (2), Section (195), and Section (195)(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996

The Performance Management (PM) system in South Africa is subject to legal and constitutional frameworks, which provide the guiding principles for managing performance in the public sector. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 is the primary legal document that governs the performance management system. Section 195 of the Constitution sets out the principles that should guide public administration in South Africa, including management of performance. According to Section 195 of the Constitution, public administration in South Africa should be governed by principles of transparency, accountability, and the efficient use of resources. It also requires that public administration should be conducted in

a manner that is impartial, fair, and without bias. The Constitution further stipulates that public administration should be responsive to the needs of the public and ensure that services are provided in a manner that is equitable, accessible, and of high quality.

These constitutional principles are reflected in the design and implementation of the Performance Management system in the public sector. The PM system aims at ensuring that public officials are held accountable for their performance and that their work is aligned with the objectives of their department or agency. The system also promotes transparency and fairness in the assessment of performance, and it is designed to be responsive to the needs of the public by ensuring that services are provided in an efficient and effective manner. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa of 1996 provides the guiding framework for managing performance in the public sector, and its principles are reflected in the design and implementation of the Performance Management system. The PM system is intended to ensure that public officials are held accountable, services are provided in a transparent and fair manner, and resources are used efficiently and effectively to meet the needs of the public.This legislation aims to address historical injustices and enhance service delivery. For public sector organisations to operate effectively, they must abide by the structure of values and principles outlined by the Republic of South Africa's (RSA) 1996 Constitution. In addition, as stipulated in the 1998 Skills Development Act, organisations are required to take the following actions in accordance with Section 195(1) of this legislation:

- Maintain a high standard of professionalism with regard to ethical conduct;
- Utilize resources productively. Use resources effectively;
- Maintain neutral, honest, and impartial service delivery;
- Invite people to participate in the formulation of policies and attend to people's needs;
- Be open and honest with the public by providing them with information;
- Grow careers and promote human potential; and
- Make sure South Africans are adequately represented in organisations.

Thantsa (2013) argues that the principles of the Republic of South Africa's 1996 Constitution form the foundation on which the country's PM system and policies are established, both in the government and the public sector.Munzhedzi (2017) goes on to say that section 195 (1) of the Constitution directs the performance and behaviour of government employees, as well as how PM should be performed administratively (Public Service Regulation of 2001).

South African Skills Development Act (SDA) Number 97 of 1998

The South African Skills Development Act (SDA) number 97 of 1998 placed strong emphasis on skills development to improve service delivery, workplace productivity, and employee quality of life. To promote organisational performance, this Act encourages firms to foster a learning environment at work, offer chances for skills development, and guarantee that high-quality learning is available (Skills Development Act 97 of 1998). To detect skills gaps in job requirements and the competencies needed of individuals to fill these gaps, the SA Army conducts skills audits in combination with the PM system. As a result, the PM system, in conjunction with the Skills Development Act, makes it feasible to improve workplace performance (Skills Development Act 97 of 1998).

White Paper on Human Resource Management in Public Service 1997

The 1997 White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Sector marked a significant shift in the approach to people management strategies within the public sector in many countries. Prior to this White Paper, many public sector organisations relied on predetermined conceptions and outdated policies for managing their workforce. However, the White Paper recognized that such approaches were not effective in meeting the needs of citizens or ensuring high-quality public service.

The objective of the 1997 White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Sector was to guarantee variety, expertise, and a well-trained workforce that offered the citizens of the nation high-quality services. To achieve this objective, the White Paper introduced several new strategies for managing people in the public sector, which included:

- *Decentralization of human resource management:* The White Paper recognized that one of the challenges facing public sector organisations was the centralized management of human resources. Therefore it recommended decentralizing this function, which would allow public sector organisations to tailor their people management strategies to their specific needs.

- *Competency-based approach:* The White Paper recommended adopting a competency-based approach to people management. This approach involved defining the required competencies for each role and recruiting, training, and developing staff based on these competencies. This approach helped to ensure that the public sector workforce had the necessary skills and expertise to deliver high-quality services.

- *Performance management:* The White Paper recognized that performance management was critical for improving the quality of public services. It recommended introducing performance management systems that would set clear performance expectations, provide regular feedback, and link performance to rewards and recognition.

- *Learning and development:* The White Paper recognized that investing in learning and development was essential for building a well-trained workforce. It recommended that public sector organisations provide regular training and development opportunities for their staff to ensure they had the necessary skills and expertise to deliver high-quality services. Overall, the 1997 White Paper on Human Resource Management in the Public Sector marked a significant shift in the approach to people management strategies in the public sector. It recognized that the old approach of predetermined conceptions was not effective in meeting the needs of citizens or ensuring a high-quality public service. Instead, it recommended adopting new strategies, such as decentralization, competency-based approaches, performance management and learning and development to build a well-trained workforce that could deliver high-quality services to citizens. According to the White Paper on Human Resources, effective and efficient performance of responsibilities by staff members makes public services more successful (Munzhedzi, 2017). According to this Human Resources White Paper, management must ensure that employees understand their responsibilities and that their performance contributes to the organisation's

vision. According to the White Paper on Human Resource Management 1997 it strategically suggests that in case of poor performance, a plan should be developed to aid Human Resources in improving. On the other hand, those who perform well should be acknowledged and rewarded.

Public Services Regulation 2001

In accordance with the Public Service Regulation of 2001, management must create quantitative and qualitative programs to enhance worker performance and productivity. In accordance with this Act, a properly managed PM system guarantees superior service at the most affordable price (Munzhedzi, 2017). According to the Public Service Rules of 2001, only one assessment tool will be used, and both the manager and the worker are required to participate. PM's significance is reiterated in Part VIII of the Public Service Regulation of 2001, and managers in the public sector are required to abide by it. The implementation of the PM system, disclosure of the performance cycle and annual assessment date, monitoring, oversight, and assessment of employee performance are all required under this Regulation for public-sector management (Defence Act 42 of 2002, DODI, 2011).

In terms of Public Service Regulations (PSR), 2001 the Minister of Defence and Military Veterans shall determine a system for PM of all employees in the Department of Defence, excluding officials in the Senior Management System (SMS). The Performance Management and Development System (PMDS) chosen moves away from the 360-degree concepts and puts the responsibility for performance back with the supervisor and subordinate. The PMDS also incorporates both the previous concepts (Performance Incentives and Performance Assessment). Thus, from 2011, only one instrument/tool will be used to manage and assess officials in the Department of Defence; thus saving time and resources and assuring procedural fairness.

Performance Management Process

The PM process is an ongoing activity that includes goal and objective setting, performance assessment, ongoing coaching, and reporting to monitor

organisational growth. The PM process lasts for a full year; it is not a one-time or brief activity (Aguinis, 2019). Bussin (2012) supports that PM is a dynamic process that includes planning, reviewing, rewarding, and developing employees. Individuals are monitored throughout the process, and performance gaps are identified against organisational standards to determine growth requirements. Hence it is crucial to understand that a single performance approach may not work for all organisations and must be customised to the company's overall strategy (Woyessa, 2015).

The success of any project is highly dependent on the level of trust and empowerment within the project team. Trust and empowerment are prioritized as essential elements for the fulfillment of project aims because they foster collaboration, communication, and cooperation among team members. According to Mone and London (2018) trust is built when team members perceive that they can rely on one another to fulfill their commitments and act in the best interest of the project. Trust is important because it allows team members to feel comfortable sharing their ideas and concerns without fear of judgment or retribution. Trust also allows for effective communication between team members, which is essential for identifying and addressing potential issues or risks that may arise during the project. Empowerment, on the other hand, refers to the delegation of decision-making authority and responsibility to team members. Empowerment is important because it allows team members to take ownership of their tasks and feel invested in the success of the project. When team members feel empowered, they are more likely to take initiative, make decisions, and solve problems independently. This can lead to increased efficiency and productivity, as well as better overall project outcomes. Dube (2014) points out that the efficiency of the PM process must be at the required level based on the requirements of the organisation. According to this source, the PM process is connected to the organisation's strategy in terms of requirements (Dube, 2014). Depending on the outcomes of the performances, the PM strategy is frequently reassessed. Mone and London (2018) emphasise that performance planning, goal setting, commitment and motivation, coaching, performance reviews, and assessment are the key stages in the systematic

performance management process. Furthermore, Gruman and Saks (2011) cited that these stages are essential for integrating the human resource strategy.

Performance Management Strategic Planning

Performance planning is the first step in the performance management (PM) process. It involves formulating a performance plan, which outlines the organisation's objectives and goals and aligns them with the employee's performance expectations. The main objective of performance planning is to establish a clear understanding of what is expected of employees, as well as to provide direction for them to work towards achieving those expectations. Woyessa (2015) explains that performance planning includes determining the specific goals that employees need to achieve, identifying the resources and support needed to reach those goals, and communicating those goals and expectations clearly to the employees. This process assits in ensuring that employees understand what is expected of them, and they have the necessary resources to achieve their objectives. Jayawarna and Dissanayake (2019) emphasize the importance of communicating goals to employees at all levels of the public sector. This is because goal fulfillment is linked to a development plan, intended outcomes, and necessary performance requirements as the basis for performance planning. The communication of goals also helps to ensure that employees are aware of their roles in achieving the organisation's objectives. In addition to this, effective performance planning involves setting realistic and achievable performance goals. Goals must be measurable, relevant, specific, and time-bound. Clear goals help employees to focus their efforts and make them accountable for their performance. When employees understand what they are expected to achieve, they are more likely to be motivated and engaged in their work. It can also be summarised that, performance planning is a critical component of the PM process. It involves setting clear performance goals and expectations, providing employees with the necessary resources and support, and communicating those goals and expectations to them. Clear and achievable goals help to keep employees motivated, focused, and accountable for their performance, leading to improved performance outcomes. According to Woyessa (2015) personal aspirations must be in line with

organisational objectives and employees must be included in the performance planning process. Employees must be involved from the beginning of the PM process onward to describe their expectations for the procedure, the behaviours they typically display, and the outcomes they hope to achieve at conclusion of the cycle (Maloa, 2016).

Goal Setting and Goal Alignment

Goals provide a foundation for feedback and performance assessment criteria because feedback identifies the need for development and performance management (Runge, 2013). Goal alignment occurs at all levels of the organisation, from the top to the lowest, as part of the individual PM process to ensure effectiveness and efficiency. Plachy and Plachy (2021) are different names for the same individual; nevertheless, Aguinis (2019) argues that for employees to make a positive impact both on themselves and their organisation, alignment must start with the first stage, which is understanding the organisation's strategy, mission, and goals. This means that employees need to be aware of the organisation's overarching goals, mission statement, and strategic plan, and how their individual roles and responsibilities contribute to the achievement of those goals. When employees understand the organisation's mission and goals, they are better equipped to align their work with the organisation's objectives. They can identify the tasks and activities that are most critical to the success of the organisation and prioritize those tasks accordingly. This helps to ensure that employees are working towards the same goals and objectives as the organisation, leading to improved performance outcomes. Furthermore, when employees have a clear understanding of the organisation's strategy and goals, they are more likely to be engaged and motivated in their work. They can see how their work fits into the bigger picture, and they understand the impact their work has on the organisation's success. This can lead to increased job satisfaction, improved performance, and lower turnover rates. Therefore Aguinis (2019) highlights the importance of employees understanding an organisation's strategy, mission, and goals so as to make a positive impact both on themselves and the organisation. Alignment between individual goals and organisational objectives is critical for achieving success, and it

starts with a clear understanding of the organisation's mission and goals. When employees are aligned with the organisation's objectives, they are more likely to be engaged, motivated, and productive, leading to improved performance outcomes. Employee commitment to the PM process depends on their involvement in goal alignment (Maloa, 2016). Members can describe how they plan to achieve these objectives and how they think objectives are measured by how well they fit with organisational objectives (Plachy & Plachy, 2021). Individual ambitions are aligned with the organisation's goals through communication between employees and management (Maloa, 2016). Govender (2018) conducted a study that proved the importance of goal setting for all organisation members, regardless of their degree of performance. The author also discovered that for effective performance measurement in the organisation, all employees at all levels need to participate in reaching these goals.

Coaching

Coaching can be done either internally by peers or externally (by consultants). On the other hand, those couched by external sources do better than those couched internally. Peer coaching is less stressful because the practice is conducted on an equal footing, with no one having authority over the other. Employees are much calmer since they are not afraid of retaliation. However, recent studies suggest that coaching may be relatively costly because it is associated with a time period and money (Nzeru, 2020).

Performance reviews

The performance review phase is the last step in the PM process, Ngobeni (2018). It also involves implementing employee development programs, discussing and receiving feedback on performance assessments, and identifying areas that require improvement. Employee participation in performance review meetings, as explained by Zewotir (2012) is essential for enhancing the effectiveness, speed, drive and openness of the supervisor's relationships with subordinates. However, supervisors might be reluctant to offer criticism to workers during performance reviews, perhaps out of concern for those reporting to them. One of the issues in

the public sector is that supervisors do not comprehend the system and hence do not know how to apply it, which is a significant concern (Ngobeni, 2018).

Performance Management Systems in the Army

The Ministers of Defence and Veterans Affairs wanted to save time and costs while still guaranteeing procedural fairness when they made the Performance Measurement System the exclusive method of performance assessment in 2011 (DODI, 2011). The South African Army's Performance Management (PM) system is designed to evaluate the performance of its personnel in a cooperative, supportive, and equitable manner. This system aims to ensure that the Army functions effectively and efficiently while also recognizing the developmental needs of its employees. The PM system is based on the Department of Defense Instruction (DODI) of 2011, which outlines the key principles that guide the Army's PM process. These principles include fairness, objectivity, transparency, and accountability. The system also takes into account the unique needs of each individual and the organisation as a whole. One of the main goals of the PM system is to improve individual and organisational performance. The system achieves this by setting clear and measurable goals, providing feedback on progress towards those goals, and identifying areas where improvements can be made. The system also provides opportunities for development and training to enhance skills and competencies. The PM system in the SA Army is a cooperative process that involves both the employee and the supervisor. The process starts with the establishment of clear performance expectations, which are aligned with the Army's goals and objectives. The employee and the supervisor then work together to develop a performance plan that outlines the specific tasks and responsibilities required to achieve those expectations. Throughout the year, the supervisor provides ongoing feedback and coaching to the employee, ensuring that they remain on track towards meeting their goals. The supervisor also conducts periodic formal evaluations of the employee's performance, which are used to identify strengths and weaknesses and develop plans for improvement. The PM system in the SA Army is also designed to be supportive of employee development. This is achieved through a range of training and development programs, including mentoring, coaching, and job

shadowing. These programs are designed to help employees develop new skills and competencies and to prepare them for future roles and responsibilities within the Army. Overall, the PM system in the SA Army is a critical component of the organisation's success. By evaluating performance in a fair and objective manner, providing feedback and coaching, and supporting employee development, the Army can ensure that it remains an effective and efficient force. However, Armstrong (2021) discovered that 71 percent of 45 participants in a poll he conducted employed the 360-degree feedback method to aid in learning and development. 23 percent used 360-degree technology to help with HR operations, while 6 percent used it to help with payment processes. Following the Public Service Regulation 2001, the Ministers of Defence and Veterans' Affairs moved away from the former appraising method, namely the 360-degree system, and implemented the PM system, which returned responsibility to supervisors and subordinates (DODI, 2011). In addition, Armstrong (2021) also stated that 77 percent of respondents in a poll of 22 organisations that employed the 360-degree feedback system disagreed that the system contributed to personal development and that the 360-degree feedback system should not be used in HR operations. The 360-degree feedback system does not contribute to finding a cause for performance incentives, according to 88 percent of the members. A performance work plan must be created, performance must be assessed, performance must be given feedback on, and pay progression must be decided. Every year, the process is repeated, starting on April 1 and concluding on March 31 of the following year (DODI, 2011). Each year in October, SA Army members are given feedback on their achievements to determine whether they have made any progress since the process started. Over a year, supervisors must communicate with their subordinates and provide feedback (DODI, 2011). Performance assessment is the tool used by the South African Army to manage performance. The study in issue focused on employees' perceptions of the fairness of the system's performance assessment component as well as their perceptions of public satisfaction rather than examining the PM system as a whole.

Performance Management Systems

A large amount of research on the performance assessment system has discovered that it is linked to training because without training, organisational goals cannot be reached. After all, members of the organisation do not know what is expected of them. The first step is for members of the organisation to be educated about performance assessment. Second, on-the-job training as well as job rotation are required. Finally, simulation exercises must be implemented to improve the organisation's performance (Mohun, 2018).

Research design and research methodology

To accomplish the objectives of and offer solutions to the research concerns, the researcher used a cross-sectional correlation design and a quantitative technique in this study. By applying a self-administered questionnaire, quantitative data were collected. This method was followed with the view to answer the study questions. The study aimed to investigate the relationship between public service motivation and perceived fairness in performance assessments. The assessment instruments used in the study were developed by Diane in 2012. The research methodology employed was quantitative research, which Bryman and Bell (2014) describe as empirical, deductive, and hypothesis testing in a natural science model. The study used a cross-sectional correlation analysis, as the data was collected at a specific point in time. To collect quantitative data, an online self-administered questionnaire was used. The questionnaire was designed to gather information on the participants' perceptions of the fairness of the performance assessment system and their level of public service motivation. Using a questionnaire as a tool for data collection, analysis, and interpretation is a widely accepted research practice. As Babbie (2011) notes, questionnaires are effective in collecting large amounts of data quickly and efficiently. They are also useful in providing standardized data that can be easily analyzed and compared across different groups of participants. Overall, the study aimed to explore the relationship between public service motivation and perceived fairness in performance assessments. The use of a quantitative research methodology and an online questionnaire allowed for the

collection of standardized data that could be easily analyzed and interpreted. The findings of this study could potentially inform the development of performance assessment systems that are perceived as fair and equitable and promote public service motivation among employees.

Questionnaires

Data for this research study were collected using a self-administered questionnaire. A questionnaire is a tool used to collect information by posing a set of structured questions to participants. This method is flexible in that it can be administered to both large and small groups of individuals. The questionnaire used in the study consisted of a set of questions related to the topic of the research. This means that the questions were specifically designed to gather information about the research subject and were structured to elicit specific types of responses. The use of a questionnaire is suitable for quantitative research, which seeks to establish statistical relationships between variables. Quantitative research typically involves the collection of numerical data, and the use of questionnaires can help to ensure consistency and standardization in the data collection process. Overall, the statement suggests that the use of a self-administered questionnaire was a practical and effective method for collecting data for the study, given the quantitative nature of the research and the need for a flexible data collection tool that could be applied to a large or small group of participants. The researcher paid for and spent own time and money gathering the data. Since the data came from a brand-new population (a first-hand source) that hadn't previously filled out the questionnaire, primary data collection was done. By using this method of data collection, it was possible to guarantee the accuracy, originality, and reliability of the information.

Target population

A study population is defined by Bryman and Bell (2014) as the entire set of cases from which a random sample is drawn, whereas Thantsa (2013) defines it as the entire set of units of inquiry used by a researcher to arrive at particular conclusions. The study population for this inquiry consisted of active South African Army

members working for the Defense Department at all levels of rank/employee job level, which was determined based on the literature. The researchers acknowledged that this group would be more awareness of and familiar with the performance assessment process and the incentive of public servants, particularly within the South African Force and Department of Defence.The population was selected since it is generally accessible and was presumed to be at any time. It has been determined that each member of the SA Army is a member of one of the three armed forces, and the researcher is already acquainted with the region where the population dwells.

Sampling method

To ensure that every member of the RSA Force has an equal opportunity to be chosen at random,a straightforward random sample technique was used (Bryman & Bell, 2014). This plan tries to ensure a representative sample while minimizing selection bias (Christensen, Johnson, Turner & Christensen, 2011). The South African Army's active members made up the study population (N), of which 199 were selected as the sample size (n). A 95 percent confidence level and a 5% margin of error were allowed by the researcher. A response rate of 50% was attained. The sample was chosen from the 416 troops who make up the SA Army.

Geographical inspection

The academic scholar responsible for the research selected Zeerust and Mahikeng (which is the capital of the North-West Province) as the analytical instrument for the study. The three military sites, which are all under the command of officer commanders, are situated five kilometers apart on the Ramatlhabama Road leading to the Botswana border station. The study was conducted in a public place, and the researcher obtained written permission from all three Officer Commanders before commencing with the study. The three military establishments were easily accessible as they are located in close proximity to one another, making it convenient for the researcher to conduct the study. Moreover, the population under investigation, i.e. active military personnel, was readily available and easily accessible when needed. The researcher had prior knowledge of the area and had

confirmed that entry to the military installations could be obtained at any time as agreed upon. The Officer Commanders endorsed the research idea and provided their support and cooperation as they believed in the importance and relevance of the study. Hence the study was conducted with the facilitation of the military institutions, which made the research process easier and more efficient.

Validity (precision) and reliability (consistency) of the research instruments

The precision and consistency of the measurements and findings are referred to as the research's validity and reliability. Validity is the degree to which a measurement correctly captures what it is meant to capture and the results of the analysis are presented in an appropriate manner. According to Babbie (2011) it is essential to make sure that the data collected accurately reflects what is being measured and that the findings are presented. Diane (2012) points out that the reliability of the discrepancies between the measuring tool and the accuracy of the respondents being tested determines a measurement's validity. A positivist approach, which is primarily quantitative, was used by the researcher to guarantee the validity of the assessment in this study. This method assisted in precisely and accurately measuring the intended variables. A positivist paradigm, which is quantitative in nature, was used by the researcher to guarantee the validity of the assessment in this study. This method assisted in precisely and correctly measuring the desired variables. The instrument of the study was precise and specific, and the sample size was adequate to improve the validity thereof. The consistency of the measurements used in the study is referred to as reliability, on the other hand. Bryman and Bell (2014) mention that the reliability coefficient Cronbach's Alpha is frequently used in business management ideas to find favourable correlations between variables. The range of Cronbach's Alpha is 0 to 1, with a coefficient of 0 indicating no internal consistency and a coefficient of 1 indicating flawless internal consistency, and a coefficient of 1 indicates perfect correlation and complete internal consistency. In this study, Cronbach's Alpha was used to test the reliability of the measuring instruments. The researcher displayed the reliability results in Table 1, where the Cronbach's Alpha values for the two measuring equipments are

presented. These results helped to determine the consistency of the measures used in the study, ensuring that the findings of the study are reliable and can be replicated. .Procedural justice is a concept in the field of psychology and law that refers to the perceived fairness of the procedures and processes used to make decisions that affect individuals or groups. According to figure 1 a score of 0.91 on this scale suggests that the participants in this particular study rated the level of procedural justice as being very high and consistent. This indicates that the participants believed that the procedures and processes used to make decisions were fair and impartial, and that they were applied consistently across different situations. Overall, a score of 0.91 is considered an excellent rating, and suggests that the participants had a high level of trust and confidence in the procedures used to make decisions that affected them. Figures 1 and 2 display the Cronbach's Alpha values for the two measuring equipments.
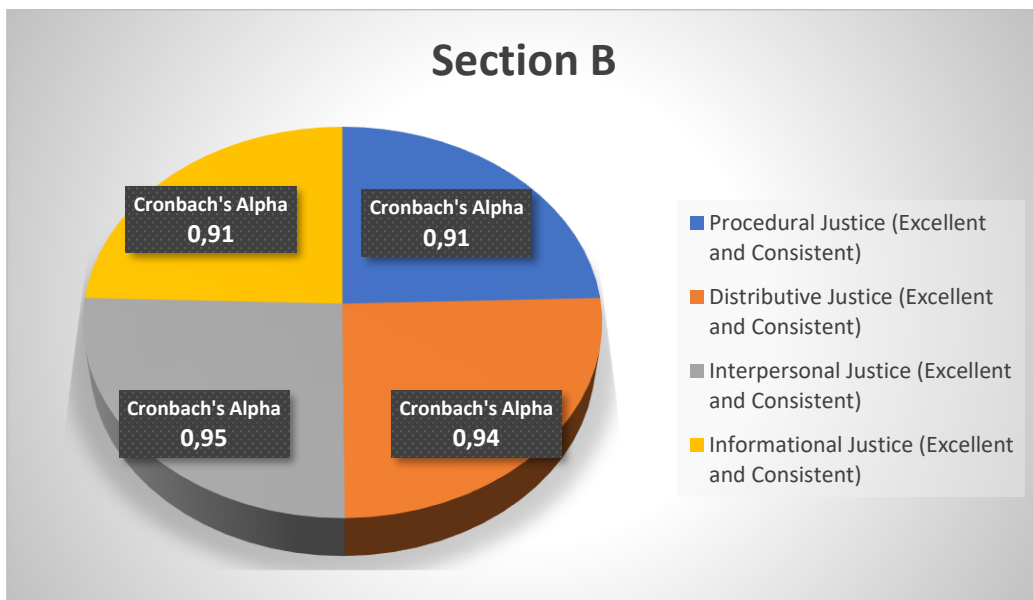
Figure 1: Reliability coefficients for the fairness scale used to measure perceived performance assessment were Cronbach's alphas for Section B
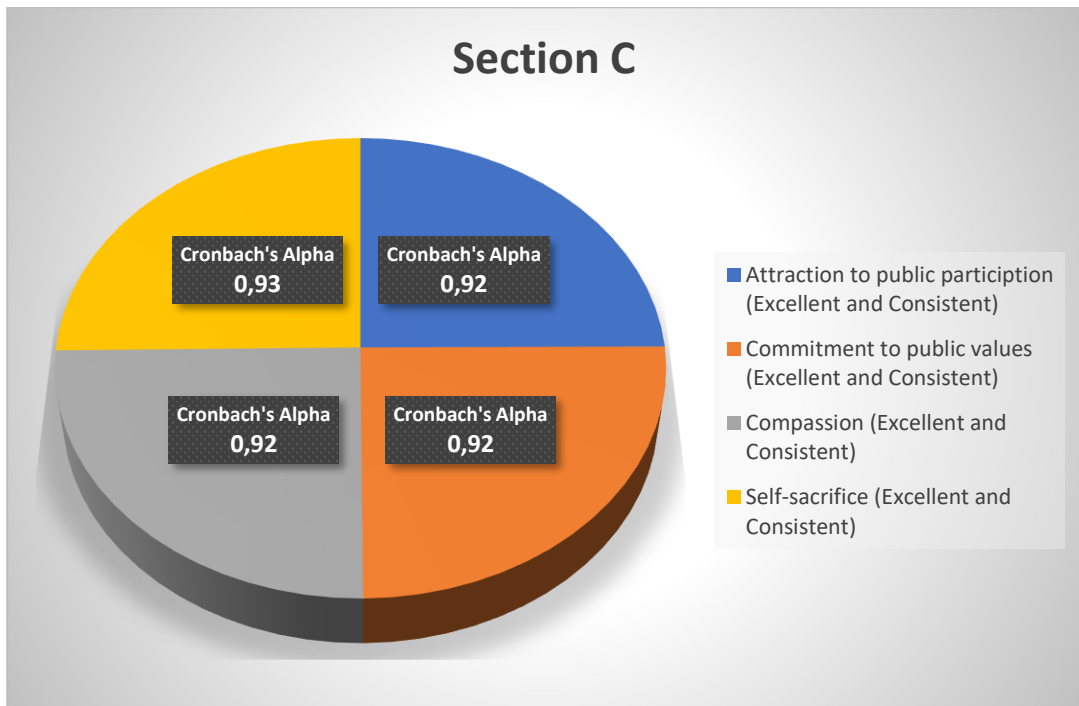
Figure 2: Reliability coefficients for the public service motivation were measured using Cronbach's alpha scale for Section C

From figure 2 it is evident that self-sacrifice at work which is in fact a state in which individuals are motivated by a desire to serve others rather than their own personal interests or goals. In this context, a score of 0.93 on a scale of 0 to 1 would suggest that the majority of participants rated the level of selflessness at work as very high. This indicates that the participants believed that their colleagues and superiors were motivated by a desire to serve others and contribute to the common good, rather than by personal interests or goals. A score of 0.93 suggests a high level of satisfaction among the participants with the level of selflessness at their workplace. Such a high rating can indicate a positive and supportive work environment, where individuals are motivated by a sense of common purpose and willing to put the needs of others before their own. This can lead to increased collaboration, teamwork, and overall job satisfaction among employees.

The overall Cronbach's alpha value for the fairness scale used to evaluate viewed performance appraisal process was 0.96, while the entire public service scale had an overall Cronbach's alpha value of 0.97. All factors in Section B and Section C have

Cronbach's alphas larger than the cut-off value of 0.07. As a result, both scales were found to be outstanding and consistent.

Statistical analysis

To identify trends that were hidden in the raw data, descriptive statistics were used. With descriptive statistics, data can be condensed into graphs, tables, charts, and tables, making it simpler for the academic scholar to distinguish specific trends using the information collected (Mavhungu, 2017). With the help of Statistical Packaging for the Social Science System, data were transformed into graphs and tables (SPSS). The mean scores for public motivation and perceived fairness of the PAS could be compared by applying the t-test and the analysis of variance test (ANOVA). The nature of the connection between employees' perceptions of fairness in performance assessments and their motivation to service the public was examined using the Pearson product-moment correlational analysis. Before beginning any quantitative study or questionnaire analysis, the researcher must decide on the degree of measurement. The options for the levels of measurement include nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio. At the nominal level, the data are basic and illogical. If the information gathered was consistent and follows a logical sequence, the interval level can be selected. The data and standard discrepancies across variables do not contain any zero values. Last but not least, data are ordered and continuous with standard value discrepancies and a natural zero on the ratio data level (Punch, 2013). Data were compiled, verified to be accurate multiple times, and questionnaire completion was confirmed (response rate). The structure of the questionnaire was modified to create a new structure for the information that incorporated rates and percentage distribution. The dispersion of recurrence method was employed to support the response rate quantity. The sampling procedure was utilised to display the data collection percentages according to the categories that were chosen. These percentages were calculated to look at how the performance distribution affects employee motivation.

Ethical considerations

Avoiding biases, confidentiality, informed permission, the researcher's activity and capacity to conduct the study, and the researcher's presentation of the findings of the study are all ethical considerations (Du Plessis & Van Niekerk, 2017). The ethical principles of humanitarianism, independence, and freely given permission, confidentiality, and compassion for other persons must be taken into account (Harillal, 2012). By guaranteeing the respondents that the information they submitted and their identification would be kept private and being unknown, as specified in the questionnaire's opening paragraph, the researcher reassured them that the research would not harm them. Informed consent is a crucial ethical principle in research that involves obtaining permission from participants prior to their participation in the study. Du Plessis and Van Niekerk (2017) indicated that all respondents must provide their informed consent before participating in the study. By stating that respondents provided their informed consent, the researchers imply that the participants had been fully informed about the research project's objectives, procedures, risks, and benefits, and had given their voluntary and informed agreement to participate in the study. Informed consent in research involves providing participants with all the necessary information about the study, including its purpose, duration, potential risks and benefits, confidentiality, and their right to withdraw at any time. This information is usually presented in a written request, which participants must read, understand and sign before they can participate in the study. Providing informed consent ensures that participants are treated with respect and dignity, and that their autonomy and right to self-determination are respected. Added to this, it helps to minimize the potential harm that may arise from participating in the study and promotes ethical and responsible conduct of research. The researcher is prepared to move forward with data collection, analysis, and reporting since they have the necessary knowledge and expertise in the particular research approach, in this case, quantitative research. As stated in the questionnaire's introduction, the researcher ensured that all respondents' identities were protected when reporting the findings of the data gathered, mandating that no participant be identifiable after the research study (Du Plessis & Van Niekerk, 2017). As a result, the academic scholar is always aware that,

even while acting in "good faith," there is a potential that harm, whether psychological, social, or financial, may be caused while dealing with respondents. As a result of the injury inflicted, participants' self-esteem may be damaged, lawsuits may be filed, and employment may be lost (Harillal, 2012).

Delimitations and assumptions

The study is cross-sectional in nature and quantitative since it focussed on a group of data at one particular period regarding the research question. Data were gathered from three military facilities in Mahikeng and Zeerust, spanning several diverse position classifications as a result of these components' accessibility. Several military institutions supplied information through the use of a standard questionnaire. The study focused on the motivation for public service and perceptions of the fairness of the performance review procedure among SA Army forces personnel. The following are the presumptions:

The words "performance assessments" and "public motivation" and their meanings are well known to the South African Army study participants.

- All participants could complete the surveys because they were literate, and the completed forms would be put together.
- To help the research effort, military units released respondents to conduct questionnaires.
- The completion of the surveys were done with no hesitation on the part of the respondents.

Findings

The demographic variables of the study were presented using descriptive statistics. The findings of the demographic information of the respondents are presented below:

Gender, age and years of service

Figure 3 depicts the gender distribution of those who participated in the study. The male respondents of the study comprised 77.0 percent of the total, while female

respondents made up 23.0 percent. This indicates that men dominated the gender category.
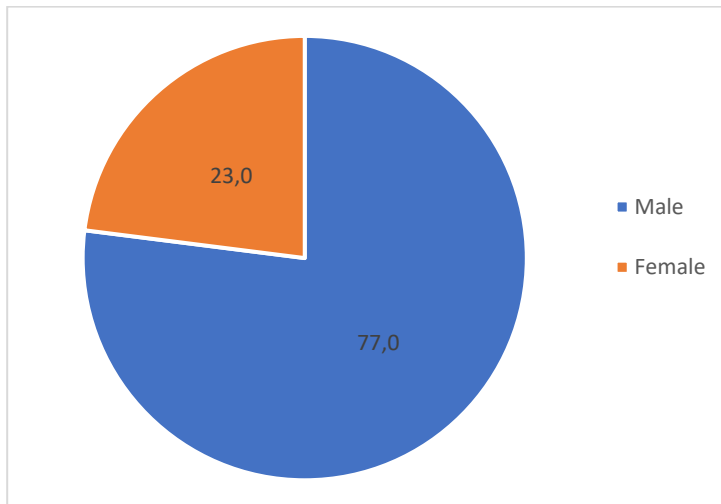
Figure 3: Gender

Figure 4 provides information on the age range of the respondents. The data shows that the largest group of respondents, 34%, fall within the 26 to 33 age group, indicating that the majority of the respondents are relatively young and likely to be at the beginning of their careers. The second largest group of respondents, 28%, fall within the 42 to 49 age group. This group of respondents is likely to be more experienced and may have progressed in their careers, as well as reached a more senior position within the organisation. There also are smaller groups of respondents in the other age ranges, such as the 33 to 41 age group (17.7%) and the 50 to 57 age group (13.9%). These last-mentioned groups of respondents may have a more moderate level of experience and a combination of perspectives from both the younger and older respondents. The smallest group of respondents, 2%, fall within the 58 to 65 age group. This group of respondents is likely to be closer to retirement and may have a wealth of experience and knowledge to bring to the organisation. In conclusion, the data suggests that the age range of the respondents is diverse, with a range from 26 to 65 years. This information can provide insights into the experiences and perspectives of the respondents and may have implications for the overall functioning of the organisation.
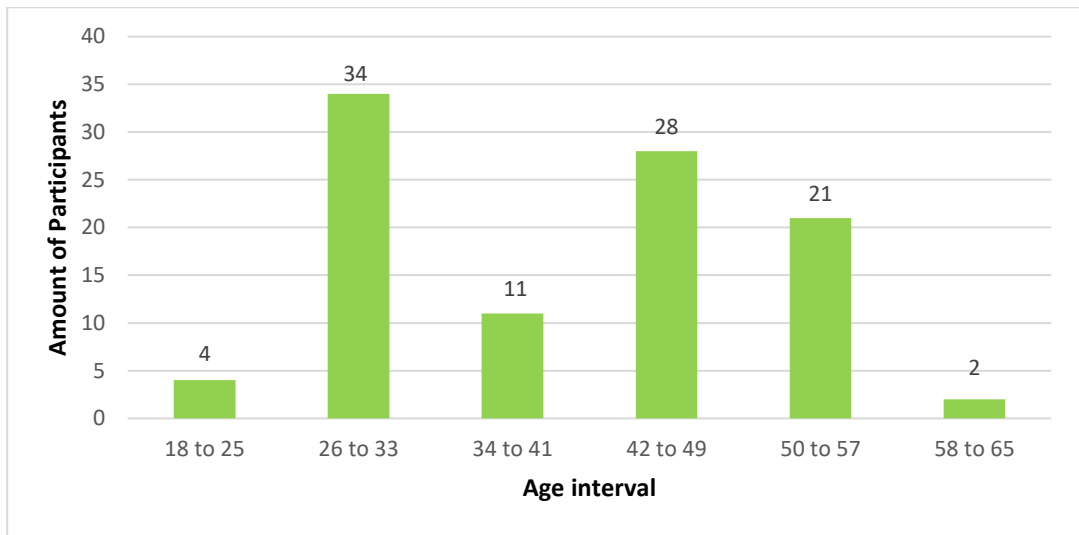
Figure 4: Age interval

Figure 5 below provides information on the length of service of the respondents within the Army. The data indicates that the largest group of respondents, 28.5%, have worked for the Army for 6 to 10 years. This group of respondents is relatively new to their careers in the Army, and their experiences and perspectives may be influenced by their relatively short tenure. The next largest group of respondents, 23%, have worked for the Army for 26 to 30 years. This group of respondents has a more extensive length of service, and their experiences and perspectives may be influenced by their longer tenure. There also is a smaller group of respondents who have worked for the Army for 11 to 15 years (19.2%) and those who have worked for the Army for 16 to 20 years (15.2%). These groups of respondents may have a more moderate length of service and a combination of experiences and perspectives from both the longer-serving and shorter-serving respondents. The smallest group of respondents, 1%, have worked for the Department of Defense for at least 40 years. This group of respondents has the longest length of service and may bring a wealth of experience and perspective to the organisation. In conclusion, the data suggests that the length of service of the respondents varies, with a range from 6 to 40 years. This information can provide insights into the perspectives and experiences of the respondents and may have implications for the overall functioning of the Army.
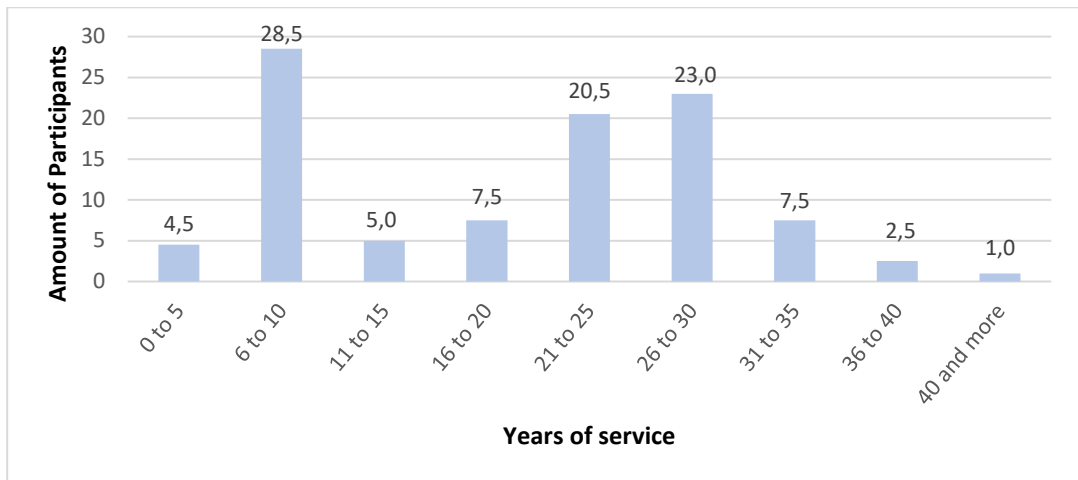
Figure 5: Years of service in the army

Figure 6 provides information on the highest educational qualification of the respondents. According to the data, the majority of respondents, 63.8%, held a National Certificate, also known as a matric certificate, as their highest qualification. This means that the majority of the respondents completed their highest level of education at secondary school level. 14.1% of the respondents held a Higher Certificate, indicating that they completed further education beyond secondary school, but did not attain a bachelor's degree. This group of respondents may have completed vocational or technical education programs. Only 1.5% of the respondents held a Master's degree, indicating that they completed advanced graduate-level education. This group of respondents is likely to have a higher level of knowledge and skill in their field of study. In conclusion, the data suggests that the majority of the respondents had limited educational attainment, with a large percentage having only completed secondary school education and a small percentage having completed advanced graduate-level education. This information can provide insights into the overall educational level of the respondents and may have implications for their job performance, earning potential, and other factors.
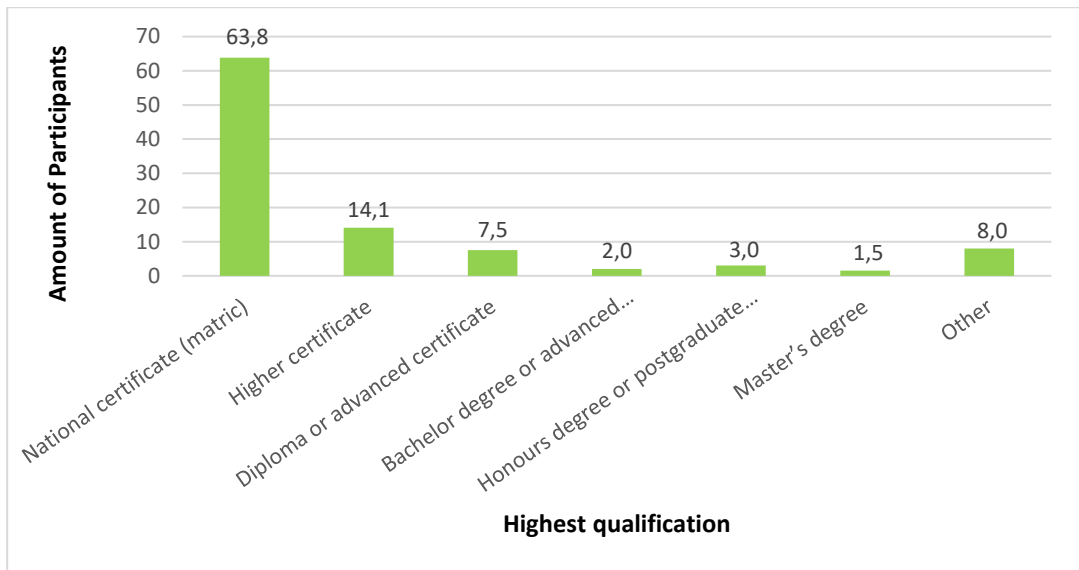
Figure 6: Highest qualification

Figure 7 revealed that distribution of responders among different rank/salary levels in an organisation. The data shows that the majority of responders, 45.5%, were at rank/salary level 4 (Private). This is followed by 29.0% at level 5 and only 1.0% at levels 7 (Lieutenant) and 8 (General/Captain). This information clearly demonstrates that the majority of the responders in this study were at the rank/salary level of Private. This dominance of the Private rank/salary level among the responders suggests that a large number of individuals at this particular rank/salary level participated in this current study. It is also worth noting that the percentage of individuals at higher rank/salary levels, such as Lieutenant and General/Captain, is much lower. This may indicate that there is a skewed representation of rank/salary levels among the responders and may limit the generalizability of the results to the wider population. It is important to consider these findings in the context of the research questions being addressed and the organisation being studied, as well as to consider the potential limitations and implications of the skewed representation of rank/salary levels among the responders.

Figure 7: Position (level)

Descriptive statistics

Tables 1 and 2 show the descriptive statistics of the employees' perceived fairness of the performance assessment.

Table 1: Descriptive data for the fairness measuring questions used in the achievement evaluation based on perception

Items	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Have you had the opportunity to express your thoughts and feelings during the implementation of the performance management system?	199	1	5	1,88	1,117
To what extent have you been able to influence the performance evaluation determined by the performance management system?	199	1	5	1,85	1,061
Has the system for managing performance been used consistently?	199	1	5	1,97	1,139
Has there been any bias in the performance management system?	199	1	5	1,91	1,102

Was the information used to build the performance management system accurate?	199	1	5	1,96	1,093
Have you had the ability to dispute the outcomes of the performance evaluation carried out by the performance management system?	199	1	5	1,73	1,085
Has the mechanism for measuring performance adhered to moral and ethical principles?	199	1	5	1,88	1,090
Is your performance evaluation a precise representation of the effort you have invested in your work?	199	1	5	2,11	1,228
Does your performance evaluation reflect the work you have performed accurately?	199	1	5	2,14	1,258
Has your performance appraisal adequately acknowledged your contributions to the army?	199	1	5	2,08	1,249
Does your performance evaluation reflect your actual performance?	199	1	5	2,04	1,245
Has he or she been courteous to you?	199	1	5	2,43	1,253
Has he/she demonstrated respect towards you?	199	1	5	2,54	1,274
Have you experienced any respect from him/her?	199	1	5	2,53	1,270
Has he/she refrained from saying anything upsetting?	199	1	5	2,40	1,298

Has he/she communicated with you in an honest and transparent manner?	199	1	5	2,30	1,226
Has he or she thoroughly explained the system for evaluating performance?	199	1	5	2,20	1,193
Were his or her defenses of the performance evaluation method plausible?	199	1	5	2,15	1188
Has he or she rapidly disclosed the specifics of the performance assessment system?	199	1	5	2,20	1,255
Has he or she seemed to modify their words to fit the particular needs of each individual?	199	1	5	2,10	1,073
Fairness scale for perceived performance assessments	199	1	5	2,16	0,904

Table 1 displays the answers in relation to the belief that fairness exists in performance ratings.Twenty claims were posed as questions for the responses. They have the following descriptive ranges to pick from: 1 denotes "not at all," 2 "barely," 3 "somewhat," 4 "significantly," and 5 "enormously". In order to aid in the comprehension of the findings, the subsequent interpretive scale was employed: Findings are indicated in Table 3, and they are as follows: 1,51–2,50 = insignificantly; 2,51–3,49 = moderately; 3,50–4,49 = significantly; and at least 4,5–5 = extremely. For instance, all the responses to the question as to whether you were able to express yourself throughout the PM system's implementation (mean = 1,88) were only lightly examined. Furthermore, the question The statement is reporting the mean scores obtained for five questions related to the performance management system. The first question asked if the respondents had any influence over the performance evaluation determined by the system and had a mean score of 1.85, which is relatively low and suggests that respondents felt that they had little influence over the system's outcomes. The second question inquired whether the

performance management system had been used consistently, and it had a mean score of 1.97, which indicates that respondents felt that the system had been used in a consistent manner. The third question aimed to investigate whether there was any bias in the performance management system, and it had a mean score of 1.91, which suggests that respondents believed that the system was relatively free from any prejudicial treatment. The fourth question asked whether the information used to develop the performance management system was accurate and had a mean score of 1.96, indicating that respondents believed that the information used to create the system was reliable. Finally, the fifth question examined whether respondents were able to contest the results of the performance management system, and it had the lowest mean score of 1.73, suggesting that respondents felt that they had limited ability to challenge the system's outcomes. Overall, the mean scores provide a general idea of how the respondents perceived the performance management system and its various components.The passage describes an evaluation of the distributive justice component of the performance management system. Four questions related to this component were posed, and their mean scores were reported: "Does your performance assessment accurately reflect the work you have put in?" (mean = 2.11), "Is your performance assessment accurate for the work you have already done?" (mean = 2.14), "Does your performance review adequately account for your contributions to the army?" (mean = 2.08), and "Is your performance assessment accurate in light of how you performed?" (mean = 2.04). The overall mean score for the distributive justice component was 2.09, which is significantly lower than the midpoint of the scale. This indicates that the participants did not feel that the performance management system accurately reflected their performance or contributions to the army.Questions 12 through to 15 looked at the aspect of interpersonal justice. Has he/she shown you respect? was scored at a moderate level (mean = 2.54), but has he or she been courteous to you? (mean = 2.43). Has he/she avoided making offensive remarks or comments? (mean = 2,40) was only minimally evaluated. The score for the interpersonal justice aspect was slightly below the middle of the scale, with a mean score of 2.47. The questions from 16 to 20 were used to assess the informational justice aspect, and all five issues received a low rating of "to a small extent". The mean scores were

2.20 for promptly sharing the details of the performance assessment system, 2.15 for the reasonableness of the justifications for the performance assessment system, and 2.10 for adapting messages to suit each individual's unique requirements. The mean score for the informational justice element was 2,19, which was significantly below the midpoint of the scale. The perceived performance assessment fairness scale had a mean score that was significantly below the scale's midpoint at 2,16 (SD = 0,904), indicating that respondents believed their performance assessment was unfair. All of the mean scores for the components and scale of performance assessment fairness are below the midpoint (mean = 2.50).

The descriptive statistics for the four organisational justice variables and scale, which pertain to employees' perceptions of fairness in performance assessments, have been compiled and are displayed in Table 1. These statistics summarize the relevant data and provide insights into how the employees perceive the fairness of performance assessments in the organisation. By examining these statistics, one can gain an understanding of the central tendencies, variability, and distribution of the data, which can then be used to draw conclusions regarding the fairness of the performance assessment system in the organisation. An increase in innovation, strengthened resolve, and a clearer organisational vision are all associated with members' assessments of good organisational justice, according to studies on SMEs (full form). However, a bad view of organisational fairness adds to avoidable errors, antagonism among members, and selfishness (Syamsul, Tjahjoho & Palupi, 2020).

Table 2: Performance evaluation fairness variables and scale descriptive statistics

Dimension and variables	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Procedural justice	199	1	5	1,89	,874
Distributive justice	199	1	5	2.,9	1,142

Interpersonal justice	199	1	5	2,47	1,188
Informational justice	199	1	5	2,19	1,015
Fairness scale for observed achievement assessments	199	1	5	2,16	0,904

Table 2 above provides four scales mentioned in the data that refer to different aspects of justice in the workplace. These include:

- Procedural justice: This refers to the perceived fairness of the procedures and processes used to make decisions that affect individuals or groups. A score of 0.874 indicates that the participants in this study rated the level of procedural justice as being high, but not at the highest level.

- Distributive justice: This refers to the perceived fairness of the outcomes of decisions, such as the distribution of rewards and resources. A score of 1.142 suggests that the participants rated the level of distributive justice as being very high, indicating that they believed the outcomes of decisions were fair and impartial.

- Interpersonal justice: This refers to the perceived fairness of the treatment individuals receive from others during the decision-making process. A score of 1.188 suggests that the participants rated the level of interpersonal justice as being very high, indicating that they felt they were treated fairly and respectfully by others during the decision-making process.

- Informational justice: This refers to the perceived fairness of the information used to make decisions and the transparency of the decision-making process. A score of 1.015 suggests that the participants rated the level of informational justice as being high, but not at the highest level, indicating that they felt the information used to make decisions was largely fair, but that there may have been some concerns regarding the transparency of the process.

Finally, the overall Fairness scale for perceived performance assessments stands at 0.904, which is a composite score that takes into account the scores on all four justice scales. A score of 0.904 suggests that the participants rated the overall level of fairness in the performance assessment process as being high, but not at the highest level.

In general, these results suggest that the participants felt that the performance assessment process was largely fair and impartial, but there may have been some concerns with specific aspects of the process such as the transparency of the decision-making process or the perceived fairness of the information used to make decisions.

The descriptive statistics used to characterize employee motivation and performance for statutory obligation

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics for the items related to public service motivation, as well as the four factors and scale connected to it.

Table 3: Detailed statistics for the items used to assess motivation for public service

Items	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
I have admiration for people who initiate or take part in projects that help my neighborhood.	199	1	5	3,71	1,300
It is essential to support programs that deal with social problems.	199	1	5	3,81	1,256
I place a high value on meaningful public service.	199	1	5	3,93	1,248

I feel strongly about making a contribution to society.	199	1	5	3,95	1,205
Equal possibilities for all people, in my opinion, are crucial.	199	1	5	4,11	1,213
It is crucial that citizens feel confident in the ongoing delivery of public services.	199	1	5	3,87	1,299
It is essential that consideration be given to the needs of future generations when formulating governmental policies.	199	1	5	3,91	1,294
Public employees must always act morally.	199	1	5	3,89	1249
I have compassion for those who are less fortunate.	199	1	5	3,90	1,266
I have sympathy for everyone going through a terrible time.	199	1	5	3,97	1204
When I witness other individuals being treated unfairly, I am quite outraged.	199	1	5	4,11	1,241
It's crucial to take other people's needs into account.	199	1	5	4,11	1,199

I'm willing to give up things for the sake of society.	199	1	5	4,07	1,153
I think it's important to put others before yourself.	199	1	5	3,94	1,179
To benefit society, I'm willing to take a personal loss.	199	1	5	3,92	1,228
Even if it costs me, I'd support a good strategy to improve the lives of the poor.	199	1	5	4,10	1,126
Scale of public service motivation	199	1	5	3,96	1,000

Table 3 presents employee responses to questions related to public service motivation, along with the mean scores for the PSM scale and its various aspects. The survey consisted of sixteen statements, and participants were asked to select one of five descriptor ranges ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). To aid in the interpretation of the results, an interpretive scale was developed with a range of values from 1 to 5, where 1-1.50 represents a strong disagreement, 1.51-2.50 indicates disagreement, 2.51-3.49 represents a lack of agreement, 3.50-4.49 signifies agreement, and 4.50-5 represents a strong agreement. The mean scores for all sixteen statements in Table 5 fell between 3.50 and 4.49, indicating agreement among respondents for all criteria listed. This information can assist in understanding the level of public service motivation among employees in the organisation. I respect those who start or participate in initiatives that benefit my community (mean = 3,71), Contributing to initiatives that address social issues is crucial (3,81), I place high value on meaningful public service. (mean = 3,93), and I'm passionate about giving back to society. The four questions with a mean of 3,95 were used to evaluate the factor attracting public engagement.

The element that sought public participation obtained a mean score of 3.85 (agree with category) (see table 3).

The commitment to public values component was assessed based on four questions. The questions evaluated the belief that citizens should have equal opportunities (mean = 4.11), that the delivery of public services should be consistent (mean = 3.87), that public policies should consider the interests of future generations (mean = 3.91), and that public employees should behave ethically (mean = 3.89). The commitment to public values component's average score was 3,95, which was much higher than the scale's midpoint (see table 6). Person-organisational fit is determined by the support of the organisation's leaders, which means that employees must work in a supportive environment, as well as the manner in which these leaders treat their employees. As previously said, transformational leadership can aid in the discovery of a match between the individual and the organisation (Chen, et al., 2016).

The following four questions were used to evaluate the compassion component. I empathize with other people who are having a hard time (mean = 3,97), I understand the situation of the impoverished, and The compassion component scored the highest mean value of 4.02, which indicates that respondents had a strong sense of compassion. This was evident from their responses to two questions, one of which measured their level of anger towards unfair treatment of others (mean = 4.11), while the other assessed the importance they placed on considering other people's needs (mean = 4.11). Four questions were posed to evaluate the self-sacrifice component. One of these questions measured the willingness of respondents to give up personal possessions for the betterment of society, which obtained a mean score of 4.07. I think it's important to put others before yourself (mean: 3,94), To benefit society, I'm willing to take a personal loss. (mean: 3,92), and even if it costs me, I'd support a good strategy to improve the lives of the poor (mean: 4,10). The mean score of the overall Scale of Public Service Motivation was 3.96, falling within the "agree" category, and had a standard deviation of 1.000. On the other hand, the self-sacrifice component had a mean score of 4.01, also falling within the "agree" category.

Table 4: Descriptive statistics of the public service motivation factors and scale

Dimension and variables	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Attraction to public involvement	199	1	5	3,85	1,123
Adherence to societal ideals	199	1	5	3,95	1,131
Courtesy	199	1	5	4,02	1,100
Selflessness	199	1	5	4,01	1,070
Scale of citizen service motivation	199	1	5	3,96	1,000

It is evident from table 4 above that the data refers to four dimensions of public service motivation (PSM), which is the concept of being motivated to work for the public good and contributing to the well-being of society. The four dimensions and their scores are as follows:

- Attraction to public participation: This refers to an individual's interest and willingness to become involved in activities and initiatives aimed at serving the public good. A score of 1.123 suggests that the participants in this study rated their attraction to public participation as being very high.

- Commitment to public values: This refers to an individual's strong belief in the importance of serving the public good and contributing to the well-being of society. A score of 1.131 suggests that the participants rated their commitment to public values as being very high.

- Compassion: This refers to an individual's emotional concern for the well-being of others and a desire to help those in need. A score of 1.100 suggests

that the participants rated their level of compassion as being high, but not at the highest level.

- Self-sacrifice: This refers to an individual's willingness to put the needs of others before their own and make personal sacrifices for the greater good. A score of 1.070 suggests that the participants rated their level of self-sacrifice as being high, but not at the highest level.

Finally, the overall Scale of public service motivation stands at 1.000, which is a composite score that takes into account the scores on all four PSM dimensions. A score of 1.000 suggests that the participants rated their overall level of public service motivation as being very high, indicating a strong desire to serve the public good and contribute to the well-being of society. In general, these results suggest that the participants in this study had a strong desire to become involved in public service activities, a strong commitment to public values, and a high level of compassion and self-sacrifice. These are important traits for individuals who work in public service, as they are motivated to contribute to the greater good and make a positive impact on society.

Differences between males and females, age groups, and ranks in the mean perceived performance assessment fairness and public service motivation scores

The study employed two statistical tests to compare the perceived fairness of performance assessments, public service motivation, and staff demographics. An independent-samples t-test was used to analyze whether any significant differences occurred in the mean scores of perceived performance assessment fairness and public service motivation between male and female employees. Meanwhile, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to compare mean scores for public service motivation and perceived fairness of performance assessments across different age groups and levels of employees. The independent-samples t-test was used to determine whether gender played a significant role in the employees' perception of fairness in performance assessments and public service motivation. On the other hand, ANOVAs were used to examine any differences in

public service motivation and perceived fairness of performance assessments among employees of different age groups and levels.

Table 5: Fairness scale for perceived success assessments gender statistical data

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Scale of perceived fairness for job evaluations	Male	158	2,14	0,911	0,072

Table 5 above, the Fairness scale for perceived performance assessments, measures an individuals' perceptions of fairness in performance assessments. The results reported in this data refer to the scores of 158 male participants and 41 female participants. For the male participants, the mean score was 2.14, which represents the average score among all participants. The standard deviation of 0.911 is a measure of the spread of the scores, indicating the extent to which the scores varied from the mean. The smaller the standard deviation, the more similar the scores are to one another and to the mean. The standard error mean of 0.072 is an estimate of the standard deviation of the mean score. This value provides information about the reliability of the mean score and helps to determine the level of confidence we can have in the mean as an accurate representation of the population. For the female participants, the mean score was 2.22, which is slightly higher than the mean score for the male participants. The standard deviation of 0.883 is similar to the standard deviation for the male participants, indicating that the scores for the female participants are similarly spread around the mean. The standard error mean of 0.138 is also similar to the standard error mean for the male participants, suggesting that the female mean score is just as reliable as the male mean score.

In general, these results suggest that the Fairness scale for perceived performance assessment scores was relatively similar for both male and female participants, with both groups rating the fairness of performance assessments as moderately high. However, there was a slightly higher mean score for the female participants, indicating that they may have rated the fairness of performance assessments as

being slightly higher than that of the male participants. It is important to bear in mind that these results may not necessarily be representative of the entire population and further analysis is needed to determine whether these differences are significant.

Table 6: Independent-samples t-test to evaluate the gender difference in fairness perceptions of performance evaluation

	Proof of Levene's Equality of Variances		Equity of Means Test (t-test)					The difference is within a 95% confidence interval.	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Scale of perceived fairness for job evaluations — Assumptions of equal deviations	,039	,844	-.486	197	,627	-,077	,159	-,390	,236
Similar variations are not presumed			-,495	63,890	,622	-,077	,156	-,388	,234

Therefore from table 6 above it is evident that the Fairness scale for perceived performance assessments is a measure of an individual's perception of fairness in performance assessments. The 95% confidence Interval of the difference is a measure of the range of possible differences as in this case, participants of the male and female sexes, there was a difference between the mean scores of two categories. The confidence Interval of the difference assumes equal variances between the two groups and provides a range of possible differences with a 95% level of confidence. In this case, the lower bound of the confidence Interval is -0.390 and the upper bound is -0.236. This means that with 95% confidence, the difference

between the mean scores of male and female participants is estimated to be between -0.390 and -0.236.

The confidence Interval of the difference can also be calculated without assuming equal variances. In this case, the lower bound of the confidence Interval is -0.388 and the upper bound is -0.234. This means that the difference between the mean scores of male and female participants is estimated to be between -0.388 and -0.234, with 95% confidence. In conclusion, the confidence Interval provides a range of possible differences between the mean scores of male and female participants, with 95% confidence. The results suggest that the mean score of female participants was slightly higher than the mean score of male participants, although the difference was small. Further analysis would be necessary to determine whether this difference is significant and to understand the factors that may contribute to the difference.

The study aimed to investigate whether there was a difference in the perceived fairness of performance assessments between male and female employees. An independent-samples t-test was used to compare the mean scores of the two groups. The mean score for males was 2.14, with a standard deviation of 0.911, while the mean score for females was 2.22, with a standard deviation of 0.863. The t-test revealed that the difference between the mean scores of the two groups was not statistically significant ($t(197) = -0.486$, $p = 0.63$, two-tailed), indicating that there was no significant difference in the perceived fairness of performance assessments between male and female employees.

Table 7: The scale of public duty motivation by gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Motivation degree for serving the people	Male	158	3,91	1,028	,082
	Female	41	4,15	,868	,136

In table 7, the Fairness scale for perceived performance assessments measures an individual's perception of fairness in performance assessments. The mean score is calculated by summing the scores of all participants and dividing by the number of

participants. The standard deviation measures the amount of variation or dispersion in the scores, while the standard error mean is an estimate of the error in the mean score. According to the data provided, the mean score for the 158 male participants was 391, with a standard deviation of 1,028 and a standard error mean of 0.82. This suggests that the male participants had an average perception of fairness in performance assessments of 391, and the scores were dispersed, with a standard deviation of 1,028. The standard error mean of 0.82 indicates that the estimate of the mean score had a potential error of 0.82. For the 41 female participants, the mean score was 4.15, with a standard deviation of 0.868 and a standard error mean of 136. This suggests that the female participants had an average perception of fairness in performance assessments of 4.15, with a smaller amount of dispersion compared to the male participants, as indicated by the lower standard deviation of 0.868. The standard error mean of 136 indicates that the estimate of the mean score had a potential error of 136.

In conclusion, the data suggests that both male and female participants had similar perceptions of fairness in performance assessments, with female participants having a slightly higher mean score. However, the difference in the mean scores and the potential error in the estimates should be considered when interpreting these results. Further analysis would be necessary to determine whether the difference in mean scores is statistically significant and to understand the factors that may contribute to this difference.

Table 8: An independent-samples t-test was conducted to assess the gender differences in public service motivation

		Proof of Levene's Equality of Variances		Equity of Means Test (t-test)						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	The difference is within a 95% confidence interval.	
									Lower	Upper
Scale of public service motivation	Assumptions of equal deviations	2,116	,147	-1,382	197	,169	-,242	,175	-,586	,103
	Similar variations are not presumed			-1,525	71,932	,132	-,242	,158	-.557	,074

An independent-samples t-test was performed to compare the motivation for public service among men and women. Males and females scored similarly (3,91, SD = 1,028; t (197) = 1,382, p =,17, two-tailed; M = 4,15, SD,868; p =,17, two-tailed). An independent-samples t-test is a statistical method used to compare the means of two groups on a particular variable of interest. In this case, the variable of interest is the motivation for public service (see table 8). The study compared the motivation for public service among men and women. The results of the t-test showed that males and females scored similarly, with a mean score of 3.91 and a standard deviation of 1.028. The t-value for the test was 1.382, which indicates that the difference in means between the two groups was not statistically significant. The p value for the t-test was 0.17, which is higher than the conventional level of significance (0.05) used in statistical hypothesis testing. This means that there is no significant difference in motivation for public service between men and women. The study also reported the mean score for males and females separately. The mean score for males was 4.15 with a standard deviation of 0.868, while the mean

score for females was 3.91 with a standard deviation of 1.028. This information provides further context for the results of the t-test, indicating that there was no significant difference in motivation for public service between the two groups, despite a slightly higher mean score for males. Overall, this study suggests that there is no significant difference in motivation for public service between men and women, based on the sample of 197 individuals that were tested.

Table 9: ANOVA was used to examine the variation in the mean fairness ratings of performance assessments across the four age categories

	Perceived justice scale for performance evaluations				
	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	2,879	3	,960	1,178	,319
Within Groups	158,841	195	,815		
Total	161,720	198			

To investigate the impact of age groups on perceptions of performance assessment fairness, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted (see table 9). Because of a limited number of participants (only 8), the age groups of 18 to 25 and 26 to 33, as well as 50 to 57 and 58 to 65, were combined. As a result, the participants were categorized into four age groups: Group 1 (18-33 years old), Group 2 (34–31 years old), Group 3 (42–49 years old), and Group 4 (50–65 years old). The results of the analysis showed that the perceived fairness scores for performance assessment were not statistically significant at the $p > 0.05$ level for the four age groups ($F (3, 195) = 1.18$, $p = 0.32$). This suggests that age groups do not have a significant impact on perceptions of performance assessment fairness.

Table 10: Average public service motivation ratings across the four age groups are compared using an ANOVA

Perceived justice scale for performance evaluations				
	Sum of Squares	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Between Groups	2,280	2	1,140	1,143	,321
Within Groups	195,569	196	,998		
Total	197,849	198			

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was used to examine the effect of age categories on public service motivation. Owing to the variable the makeup of the overall rankings, the levels/rankings were divided, the following (i) commissioned officers, (ii) non-commissioned officers, and (iii) privates make up the three subcategories. $F (2, 196) = 1,14$, $p = 0,32$. At the $p > ,05$ level, no statistically significant variation was present in the three rank groups' public service motivation scores. In the public sector, including the military, performance reviews are utilized as one of the tools to increase employee engagement. PSM, or the internal urge to help others while keeping a common goal in mind, is regarded as an autonomous source of motivation.

The public sector employees exhibit this desire. Findings were highlighted by Gracia (2017) that public service motivation has been linked to both transformational leadership and self-determination because of its ability to enable individuals to be innovative, possess a vision for the future, engage in the decision-making process, and promote public ideals in a self-sufficient manner. This means that individuals who are strongly public service motivated are more likely to exhibit qualities of a transformational leader by inspiring and motivating others towards achieving shared goals, while also being self-determined and self-directed in their efforts to advance public interests. By empowering individuals to take ownership of their work and making meaningful contributions towards societal progress, public

service motivation can contribute to the development of a more efficient and effective public sector.

Relationship between perceived fairness of the performance assessment and public service motivation

Using Pearson product-moment correlation, it was determined what kind of connection existed between employees' sense of fairness in performance assessments and their motivation to serve the public. The results are depicted in Table 11. According to the authors, employees are motivated by higher-level goals because they need more work to achieve, which makes them feel satisfied, content, and confident (Teo & Low, 2016).

Table 11: Analysis of Pearson product-moment correlation

		Proof of Levene's Equality of Variances	Equity of Means Test (t-test)
Assumptions of equal deviations **Assumptions of equal deviations**	Pearson Correlation	1	,228[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,001
	N	199	199
Similar variations are not presumed	Pearson Correlation	,228[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)		
	,001	199	199

**. At the 0,01 threshold, correlation is significant (2-tailed).

A study examined the association between public service motivation and perceived performance assessment as an independent variable, using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient as a dependent variable. Results showed a slightly positive correlation (r,29, n = 199, p,0005) between the two variables. Surprisingly, the perception of performance reviews being unfair did not significantly affect

employees' motivation levels for public service. Despite perceiving low fairness in performance reviews, employees still demonstrated high levels of desire for public service.

Exploring the Descriptive Statistics

Fairness of job evaluations as seen by employees

The first research question of the study, employee views of fairness in performance assessments, was divided into four categories of organisational justice, as indicated in Table 11: procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. Respondents asserted that during the operation of the PM system, they were unable to express their thoughts and emotions in terms of procedural justice (questions 1-7).They also had no influence with regard to the decision made by the PM system. Furthermore, they asserted that the performance assessment method had been used arbitrarily and was loaded with bias. Added to this, many felt that they were unable to challenge the assessment and that there was no solid data on which to base the performance evaluation method. Finally, they did not think the performance review process complies with moral and ethical standards. The mean score for employees' perceptions of procedural justice (1.89) was found to be below the midpoint of 2.50. This suggests that respondents were dissatisfied with how procedural justice is implemented in the performance assessment system of the SA Army. .Procedures that are exact, uniform, and free of bias are instances of procedural fairness, which result from following rules and regulations established by the organisation's policies and laws (Dusterhoff, Cunningham & MacGregor, 2014). Rowland and Hall (2012) argue that ignoring perceptions of fairness in performance assessment can harm the organisation. Employees who perceive that the performance assessment system is unfair may become disengaged or may feel demotivated. This can lead to decreased job satisfaction, lower productivity, and a higher turnover rate. On the other hand, Govender, Grobler and Joubert (2015) suggest that involving employees in the development of the performance assessment system is crucial for ensuring its fairness. When employees have a say in how the system is designed and

implemented, they are more likely to perceive it as just and equitable. This can help foster trust between employees and management, as well as a sense of ownership in the process as it evolves over time. By actively participating in the development and implementation of the performance assessment system, employees are more likely to view it as a tool for their own growth and development, rather than as a means of control or punishment. Overall, ensuring that employees' views of fairness are taken into account and giving them a voice in the development of the performance assessment system can contribute to a more motivated, engaged, and productive workforce. According to Rowland et al. (2012) there are seven key components that need to be present for employee perceptions of procedural fairness to increase. These components include giving employees adequate consideration for their opinions, maintaining consistency in the criteria used to make decisions, providing feedback after decisions are made, requiring decision-making to be justified, and communicating honestly and truthfully with employees (Rowland et al., 2012). The respondents expressed discontent with their performance assessments as they felt that their hard work was not adequately reflected, and that the assessments were unsuitable for the work they had performed. They felt that their contributions were not accurately reflected and that the assessments did not justify their performance, as evidenced by the overall mean score of 2.09, which was below the midpoint of 2.50 for distributive justice (questions 8-11). Dusterhoff et al. (2014) claim that distributive justice, which pertains to the fairness of rewards based on performance outcomes, must be consistent and equitable. It is a critical factor in assessment responses. According to Rahman, Shahzad and Khan (2016) employees use social comparisons to assess the fairness of the rewards they obtain by comparing their efforts to those of others in a similar situation. When the awarding of prizes is perceived as fair, employees feel valued, accepted, and appreciated by the organisation (Rahman et al., 2016). The SA Army soldiers were unhappy with the way in which performance evaluations applied distributive justice, as seen by the mean distributive justice scores, which varied from 2,04 to 2,14. Also, according to the findings of this study, the mean score for interpersonal justice (items 12–15) was 2,47, which is below the midpoint (2,50). According to these findings, respondents felt their immediate supervisors

never treated them with respect and decency when composing performance reviews. Although the mean score of 2.54 was above the midpoint of the scale, a significant number of respondents felt that they were not treated with respect by their superiors. Respondents reported that their supervisors did not exercise restraint while making inappropriate comments or remarks. The mean score of 2.47 for the interpersonal justice component indicated that respondents were dissatisfied with the way they were treated by their superiors. Omboi (2011) suggests that supervisors should treat employees with sensitivity and display empathy and remorse when dealing with subordinates' performance assessment results to create perceptions of fairness. Interpersonal justice focuses on the fair treatment of employees during performance assessments. The study findings revealed that the communication of performance appraisals was unsatisfactory in terms of informational fairness.The participants thought that the explanations for performance assessments were illogical, that they were not given in a timely manner, and that they were not tailored to the needs of each individual. The respondents also felt that their supervisors lacked transparency and were not forthright in their communications. Employee perceptions of information justice during performance reviews were that it was unfair, according to the mean ratings for this aspect of organisational justice, which varied from 2,15 to 2,30. According to Srivastava (2015) workers need to be provided with truthful and fair information that explains the reasons for using specific procedures, the way in which they are applied, and why the results are disseminated in a certain manner. When workers are kept informed about organisational challenges, they perceive the process as fair. The findings for the informational justice component (questions 16-20) indicate that members of the SA Army are dissatisfied with how they receive information about their performance assessments, with a mean score of 2.19 below the midpoint. The fit between individuals and the organisation is influenced by the support of the organisation's leaders and the way in which they treat employees. As previously stated, transformational leadership can assist in finding a match between the individual and the organisation (Chen et al., 2016). In the overall findings it became evident that employees believe that performance reviews are unfair from the perspective of organisational justice because reviews' mean

ranking, 2,16, is below the median (2,50). These results from the SA Army's performance assessments may be a sign that managers are not motivating their staff members to work well by empowering them, developing them, and inspiring them, or by including them sufficiently in the process. In a related study, managers and employees both expressed unhappiness with performance reviews and their results. Concerns about performance assessments in their study included feelings of unfairness, mistrust, and misunderstanding. These managers and employees thought performance evaluations were a waste of time and ignored them. Employees' perceptions of justice need to be shaped by their supervisors, according to Rowland et al. (2012), who address the significance of performance assessments and how they began to grow in organisations. If this is not done, employees will not be able to feel completely happy with the achievement of organisational goals.

The degrees of public service motivation that employees observe

As illustrated in Tables 3 and 4, the four components made up of four main factors that best describe workers' motivation for public service (research question 2) are their interest in civic engagement, dedication to civic values, compassion, and selflessness. .The range of the items' average ratings for this dimension's appeal to public engagement was 3,71 to 3,95. According to the respondents, they value those who establish or take part in initiatives to better their societies, believe it is critical to make a contribution towards efforts in addressing societal issues, place a high value on meaningful volunteer work, and believe that doing so advances society as a whole. The SA Army was particularly committed to this dimension, as evidenced by the aggregate mean score of 3,85 for the dimension of attraction to public participation, which was at the top of the scale. The findings were endorsed by Kim and Vandenabeele (2010) who argued that the desire to satisfy one's personal wants while also meeting the demands of the public drives public involvement. As a result, a person's sense of significance and fulfillment is greatly influenced by the public involvement appeal.

In terms of dedication to public ideals, respondents agreed that outcomes' interests must be taken into account when creating public policies and that public employees must act ethically. They also believed that citizens could rely on them to deliver continuous public services. The mean results for the tests range from 3,87 to 4,11. The average score for this dimension was 3,95, which is much higher than the midpoint of 2,50. The results show that South African Army personnel are dedicated to and uphold public principles (ethics, truthfulness, rule of law, and humility). The fact that they have maintained their commitment to public values after initially volunteering to serve their country shows a connection between their dedication to societal beliefs and their attractiveness to public participation. The results of the third factor displayed a strong level of compassion, characterized by a high degree of sympathy for the disadvantaged and the ability to empathize with them, contributing to employees' commitment to public values and their interest in participating in public service. Also, respondents said that they are angered when they witness other people being treated unfairly and that other people's wellbeing is very important to them. The components of the compassion dimension ranged in value from 3,90 to 4,11, but the SA Army's soldiers scored on average 4,02, which is close to the top of the scale and suggests that their level of compassion was high. In keeping with their mandate and the military's core mission, public servants who care about the general public feel affection and concern for them as well as a desire to protect them, according to Kim and Vandenabeele (2010). In terms of the fourth dimension, self-sacrifice, SA Army members believe in putting duty as a citizen ahead of self-interest, are willing to take risks that could result in personal loss to benefit society, and are motivated by self-sacrifice to serve in the army. Also, even though it would cost them personally, they agreed on a sound plan to better the lives of the poor. The results of this study demonstrate that South African Army men are willing to risk their lives for the greater good. The mean scores for the self-sacrifice components range from 3,92 to 4,10, with a mean score of 4,01, with overall sacrifice being the strongest on the scale. Members of the SA Army are thus still motivated to serve the people despite their impressions of the injustice of the performance assessment system since they do not anticipate receiving anything in

return for their sacrifices. According to Vandenabeele et al. (2010) people who can be associated with self-sacrifice put the needs of the public above their own desires.

Based on gender, age, and position, differences in the mean ratings of perceived fairness in performance evaluation and public service motivation among various groups

The results of the study indicated that no significant differences in mean scores were found among gender, age group, and rank, neither in perceptions of fairness in performance assessment and motivation for public service. No statistically different ratings for perceived performance were found between males (2,14, SD =,911) and females (2,22, SD,863; t (197) = -,486, p =,63. two-tailed). In terms of public service motivation, there was no statistically significant difference between males (3,91, SD = 1,208) and females (M = 4,15, SD =,868; t (197) = 1,382, p=,17, two-tailed). F (3, 195) = 1,18, p = 0,32; the perceived performance assessment fairness scores between the four age groups were not statistically significant at the p >,05 level. At the p >.05 level, there was no statistically significant difference in public service motivation scores of the three rank groups: F (2, 196) = 1,14, p = 0,32. The perceived assessment fairness and public service motivation scores of the respondents were thus unaffected by gender, age groups, or ranks. However, in other studies, the mean scores did differ depending on age and gender. Public service motivation is favourably correlated with age and gender, claim Giauque, Ritz, Varonee, and Anderfurhern-Biget (2010), citing various scientific research studies. The authors contend that as people age, their desire to serve others increases. Because of the roles they perform in their families, men may be more compassionate than women and more committed to the public good. They may also be more attractive to policy and legislation (Giauque et al., 2010).

Motivation in the public sector and how workers view their performance reviews are related

To ascertain the nature of the connection between employees' perceptions of the fairness of performance evaluations (an independent variable) and their motivation

for public service, the Pearson product-moment correlation was used (dependent variable). The results revealed a weak significant association (r,29, n = 199, and p,0005) between the two variables. The workers' motivation for public service was unaffected by the low perceived fairness of performance reviews. Staff members were extremely motivated to help the public, even if there was little perceived fairness in performance reviews. The results are remarkably different from those of prior investigations. All research, according to Dusterhoff et al. (2014) concur that one of the crucial human resource management tools for employee motivation and development is the performance review process. In earlier studies, Syamsir (2016) and Celik (2014) found a connection between motivation for public service and fairness in performance assessments. Jensen (2016) found that because it takes into account other people's well-being and productivity of the employees, which reflects their levels of motivation, public service motivation increases performance. Hence establishing a strong connection between perceived fairness of performance assessment and public service motivation is crucial because in the public sector, staff members find a sense of purpose in achieving organisational goals through motivation, which contributes to public service performance (Karic, 2014; Jensen, 2016).

Recommendations

- The following recommendations have been made to improve the South African Army's commitment to public service and the justice of performance evaluation based on the research and discussion. According to the findings of this study employees' opinions of organisational justice and fairness in performance reviews were lower than the midpoint of 2,50. This demonstrates that the performance reports are unfair in the respondents' eyes. Supervisors are urged to adopt a different mentality and recognise and respect the fact that employees' public service motivation levels are still strong even when they believe their performance assessments are fair. This argues that in order to support these workers, organisational justice must be implemented, which includes fair procedures, appropriate incentive distribution, and treating workers with respect and dignity.

- According to the study employees' stated levels of public service motivation were found to be exceptionally high, exceeding the midpoint of 2,50. Because this aspect is commonly ignored and taken for granted, it is vital for managers to undergo training on what constitutes public service motivation. Subordinates need to be taught how to assess their motivation for public service in order to determine whether or not they are disadvantaged.

- With regard to rank, gender, or age, this study did not find any significant differences in the mean score. All respondents had the same perspective on performance assessments and the motivations for public service. The academic study leader believes that these people have just embraced an untruthful procedure over time and have not made any efforts to change the circumstances at their level. Members of the SA Army who believe they have been mistreated should file a grievance through the department's process.

- In this study, performance reviews and public service motivation showed a small but positive association, indicating that there may be a relationship between these factors that should be enhanced through the application and accurate interpretation of the regulations that control these variables. It is suggested that SA Army soldiers make the most of performance reports' fairness to improve their motivation for public duty. In addition to frequent rehearsals on these issues, members may be trained in evaluations of performance and the inspiration for public duty through continuous role-playing, lectures, and seminars.

Conclusion

This research examined how members of the South African Army felt about transparency of job evaluations and how it affected their encouragement for citizen service levels at three (3) military bases in the North West Province. Valid and accurate questionnaires were used to examine the perceived fairness of performance assessments and levels of public service motivation. The perceived performance assessment fairness scale has a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0,96, whereas the Scale of public service motivation has a Cronbach's alpha coefficient

of 0,97. As a result, both scales were found to be outstanding and consistent. The goals were to analyse how fair the SA Army's performance assessments were and how motivated they were to serve in the public sector. Added to this, the study aimed to investigate whether disparities exist in the mean perceived performance assessment fairness and public service motivation scores based on gender, age group, or rank, as well as to determine the association between perceived performance assessment fairness (as the independent variable) and public service motivation (as the dependent variable). In the twentieth century, the inefficiency of the public sector was questioned by various stakeholders, and it was most often under severe scrutiny because there was a constant need to measure the performance of these institusions and their service delivery. However, the public service role is constrained within the scope of PM, and there is no solid evidence of its execution because it is not adequately documented (Tirivanhu, Olaleye & Bester, 2017).

In this study the researchers assessed the perceived fairness of performance assessments by using the construct of organisational justice. The construct consisted of four dimensions or factors, namely procedural justice, distributive justice, interpersonal justice, and informational justice. The researchers found that the mean scores for each of these factors were low, indicating that members of the SA Army were dissatisfied with how supervisors used fairness in performance assessment. The overall mean score for perceived fairness of performance assessment was also low, suggesting that members of the SA Army considered the performance assessment process unjust. To evaluate the levels of public service motivation among members of the SA Army, the researchers used the Scale of public service motivation, which has four factors: attraction to public engagement, commitment to public values, compassion, and self-sacrifice. The findings showed that members of the SA Army had a strong desire to participate in public life, a strong commitment to public principles, compassion, and self-sacrifice. The average score of 3,96 on the Scale of public service motivation indicated that members of the SA Army were highly motivated to serve their country. Overall, these findings suggest that the perceived fairness of performance assessments and public service motivation are both important factors in ensuring the effectiveness of public

service organisations such as the SA Army. The study aimed to explore the relationship between perceived fairness in performance assessments and public service motivation. The findings suggest a slight positive correlation between the two factors, indicating that employees who perceive performance assessment fairness to be high are more likely to exhibit high levels of public service motivation. However, it was also discovered that the low perceived performance assessment fairness level among SA Army soldiers had little effect on their public service motivation levels. This suggests that even if the perceived fairness of performance assessments is low, employees may still exhibit high levels of public service motivation.

CHAPTER 7:

"EFFECTIVE" EMPLOYEE ONBOARDING A NEW PRACTICAL MODEL FOR ORGANIZATIONS

Barsoum, M,

MBA, MSc. PhD Fellow; Monarch Business School Switzerland; Professor of Marketing & Business Strategy; MBA & Bachelor Program Director

Abstract

Employee onboarding has become a mainstream practice in most organizations (Laurano, 2015). Successful onboarding has been positively correlated with improved employee performance, enhanced engagement, increased satisfaction, and reduced turnover and attrition rates (Meyer & Bartels, 2017). Onboarding programs need to be focused on facilitating the process of acquiring the technical and social skills necessary for new hires to become "insiders" and impactful contributors to the success of the organization (Lynch & Buckner-Hayden, 2010). Most business research is based on input from the creators of onboarding processes in organizations. Limited research has been dedicated to exploring the lived experiences of new employees (Carlos & Muralles, 2022). This research was designed to determine the elements that constitute an effective onboarding process for organizations. Triangulation of data consisting of a review of the existing onboarding models in the literature, content analysis of current corporate practices, and fifteen in-depth interviews with newly hired employees was conducted. A phenomenological research methodology was employed to better understand the lived experiences of new employees within organizations as recommended by Moustakas (1994). Based on the methodology recommended by Yüksel and Yıldırım (2015), participants' descriptions were reduced to create core theme clusters that formulate the main elements of an effective onboarding program. A practical model was developed based on the results of the research analysis. The "EFFECTIVE" employee onboarding model presents a novel holistic practical approach that aims to optimize a new hire's experience in an organization: Early Onset, Focus,

Feedback, Expectations, Coaching, Tailored, Integration, Value-Added and Engagement.

Introduction

Starting a new job can be an intimidating experience for everyone, regardless of how often they have done it or how familiar they are with the process. The challenge of learning how the organization functions, finding a way to fit within its cultural dynamics, and determining who to trust can be overwhelming. Some organizations have methods by which they introduce a new hire to the organization and its functions (Carlos & Muralles, 2022). The process of induction and assimilation of new hires into an organization is referred to as "Employee Onboarding" (Collins, 2013). It refers to the practices employed by an organization to help new employees adapt to the functional and social environment of the workplace and to acquire the knowledge, skills, and behaviours needed for their success in the job (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011). Successful onboarding may result in better employee acclimation and understanding of customs and norms, transforming them from uninvolved "outsiders" into productive "insiders" and active members of the organization (Lynch & Buckner-Hayden, 2010). Meyer and Bartels (2017) suggest a positive correlation between successful onboarding and improved employee performance, productivity, engagement, satisfaction, belonging, development, and retention. Onboarding has also been linked to enhanced company job market reputation, improved talent acquisition, and reduced recruitment cost (O'Brien, 2013). Organizations that fail at onboarding their new hires often end up wasting financial and human resources on recruitment efforts due to high employee turnover and attrition rates (Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo & Tucker, 2007).

Although most organizations employ some form of onboarding, many still do not follow effective onboarding processes (Bauer, 2010). Effective onboarding can be costly and time-consuming and is difficult to link to immediate financial gain; thus

is often ignored by organizations (Caldwell & Caldwell, 2016). Most business research has been centred on input from the creators of the onboarding processes at organizations or on analysis of the effectiveness of onboarding activities practiced with employees. Limited research has been dedicated to exploring the lived experience of the new employee (Carlos & Muralles, 2022). This gap in the literature exposes the lack of understanding of what formulates an effective onboarding experience based on new employees' perspectives. This research was designed to determine the elements that constitute an effective onboarding process for organizations based on a deep exploration of the new employee's lived experiences.

Literature Review

Millions of employees are hired for jobs at organizations annually (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). A vital goal for organizations is to quickly get new employees to perform well and contribute to the success of the organization. New employees need to learn technical job-related tasks and responsibilities as well as social and culture-related aspects of their organizations. To facilitate the evolution of new hires into effective members of the organization, a system must be established to support their information acquisition and social adjustment process. Carlos and Muralles (2022) emphasize the difference between employee "orientation" and "onboarding". According to Jaisinghani and Patel (2013) and Macnaughton and Medinsky (2015), employee orientation typically involves teaching new hires about the tasks and responsibilities they are expected to perform according to their job description. Klein, Polin and Leigh Sutton (2015) and Winterman and Bucy (2019) add "newcomer socialization" (Allen, 2006) as a vital factor of effective onboarding. Stevens, Dawson and McDaniel (2013), point out that employees missing out on key cultural elements during their onboarding process may suffer from difficult acclimation, isolation, lack of belonging, and job dissatisfaction.

Onboarding has recently become a mainstream activity practised by most Human Resources departments in organizations. Studies indicate that 66% of organizations employ some aspect of formal onboarding for their new hires, while 53% of

organizations invest in onboarding activities during their new hires' first year on the job (Laurano, 2012). Bauer (2015) maintains that the process of transforming new hires from "organizational outsiders" to "organizational insiders" develops during their first year on the new job. New employees typically make decisions to continue working for organizations during their first six months on the job (Lynch & Buckner-Hayden, 2010), and their feelings of belonging develop within the first 30 days of employment (Dai & De Meuse, 2007). This renders the onboarding activities performed during that period especially critical for organizations.

Organizational Outcomes of Effective Onboarding

Meyer and Bartel (2017) accentuate that employees who participate in successful onboarding systems report higher levels of satisfaction than those that do not, which in turn has a substantial impact on their quality of work and performance. The Boston Consulting Group and World Federation of People Management Associations (2012) report that companies that employ effective onboarding processes are able to generate 1.9 times higher profit margins and 2.5 times higher profit growth rates than those that do not. Furthermore, employees who engage in structured onboarding experiences are 58% more likely to continue working in the organization after 36 months. Bauer, *et al.* (2007) indicate that the top 20% performing organizations in terms of onboarding have 91% first-year retention rates and 62% first-year goal achievement rates for their newly hired employees, compared to 30% retention and 17% goal achievement rates reported by the bottom 30% performing organizations. This is significantly cost-effective for organizations since the cost of acquiring new employees can amount to triple their salaries (Wynhurst Group, 2007).

Effective onboarding also has a significant role in "employee acclimation", which refers to how well new employees are able to adjust to the culture and dynamics of the organizations they have joined (Lynch & Buckner-Hayden, 2010). Failure of employees to get appropriately acclimated results in reduced chances of reaching their full potential at work (Anderson, Cunningham-Snell & Haigh, 1996). Efforts dedicated to facilitating employee acclimation result in improved job

understanding, reduced role ambiguity (Craft, Malveaux, Lopez & Combs, 2016), boosted self-confidence (Ellis, 2014), increased employee job satisfaction (Caldwell & Peters, 2018), and more organizational trust (Self & Dewald, 2011). Social acclimation practices may enhance employees' sense of belonging and improve their ability to build strong personal relationships within the organization (Caldwell & Caldwell, 2016). An amplified sense of belonging results in an enhanced ability to retain new information (Koch, Gonzalez & Leidner, 2012), increased engagement, and improved productivity and job performance (Lynch & Buckner-Hayden, 2010).

Despite its potential benefits for businesses, not all organizations invest the necessary effort and resources in designing and implementing effective onboarding processes for their new employees (Bauer, 2010). This has been attributed to the delayed long-term financial return it has on the organization, often resulting in the neglect to dedicate time and attention to plan and implement effective onboarding systems (Caldwell & Caldwell, 2016). Some organizations still employ a traditional "sink or swim" onboarding process, in which employees are left unguided in the organization and observed for how well they operate. This is often accompanied by stressors such as role ambiguity and role conflict (Bauer & Erdogan, 2011), which may have adverse effects on employee acclimation and job satisfaction, often resulting in poor employee performance and low goal achievement rates (Bauer, 2015). Cable, Gino and Staats (2013) criticize entities that suppress their new hires' personalities and pressure them into adopting the organization's value system, often resulting in fake internalization and causing emotional and psychological exhaustion (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Grandey, 2003). Sustainable employee engagement requires employees to contribute willingly to the organization. Onboarding efforts that result in employee inauthenticity lead to disengagement and dissatisfaction (Cable, *et al.*, 2013).

Other discouraged onboarding practices include a lack of employee engagement activities on the first day; failure to set clear responsibilities and expectations; ignoring to address the cultural fit (Schneidermeyer, 2010); inability to link onboarding activities with desired employee skills; disregarding early and frequent

feedback (Vernon, 2012); and failure to make arrangements for the employee to start work immediately (Bourdeau, 2011).

Effective Onboarding Defined

Frear (2007, p. 4) defines *Effective Onboarding* as a "holistic approach combining people, process, and technology to optimize the impact a new hire has on the organization with an emphasis on both effectiveness and efficiency". Scholars have attempted to develop models that constitute the most crucial factors of effective employee onboarding.

Bauer and Erdogan's 4 C's Model

The model developed by Bauer and Erdogan (2011) comprises four core aspects that form the building blocks for effective onboarding practices: Compliance, Clarification, Culture, and Connection. *Compliance* refers to basic logistic processes and procedures such as hiring forms, e-mail account setup, communication tools, and workstation arrangements. *Clarification* refers to communicating the new hire's job requirements, task accomplishment measures, performance indicators, and common terminology used internally and externally on the job. The sooner new employees are able to clearly understand the details of their jobs, the faster they become productive in the organization. *Culture* refers to informing new employees of the organization's unique formal and informal norms. This step is often ignored because current employees mistakenly believe their norms are easy to interpret and adopt; thus failing to explicitly explain them to new hires, ignoring that each organization has its unique dynamics (Bauer, 2010). *Connection* is perhaps the most overlooked factor by organizations and refers to effectively connecting new hires with other organization members. It includes communicating the main support mechanisms, information networks, and key relationship tips to new employees to facilitate their social onboarding experience. Employees who experience successful connection are more comfortable asking for assistance and thus integrate faster and more efficiently into the system. Successful connection promotes a healthy work environment, which leads to improved engagement, teamwork, and overall organizational success. According to Bauer, *et al.* (2007), proper incorporation of all

the elements of the framework is essential for a company's onboarding success and overall goal achievement. Laurano (2012) indicates that organizations that practise integrated onboarding processes enjoy improved employee productivity, lower turnover rates, and higher satisfaction rates than those that do not.

Portland State University Model

Thomas (2013) introduces a modified onboarding process that includes the elements of Recruitment, Orientation, Support tools and Processes, Coaching and Support, Training, Feedback tools, and Evaluation. Although commonly excluded from onboarding processes, *recruitment* efforts utilized by recruiters during the interview process play a major role in the initial opinions employees form about whether or not they should join an organization. Interviews are essential interactions during which a company's goals, values, and culture should be introduced to potential new hires. They also help interviewees form realistic expectations about the job they are about to start (D'Aurizio, 2007). *Orientation* refers to providing adequate information that acquaints new hires with the job and organization while avoiding overwhelming them with too much information. Availing the necessary *support tools* and having clearly defined *processes* for tracking performance and development is vital for employee acclimation and smooth operation on the job. Having a supportive and engaged manager is critical to putting employees up to speed in the organization and has been identified as a vital element of the onboarding process. *Coaching and support* can manifest in the form of a mentor, sponsor, or buddy program employed within the organization. Once the employee starts to perform job-related tasks, *training* becomes a necessary practice to ensure satisfactory performance quality. Basic training to cover core job competencies as well as ongoing training to enhance employee skills can create undiscovered efficiencies and provide employees with opportunities for self-development and future growth within the organization. *Feedback* via formal performance evaluation tools and informal check-ins ensures that new employees are adapting and learning in their new environment. This can help provide feedback about the effectiveness of the onboarding processes employed and create a comfortable communication channel between employees and the organization.

The final element, *evaluation*, is important to measure the effectiveness of the onboarding system utilized (Thomas, 2013).

Caldwell and Peter's Model

Caldwell and Peters (2018) propose a 10-step employee onboarding model for organizations. The first step involves *establishing rapport* with the employee before their official joining date through casual meetings or virtual conversations that allow the employee to feel familiar and comfortable on their first day on the job. Next is *assigning a mentor* who is well-informed about the organization to guide the new employee and help them understand the company's unspoken "ins and outs" and its unwritten norms necessary for acclimation to the new job environment (Bierema & Hill, 2005). The third step is *building relationships*, getting the new hire acquainted and assimilated comfortably within the organizational culture, and establishing a healthy relationship with their superiors and colleagues (Parker, *et al*., 2013). The fourth step is *explaining the organizational policies and responsibilities* to the employee, often by providing an accurate handbook to help them comprehend what is expected of them in their new position (Sutton & Griffin, 2004). The next step is *preparing the working environment* for the employee, such as work area and office supplies; thus enhancing their sense of acceptance in the new workplace (Caldwell & Peters, 2018). Step six involves *supporting the new employee* with their transition into the new area where the company is located, such as providing guiding information about the neighbourhood (Dewe, O'Driscoll & Cooper, 2010). The seventh step is *clarifying the new employee's exact role, priorities, and expectations*, as well as their *aspirations* and *personal objectives* while in the organization. This signals to the employee that the organization values them and their goals and helps in improving employee commitment and building a trustworthy relationship between the company and its new hires (Leana III & Van Buren, 1999). Step eight is about *fostering employee engagement* within the organization by encouraging creativity and idea generation, allowing the new employee to take part in group tasks and add value to the progress of work (Caldwell & Peters, 2018). The next step requires *commitment* from senior management at the organization to exemplify their acceptance and belief in the

company culture and shared values. Employees are more likely to become enthusiastic about being committed to a company value when it is directly communicated by their managers rather than their peers at work (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). The final step is *tracking and providing feedback* about the performance of new employees. Supervisors are prompted to provide consistent coaching to new employees, and employees are encouraged to proactively ask for assistance from their mentors (Bachkirova, Jackson, & Clutterbuck, 2011). The ten levels of the model collectively construct a more humane approach to effective onboarding for organizations, reducing employees' feelings of alienation and rejection and enhancing their sense of belonging (DePree, 2004).

Klein et al. Model

Klein, *et al*. (2015) benchmark criteria collected from 10 unique organizations to identify the most effective onboarding practices employed. Three major areas were identified: *Informing*, *Welcoming*, and *Guiding* new employees. According to the research results, 75% of organizations employ informal training and communication practices with their new hires; 52% implement welcome practices, and only 20% have systems that guide their new employees during their first period on the job. Less than 30% of new employees reportedly receive proper orientation or informal support, and less than 20% report having been engaged in social activities. Incorporation of these practices into an integrated system provides organizations with a structured and effective onboarding approach that may result in improved employee satisfaction and belonging.

D'Azurio Model

The model developed by D'Aurizio (2007) highlights Process, Support, and Follow-up as key elements of effective onboarding. *Process* begins with the vital role of recruitment in engaging employees even before they start work. Maintaining contact with a new hire during the period between sending the offer and starting the job creates a sense of familiarity that eases a new employee's initial experience. Informing co-workers of the expected joining of the new hire and setting a welcoming tone is an essential responsibility of hiring managers. Securing the new hire's working environment, welcoming them and introducing them to their peers,

assigning a mentor to guide their journey, and sharing the organization's goals and objectives significantly impact their long-term success. Basic information such as details of the hiring process, workplace logistics, work attire, meals and breaks, information sources, and tax and payroll specifics should be communicated promptly and appropriately. Next, *Support* highlights the critical role of managers in employee accommodation and their decisions to stay or leave their new jobs. Managers are responsible for welcoming and supporting new hires into their departments and teams, sharing the organization's values and dynamics, and encouraging a sense of belonging to the company. Employees receiving sufficient support are more productive, less stressed, and become better team players. The final phase, *Follow Up,* involves setting up formal and informal feedback mechanisms over the new hire's first 12 months on the job. Regular feedback after 45 days, 90 days, six months, and one year on the job ensures that the new hire has acquired the information and training necessary for adequate performance.

More on Effective Onboarding

Cable, *et al*. (2013) identify four main pillars for effective employee onboarding. The first is changing the mindset of hiring managers to utilize individual new hires' unique character strengths for better performance and talent development. Next, encouraging new hires to identify and employ their authentic character strengths early in their jobs (Hsieh, 2010). And finally, facilitating introductions and engagement with existing co-workers (Cable, *et al*., 2013). Savitt (2012) urges organizations to extend onboarding to the first day, first week, first month, and first ninety-day milestones. Schneidermeyer (2010) advocates automating the onboarding process to improve communication and feedback accessibility and to facilitate the assessment of the effectiveness of the practices performed.

Research Significance

Despite the suggested organizational benefits of employee onboarding, the current understanding of what constitutes an effective onboarding process is still lacking. Most business research conducted has been focused on designing onboarding processes from the perspective of organizations and policymakers. Limited

research has been dedicated to exploring a new hire's journey within an organization (Carlos & Muralles, 2022). The purpose of this research was to fill the gap in the literature and develop a practical framework for human resources and business practitioners that identifies the main elements of an effective onboarding program for an organization based on a deep understanding of the new employees' lived experiences.

Research Methodology

The research was designed to address the aforementioned business research problem and respond to the question: What are the characteristics of a new conceptual model that better identifies the elements that constitute an effective employee onboarding program for organizations?. Triangulation of data comprised a review of the literature, content analysis of existing corporate practices, and in-depth interviews with newly hired employees. A qualitative research design based on a social constructivist worldview approach was employed for data collection and analysis (Crotty, 1998). As recommended by Moustakas (1994), a phenomenological approach most suited for exploring human attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours was employed to better understand the lived experiences of new employees' onboarding processes within organizations. Transcendental Phenomenology (Husserl, 1931) was applied to better understand and describe the essence of the individual lived experiences of the phenomenon (Moustakas, 1994; Cilesiz, 2010). As recommended by Sheehan (2014), all pre-judgments and meanings relating to experiences were ignored to improve the understanding of the phenomenon being studied. Creswell (2006) emphasizes the value of non-biased research in management practices such as organizational behaviour and human resources management.

Data Collection and Analysis

The interview questionnaire was informed by reviewing the academic literature and most common industry practices and tested with volunteers to ensure clarity, relevance, and precision. The ideal sample size in qualitative research is determined by reaching the point of "saturation" at which the extra data collected no longer adds unique value (Mason, 2010). According to Creswell (1998) the recommended

number of participants in a phenomenological study is between 5 and 25. A total of 15 interviews were conducted with participants who had previous onboarding experiences at organizations. Participants were selected via a non-probability purposive sampling technique to represent different positions, industries, jobs, and organizations. The participant group consisted of 7 men and 8 women. Various job titles were represented by 4 participants at top management and executive levels within their organizations, 6 at mid-managerial levels, 4 at associate levels, and 1 intern. Industries explored included Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) and Retail, Telecommunications, Higher Education, Fintech, NGOs, and Business Consultancy. Companies for which participants described their onboarding experiences included large corporates, small and medium enterprises, and start-up companies. Participant responses are indicated in the depictions presented as P1-15.

Interviews were conducted face-to-face and lasted 30-45 minutes each. The interviews were initiated with an introduction to the research purpose and methodology, and the participants were asked to describe their onboarding experiences in their own words. The interviews were recorded, and transcripts were created for each encounter. Collected data were transcribed and coded via MAX QDA Software to construct research themes. Data were checked for errors and coding consistency as recommended by Miles (1994).

Ethical Considerations

Informed consent was obtained from the participants in the research. Anonymity was granted to participants, and responses were kept confidential. No vulnerable individuals were involved in the study.

Research Findings

Based on the methodology recommended by Yüksel and Yıldırım (2015), the participants' descriptions of their lived onboarding experiences were compared and reduced to create core theme clusters that formulate the main elements of an effective onboarding program. The following section presents the main factors

mentioned by the research participants and depicts experts from their personal and self-reflective experiences.

Theme 1: Initiation of Onboarding

Many depictions presented by participants in the research describing their onboarding journeys started as early as initial contact with their organizations. The following is an excerpt of a research participant's account of their onboarding experience.

> *P13*: *"Onboarding for me started before my first day at work with one of the founders of the company calling me herself. She was friendly and flexible, approached me in an informal manner, and made me feel very comfortable about the job. That helped a lot with the anxiety. She gave me her personal number so I could text and ask her about anything before the scheduled interview. This allowed me to know a lot more, and I had already started to feel like I had leverage and rapport with her. She was to be my manager, and that was a promising beginning".*

Details and perceptions about the interviews and recruitment processes practiced were described and had a significant impact on employees' recalled onboarding experiences.

> *P5:* *"I had to wait for a while to be called in and thought it was very unprofessional of them to keep me waiting. The interview questions were well organized and mostly about my technical experience. I immediately got the vibe that the interviewers liked me and accepted me. They were eager to know when I could start".*

> *P4:* *"I am a veiled Muslim woman. The moment I stepped into the office the receptionist told me that the manager 'doesn't like veiled women'. I was shocked and embarrassed. I felt I had to leave instantly. They were unprofessional and rude. I had never been so directly attacked for something so personal. The interview went well technically, but I felt very uncomfortable and self-conscious. I had almost decided I would not join".*

> *P7:* *"There was a dog at the office during my interview. I felt this was very inappropriate".*

P10: "My interview and hiring process took more than four months. I started doubting myself and started thinking they may have changed their mind or taken back their offer".

P14: "The hiring process was long and difficult. There were issues with my contract that made me anxious and doubtful about the credibility and seriousness of the company. There were salary transfer issues that were very troubling and stressful. They were not flexible and poorly prepared".

Much emphasis was placed on the demeanour of the recruiters and the value of the information presented during the interviews. Participants highlighted the importance of understanding the job details in their decision to join their organization.

P8: "I was headhunted for the job and was interviewed by my direct manager. He made sure I understood everything about the organization and my job. This made me confident to accept the position. I knew what I was getting into".

P2: "I had an interview with the chairman. It was mostly a discussion about my experience and an assessment of my decision-making and thinking skills. During the hiring period, no one communicated what was expected from me or a particular role they were considering for me. I felt they wanted a senior person on board but were not specifically sure for what role. I signed the contract out of the office. The contract was quickly prepared and very generic and it did not specify a job role. That made me very worried and confused".

Participants expressed how early onboarding accelerated their understanding of what was expected of them and their ability to improve their performance.

P12: "My onboarding started with my direct manager explaining the industry and company to me a few weeks before I started. It was very complicated, and I felt it was beneficial. I wanted to understand. I was more comfortable starting the job knowing what to expect".

P6: "My onboarding started early, 2-3 weeks ahead. I was very happy. This allowed me to gain knowledge and take the lead on the challenge I was about to embark on".

Theme 2: The First Day on The Job

Participants were very expressive about their first-day experiences. Details about their first encounters with the office building and their peers were vividly described.

> **P15:** *"I remember the first day I entered the building. I was so proud and excited. I felt like I had to breathe in this moment and cherish it. It was really a dream come true for me".*

> **P3:** *"My direct manager is the one who onboarded me. He waited for me at the entrance of the building and showed me around. It was a very positive experience for me. He speeded up the administrative work that needed to be done and left me with an overall good impression of the environment".*

> **P4:** *"On my first day, I went on time and was kept waiting because there was no one to welcome me. I was disappointed and worried. My manager was not available to meet me, which was very discouraging. It was very unprofessional. It made me feel unwelcome".*

Arrangements made to acclimate new hires into the workplace were mentioned vigorously. Many participants described their encounters in detail as follows.

> **P10:** *"They had everything ready for me. An office, my ID, access card, everything. IT was prepared. My e-mail was ready. I felt confident and welcomed".*

> **P3:** *"There was no preparation for my arrival. I was not assigned an office and had no stationery. I got a laptop that needed better configuration for no apparent reason. I did not understand access privileges. There was no proper guidance on how to do things. No one communicated facilities and benefits. I had doubts they didn't want us to use the facilities".*

> **P5:** *"A big issue I immediately faced was the seating arrangement. It was an open space where everyone worked together. This was very uncomfortable for me. Even archiving was not easy to reach. I was not told this was the case, which made me very frustrated".*

> **P1:** *"One of my biggest frustrations was the work environment. I did not know where to get drinks or food. I did not know the facility and felt very awkward asking around for things all the time. I didn't know the dress code. There was no employee handbook to follow or refer to for details. It was like I was fighting to survive. I was unnecessarily wasting my time".*

Theme 3: Job Role and Responsibilities

The importance of clearly defining a new hire's role and responsibilities within the organization is undisputed. Many participants highlighted the benefits of job clarification for themselves, the teams they join, and the departments they work with.

> *P12: "I like to go and have something to do immediately. I had clear tasks from the first day I joined. My job was explained to me and my peers very clearly. That made everyone comfortable, and there was no overlap that could cause issues".*

> *P14: "For the first few months, I was not sure that I understood my role properly or that anyone knew what I was doing there. I always felt that I was unintentionally doing something to upset someone. I did not know exactly what my responsibilities were versus those of others. I had to learn through trial and error. I was very frustrated".*

Theme 4: Keeping it Simple

Participants clearly expressed the importance of not feeling overwhelmed with technical information during their first period on the new job. As described, focused and prioritized information allowed them to understand the required tasks faster and perform better.

> *P4: "It was a relief that the workload at the beginning was so organized. I did not want to start off overwhelmed, I wanted to ace everything I did, and I did not want to fail".*

> *P8: "I felt like I was on top of my game. I was slowly getting the hang of the very technical details of the job. Of course, there was still more I needed to learn, but I was confident I knew enough to get through my first months without feeling overwhelmed or lost".*

> *P5: "The information I was supposed to know was huge. Too many policies and procedures and many segments to serve. It would have helped a lot if there was a plan to prioritize this induction for new employees to avoid frustration and confusion".*

> *P2: "I was swamped with day-to-day issues that I could not think strategically or set processes that would make a difference and improve performance".*

>*P6:* "There was a lot of anticipated pressure to get a proper handover of stuff I did not know and did not know the process. I felt it was a mission impossible. It was too technical; I needed soft orientation first. I was terrified. I thought I couldn't handle it".

Theme 5: Managing Expectations

Participants also expressed the importance of setting expectations and performance measures in motivating them and contributing to their success in the workplace.

>*P13:* "Even before we started officially, we started to discuss expectations of what I was going to do. I felt prepared and ready. I knew what good performance meant to the company and had a plan on how to achieve that".

>*P9:* "I had targets and goals and was eager to prove to them that I was competent and deserved the trust they put in me".

>*P1:* "It was me who insisted on setting objectives and performance indicators for myself with my manager. That put me on track. I knew where I was going and how to add value".

>*P14:* "I was very disappointed. No one had any expectations from me, and nothing was communicated about how I would be evaluated for my job. It was unnerving. I expected this lack of clarity to backfire anytime".

Theme 6: Open Channels of Communication

Participants stated the value of being able to communicate with different people within the organization. Knowing whom to turn to for support, guidance, or complaints is crucial.

>*P15:* "We have a powerful speak-up culture. You are allowed to express anything at any time. We are made very aware of whom to talk to and how. They are very receptive to our comments and complaints and suggestions."

Participants appreciated frequent and regular feedback to make sure they were on track. They also valued being able to offer feedback about their experience at the organization.

> **P7:** *"I give and receive regular feedback. That is important to me because I feel there is a dialogue with management. I feel involved. Guided. Recognized. Noticed".*

> **P14:** *"I get regular feedback from my manager about my performance. She provides constructive feedback to improve my later tasks. I never feel judged, threatened, or blamed. On the contrary, I feel like she accepts my errors and helps me improve".*

Theme 7: Coaching and Support

Participants expressed the significance of receiving guidance and support during the first few daunting months on the job. Some expected to be assigned to dedicated coaches or mentors, while others suggested this was the responsibility of their managers.

> **P9:** *"My manager allowed me to ask questions and was very reassuring to any doubts I had. I left every day feeling very calm and confident. I felt I was up to the challenge of this job and was comfortable expressing myself the way I knew best".*

> **P5:** *"I kept waiting to be assigned to a mentor to introduce me to people, but that never happened. It would have also helped a lot if I knew I had someone to go back to for guidance with the many issues I faced during my first period on the job. It is difficult to ask for help from people who are already busy unless they know they are supposed to help".*

Theme 8: The Role of the Direct Manager

Participants mentioned the significant role their direct managers were expected to play in their onboarding process. Managers who failed to deliver on these expectations were heavily criticized and blamed for many of the employees' early disappointments.

> **P6:** *"I had the perfect manager. He was brilliant. He put me on track. He guided and coached me and gave me self-confidence. He explained the job requirements and dynamics of the workplace and introduced me to the team. He helped me fit in".*

P5: "I expected my manager to have an integral role in onboarding me to the place and helping me get acquainted with my new position. I expected her to coach me technically and help me integrate with colleagues in other departments and in my own; to guide me on the processes, procedures, and tools necessary to successfully perform my job; to introduce me to a large team I was supposed to lead. Having a manager that I anticipated would not do that, troubled me and worried me. I did not fully trust her and her motives".

Theme 9: Getting Things Done

Participants' frustrations were apparent when describing their initial experiences with the processes and procedures of getting things done at the office.

P1: "A major issue for me was the lack of proper workflow. There was no governance process for employee performance. There were no set procedures to follow up on achievements and outcomes. I would have worked more efficiently and wasted less time if I knew there were tools I could use to generate performance reports".

P3: "Human resources did not approach me. I reached out to them three weeks after I joined the organization. Any information I got was an effort exerted by my manager, not a process set by the organization. Although useful, it was scattered and unorganized".

Management style also contributed to participants' perceptions of their onboarding experiences. Conflicts and poor alignment between senior management negatively impacted team performance and new hires' experiences on the job.

P13: "My manager was a great leader. Her way of management allowed me to own the responsibilities and the outcomes of my job. No decisions were ever forced on me. I was included in most decisions. I was given trust and accountability almost immediately. Management had no problem spending hours discussing an issue until we reached a mutual agreement. Within three months, I felt I belonged to the place".

P10: "Senior Management was in a lot of disagreement about major issues. Their roles sometimes overlapped, and their disagreements were obvious and tensed up the whole place. They ignored major issues we faced and allowed the same obstacles to keep happening. My first months would have been smoother if that was handled differently".

Theme 10: Proper Introductions

Participants discussed in depth the significance of introductions to members of their teams and the importance of proper team briefing before their arrival on the job.

> **P9:** *"People were welcoming and friendly. They showed a lot of support and included me in everything they did. They explained their roles and introduced me to everyone. They made me feel that my role was essential. I felt like I was part of the team already".*

> **P14:** *"My colleagues were trying to be welcoming, but as long as my role was not clearly defined to them or me, I always felt like the 'new guy', the 'outsider'. That was not easy to deal with. I knew there were side talks about why I was there".*

> **P11:** *"I was not properly introduced to the team I would lead. No one knew my role or why I was there. That made me anxious. Integration with the team is important to me, and I did not feel that I would be welcome. When I first met the team, they were showing off and uneasy. My subordinates were hostile and intentionally ignored me".*

> **P1:** *"My team was not informed about me. They were already settled, speculated about who I was, and doubted my expertise. Many thought they deserved my post and resented the idea of me taking over a job they wanted".*

Similarly, participants in managerial roles mentioned the importance of getting a detailed briefing about the members of the teams they would lead prior to meeting with them.

> **P2:** *"I was handed a large team with clear issues and no briefing. I did not know who did what or who was a good performer. I wasted a lot of time interviewing each of them from scratch to understand their personalities and motives. I was supposed to supervise their jobs. They immediately sensed they knew more than I did and that heavily compromised my position and allowed them to intentionally challenge me and make my job harder".*

Participants also mentioned introductions to people from other departments at the organization. The next depictions highlight the vital role of social integration for new hires.

P10: *"HR had briefed me about the people I would deal with in the organization. They had set meetings for me with everyone. It helped a lot. People were expecting and prepared to talk to me. They made time for me. I was able to understand a lot in a very short time".*

P6: *"On my first day, I had one-to-one meetings with key people from other departments. I was very impressed. They showed me everything, and I was awed. I met calibres that grew very fast. I was very fascinated and inspired".*

P5: *"A welcome e-mail was sent out with my picture to everyone in the organization, but no one introduced me personally to anyone. It made me feel like everyone knew me and what I looked like, but I did not know any of them. I felt compromised and disadvantaged".*

P1: *"I was not introduced to the heads of other departments, so I did not know who did what or how to reach them. I wasn't sure I met everyone at the organization. New people kept coming up. I met them randomly at meetings and had to approach them to introduce myself and get introduced to them. I felt very disconnected".*

P9: *"The only thing that made me uneasy at first was that I was not introduced to colleagues from other departments. No one knew I was working there. I felt ignored sometimes. Like I was not important enough for them to get to know me. It would have helped to ease me into the company".*

Theme 11: Unique Cultural Dynamics

Participants emphasized the importance of receiving guidance about the cultural dynamics of the organization and the significant impact that "fitting in" had on their experience.

P7: *"I felt I fit right in. My team and I had similar work experience and were mostly of the same age, so it was pleasant and warm. I made instant friends and felt very confident".*

P6: *"During the first few months, I felt completely alienated from people who already knew each other. The culture was shocking to me at first. People were very well settled. Many had tried to fit in and failed. I had to be very smart. They were different from me, and I had to change my skin to fit in. I felt my future depended on that. After a while, I learned to wear a new hat. I saw it as an*

opportunity to become better, but I cannot deny it was shocking, and I felt intimidated and very insecure".

P3: *"When I started, I first felt anxious and uncomfortable with the people and the way things were done there. I doubted that there were side talks and inside jokes about me. I had seen it happen to others and thought maybe that was happening to me too. I was unclear about who to trust. I could not fit in. It was very different than what I was used to. I felt I needed to lobby, which was not my way".*

P5: *"I was going in very cautious. It was a new place. I did not know the implicit or explicit rules. I did not know the culture and internal politics. There were no set cultural values or behavioural guidelines everyone followed. I was afraid of not fitting in or being set up to fail at the job. I did not only fear losing the job but also not being properly respected".*

Theme 12: Personalized Experiences

Organizations that displayed interest in utilizing and developing the unique capabilities of their new hires were heavily praised during this research. Employees that were recognized for their individual strengths felt empowered to add value to their organizations and expressed increased satisfaction and stronger loyalty.

P15: *"Not long after I joined, my manager saw more potential in me. He believed in me and trusted I could do more. He paid attention to me. I felt recognized and seen. That gave me an incredible boost of confidence. He pushed me to excel and develop. He gave me hope. He saw my strengths as an individual and helped me to develop them. I felt I could add value and become a key player in the organization".*

P7: *"They recognized my talents and helped me develop my skills. They made me feel that my role was essential and that I was the perfect fit for it. I felt I was a key player in the organization. It was very motivating for me. I felt I was there to make an impact".*

P8: *"I was hired for a particular job. They supposedly knew what I was good at already and got me on board for these specific tasks. Instead, I was thrown into the job without proper briefing and kept being asked to do things I did not know how to do and never claimed I did. I wasn't even coached or trained on how to get them done. I was shamed and blamed for not having these particular skills I*

had never claimed I had. I felt I was being set up to fail. It was frustrating and disappointing. I started to doubt myself and my decision to join this company. I felt incompetent and disempowered".

P2: *"I did not know what my area of excellence would be or how I would add value. I started doubting if they realized my value or just needed someone to fill the position".*

P4: *"I felt they lost me as a possible added value. I could have done a lot to push the organization forward. Instead, they confined me to old redundant routines and processes".*

Participants also highlighted the importance of being treated like they mattered. They expressed appreciation for the attention given to developing their skills and capabilities through training.

P4: *"I felt I belonged to an entity that valued talent and developed it. There was no chance that good calibre could be overlooked in such a structured organization. They recognized and cared about bringing out the best in us. They offered specialized training for each of us. That fact alone made me stay there for years. I never once thought about quitting".*

P14: *"I felt like no one cared about us as a team, or me as an individual. I was not a person to them, just some guy who did the job. None of us got any training. I was lucky to get on-job training from my manager, but that was an individual effort, not an activity integrated within the organization to enhance my skills and develop my capabilities".*

P2: *"I felt the company was unprofessional, too results-oriented, and completely neglected people. No one even cared to check if I was learning anything. I felt very confused and frustrated. I kept wondering if that happens with everyone".*

Theme 13: Alignment and Engagement

Participants described feelings of detachment and disengagement due to a lack of alignment with their organization's vision, strategy, and objectives.

P4: *"I did not know much about the strategy or vision. I was not involved or engaged. I knew my role and responsibilities but was not satisfied with the organization because I felt I did not fit in totally. Departments acted like isolated islands, each with its own culture and mission. It was totally chaotic. No one cared*

to align the employees with a common purpose or vision. I was never briefed about the organizational objectives or strategy. I did not feel like I worked in this organization, but rather in this specific department".

P2: *"It was not until I attended a strategic planning session at the headquarters six months after I joined the company that I felt I belonged and was motivated to add to its success".*

P11: *"Within a few months, I realized the managing partners were intentionally withholding a lot of important strategic information from us. Their lack of transparency was alarming. All the enthusiasm and ownership I felt disappeared before three months had passed".*

Employees that were actively engaged in their organizations reported high levels of commitment and belonging. Participants mentioned the significant value of participating in planning sessions, involvement in common purposes and goals, and being constantly aware of the company's achievements and updates.

P1: *"It helped a lot when I attended board meetings where everyone shared their business progress updates, and more visionary discussions took place. I felt I was part of the organization's steering committee, and that my input mattered. I was more informed and involved. I felt confident".*

P14: *"My team engaged me immediately in their teamwork. I was invited to brainstorming sessions and encouraged to share ideas and come up with solutions. That gave me confidence and a sense of involvement".*

P15: *"I felt I belonged to the team. I fit in very well. We had a shared purpose and goal. My manager created a unified sense of ownership for all of us. It was our mission to succeed. I felt like I was part of something important. We were excited and enthusiastic about making our organization grow and be the best".*

Theme 14: Building Confidence and Establishing Trust

Employee appreciation and recognition play a significant role in building role confidence and creating a sense of ownership and accountability for new hires at an organization. The below excerpts describe the participants' encounters of appreciation within their workplaces and how it enhanced their performance and belonging.

P8: *"I felt appreciated and valued by the organization. It was as if I was a partner, not an employee. I mattered and felt accountable for making a difference. I was given a profit share in the company, which immediately made the company's success my own".*

P6: *"After a while, I started feeling like I belonged to the place. It happened after I got an appreciation for a job well done. They gave me a good salary adjustment".*

P13: *"One breakthrough incident for me was when my manager stated that although she rarely trusts employees, within a very short period of time she grew to trust me and was confident of the quality of my work. It was transformational to hear her express that so clearly. I felt appreciated and special. I felt I belonged to the place and was more satisfied".*

P7: *"I communicated directly with the owner and felt empowered and trusted. That boosted my confidence and gave me a reason to excel. I felt I was engaged and valuable to the place. I felt respected and appreciated for my skills and know-how and cannot be overlooked. I never felt undermined or ignored. I wanted to prove I deserved the trust".*

Research Result: A New Conceptual Model

Based on the research findings and analysis, a new conceptual model that better identifies the elements that constitute an effective employee onboarding program for organizations has been developed. The "EFFECTIVE" Employee Onboarding model exhibited in Figure 1 presents a holistic approach that combines the practices, people, and tools necessary for designing programs that optimize a new hire's experience in an organization. The model is intended to be used by organizations of any size across industries.

E	F	F	E	C	T	I	V	E
Early Start	Focus	Feedback	Expectations	Coaching	Tailored	Integration	Value Added	Engagement

Figure 1: EFFECTIVE Onboarding Model (Barsoum, M. 2023)

Laurano's (2015) approach is that effective onboarding programs can improve new hire retention by 82% and productivity by over 70%. The "EFFECTIVE" Onboarding Model (Barsoum, 2023) advocates a set of practices to be adopted by organizations

to enhance new hires' experiences at the workplace, improve their performance and reduce their attrition rate. Below is a guideline for using the model for employee onboarding.

E: Early Onset

- *The Approach:* Onboarding starts with professionally approaching a potential new hire. Organizations are encouraged to brief candidates about the organization and the job and establish a comfortable communication channel with the candidate before the interview.

- *The Interview and Hiring Process:* Structured interviews that include relevant information about the organization and the job role and responsibilities assist in persuading the candidate to join the company. Expectations about job benefits and obligations should be set. Dates for interview feedback and hiring should be specified. Interview feedback and official job offers must be sent within a week of interviewing the candidates to avoid discouragement and doubt. Hiring details must be shared with the candidates ahead of hiring. Preparing the workplace, including setting up access privileges, e-mail accounts, and assigning appropriate seating, is crucial for new hires' smooth acclimation in the workplace.

- *Establishing Rapport:* Information about the company, team, and job description should be shared with the new hire prior to their official joining date. Hiring personnel should be encouraged to respond to all new hires' inquiries. Existing teams should be briefed about the new team member joining and instructed to adopt welcoming and accepting attitudes. Employees may be invited to unofficially visit the office before their starting dates to help them get acquainted with the place and people and ease into their new jobs.

F: Focus

A focused onboarding program allows new hires to gain the information and social skills necessary for acclimation into the organization without being overwhelmed or confused. Prioritization of the technical information and guidance about the methods to acquire it is essential. Identifying specific people at the organization

who the employee should meet during their first days on the job is crucial. Employees need to feel accepted and welcomed but not flooded with too many new faces without clearly defined roles. This in turn allows for the gradual and effective development of their individual talents and results in improved performance on the job.

F: Feedback

Organizations should encourage bi-directional feedback with new hires. Feedback sessions at 45 days, 90 days, six months, and one year from the hiring date should be scheduled. Feedback about new employees' experiences thus far, including feedback on their onboarding process, should be collected. Formal and informal feedback on employees' performance and compliance with the organization's regulations and values should be provided. Constructive advice must be offered to improve their acclimation to the job and the culture, as well as their performance thus far on the job. Feedback channels and tools should be availed to the employee from their first day on the job and they should be encouraged to speak up confidently.

E: Expectations

Clear job roles and responsibilities should be delivered to the new hire in a timely manner. Employees must understand what is expected of them, and any overlapping roles with other employees must be clarified to avoid team disruption. Explicit performance measures must be specified, and frequent performance assessments should be scheduled. Organizations should pay attention to delivering employees' job expectations.

C: Coaching

Coaching provided by the employee's direct manager and human resources staff during the first period on the job is essential for a new employee's acclimation. Organizations are advised to assign colleagues to act as mentors during the employee's first few weeks to guide them through the workplace and facilitate their

journey by exposing the unspoken unique characteristics of the organizational culture and helping them fit in.

T: Tailored

Individual differences between employees should be respected and adequately utilized. Organizations are encouraged to identify the signature character strengths of their new hires within the first week on the job. Tailored onboarding plans should be constructed to make use of and develop these unique personal strengths. Employees who utilize their unique strengths on the job reportedly receive increased job satisfaction, better talent development, boosted engagement, enhanced emotional well-being, and improved work performance (Miglianico, *et al.*, 2020). Employee development plans should be tailored to each employee's particular areas of skill improvement and talent development instead of relying on generic, non-specific training.

I: Integration

Efforts should be made to integrate new employees with the organizational culture and values. Proper introductions to colleagues at the organization boost employee confidence. Employees who share their organization's vision and are aligned with its strategy and objectives develop a sense of belonging and loyalty and are motivated to contribute to its success. Regular communication concerning updates and achievements, interaction between departments, and social events are recommended practices.

V: Value Added

Appreciation of employees' added value to the workplace boosts their confidence and motivates them to improve their performance. Jobs assigned to employees must be impactful and contribute to the success of their organizations. Establishing trust between the organization and its employees creates a sense of ownership and accountability; thus improves their performance and loyalty. Employees must also feel that their companies have added value to their work experience, and the development of their talents. Regular appraisal of employees' skills and

competencies helps them keep track of their progress and provides a sense of continuous improvement and development.

E: Engagement

"Employee Engagement" refers to an employee's strong emotional bond with their employer that motivates them to exert effort and commitment to contribute to the success of their organization (Kahn, 1990). Engaged employees are more dedicated, better performers, and show fewer signs of absenteeism at work (Iddagoda & Opatha, 2020). Organizations are encouraged to involve employees in decision-making, establish effective communication, create a culture of trust, and to practise effective leadership within the workplace. Regular evaluation of employee engagement ensures rigour and belonging.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The "EFFECTIVE" Employee Onboarding model that was developed based on the findings of this research provides organizations with a practical framework to successfully onboard their new hires. Organizations are advised to follow the structure mentioned to improve new employee acclimation, reduce attrition rate, and boost employee belonging and loyalty to the workplace. Onboarding checklists may be used to ensure all the elements necessary for effective onboarding are adequately executed. Automation of the onboarding program is recommended to facilitate communication and gather feedback to measure the efficacy of the practices performed. Limitations of this model include a compromised scalability potential during periods of bulk hiring, as well as an irrelevance to blue-collar employment processes. Further research is recommended to include Human Resources and business managers' perspectives on the efficacy of the suggested model, as well as a practical assessment of its usefulness in the workplace. The findings of a case-study research approach conducted at organizations that have employed the model will assist in establishing its effectiveness and inform the improvements necessary to maximize its benefits to organizations and their newly hired employees.

CHAPTER 8:

A TRANSFORMATIVE PHILOSOPHY FOR TEACHER LEADERS' TALENT DEVELOPMENT

E.D. de Klerk

Senior Lecturer: Education Management & Leadership, Faculty of Education, North-West University, Mahikeng, South Africa. Darrell.DeKlerk@nwu.ac.za

J.M. Palmer

Associate Professor: Postgraduate Studies, Faculty of Humanities, Central University of Technology, Free State, South Africa. JPalmer@cut.ac.za

Abstract

Talent development of teacher leaders has become a prominent concept in educational institutions throughout the world because the identification, attraction and development of talent remains one of the most critical aspects organizations like schools have to deal with. To inspire schools to nurture the advancement of teacher leaders' talent, the purpose of this conceptual chapter is to propose a transformative philosophy framework for teacher leaders' talent development through an analysis of stipulations in three South African education policy documents. Although education policy is uncompromising; it contains specific rules about the purpose of schools and what can be done to contribute to the professional development of teachers. Having employed transformative learning theory, the findings revealed that transformative perspectives as talents, the fostering of a culture for talent development as well as performativity as an act of talent development can indeed contribute to an advancement of teachers' leadership talents. The chapter concludes with the argument that talent can be wasted if it remains undiscovered, therefore, teacher leaders should be guided on how to become self-driven, intellectual leaders and transformative learners. This implies that teacher leaders, from a transformative philosophical perspective, may be in a position to use their talents to become transformative leaders who contribute meaningfully to the advancement of inclusion, equity, and social justice in schools.

Keywords

education policy, talent development, teacher leaders, transformative learning, transformative philosophy

Introduction and problem statement

In Western philosophy, understanding the human ability for transformational change has a long history. A dramatic picture of personal metamorphosis in Plato's Alego of the Cave is witnessed, and Augustine, Kant, Hegel, James, and Dewey would also dedicate volumes to its study (Yacek, Rödel & Karcher, 2020). The allure of transformation's mystery and promise in education has been robust. Given the magnitude of changes that beset 21st-century learning environments, school leaders must develop teachers' talents. The aim of teacher education should therefore be seen as supporting teachers to realize their latent talents so that they can grow as independent and capable leaders who will be able to lead both in and outside the classroom (De Klerk & Smith, 2021). According to Lieberman (2015), for teacher leadership to be more generally acknowledged, scholars need to investigate and comprehend the practices that foster the development of such abilities. This suggests that teacher leaders (TLs) may be developed through support and training. Teachers who take on new duties and exercise leadership are better able to shift their ways of thinking, become motivated to suggest positive changes, encourage the growth of self-assurance, venture beyond their comfort zones, and possibly benefit schools (Lowery-Moore, Latimer & Villate, 2018). Although teacher leadership is not about having officially assigned responsibilities, it emerges informally by being acquired via specific acts when the leader within a teacher is brought to the fore. For instance, when teachers are afforded opportunities for learning, engagement, and personal growth, talent development (TD) can be regarded as an action for unleashing the leadership ability of teachers through knowledge, talents, and attitudes (Cosenza, 2015).

TD focuses on risk-taking, innovation, and intellectual curiosity within a specific talent ecosystem that helps people to acquire a more profound knowledge of what it means to be viewed as talented (Eatough, 2021). In unpacking TD further, teachers need to be assisted to understand that talented leaders are individuals who develop self-awareness and ensure more authentic work interactions (Drago-Severson & Blum-DeStefano, 2018). Thus, as TLs gain more self-confidence, they can direct their focus on enacting leadership, while providing encouragement and

support to their colleagues toward collective development in schools (De Klerk & Smith, 2022).

The problem, however, is that TLs' skills and talents are not always nurtured in the learning spaces they occupy, as leadership is often viewed as situated with, among others, principals, deputy principals, and heads of department. The notion of teachers as leaders is frowned upon as they are confronted with bureaucratic and institutional norms and a school culture that often does not promote the idea of teacher leadership (Helterbran, 2010). The fact that teachers do not always see their work as an act of "socially responsible" leadership and as creating a strong "professional identity" compounds this issue (Collay, 2006, pp. 131-132). Teachers' perspectives on who and what they do are expanded when they shed the label of technical and managed workers and take on new responsibilities as researchers, meaning-makers, scholars, and inventors (Lieberman & Miller, 2004). Schools must simultaneously evolve to become what Senge (1990) refers to as learning organizations. While the South African Schools Act (Republic of South Africa [RSA],1996) calls for democratic improvements in schools, changes are occurring at a slow pace, and are not in accordance with the new needs, which call for schools to restructure themselves as learning organizations (Moloi, 2002). In this way, addressing the problem becomes a transformative act of further developing TLs' talents to positively influence their learning environments. Talents do not only influence prudential choices; the resources produced and consumed by nurturing TLs' talents can also affect how social institutions are structured and social services are rendered. We argue that a transformative philosophy (TP) for TD implies that individuals need to think anew about teachers' leadership talents. This chapter responds to these issues while continuing the debate about the conceptualization of TD, with specific reference to TLs. Hence this chapter provides a transformative philosophy on nurturing and developing TLs' talent.

Aim and objectives

This chapter aims to propose a transformative philosophy framework for teacher leaders' talent development. In achieving the aim, the following research objectives are operationalized to:

1. understand talent development in relation to teacher leadership development; and

2. explore innovative perspectives regarding talent development for teacher leaders through an analysis of stipulations in South African education policies.

Concept clarification

Different key concepts are significant in this chapter. These concepts include talent, talent development, teacher leaders, and transformative philosophy.

Talent

Talents frequently play an important role in individuals' social and personal lives. For example, individuals' talents may be directive in terms of the choices they make and the goods they regard as worthy, making them fundamental to forming a meaningful life. Robb (2020) purports that "a talent is not the skill itself, but a general iterated ability for the excellent development and up-keep of a particular skill, constituted by an agent's dispositional properties" (p. 8085). Robb (2018) sees talent as that it can be regarded as an exceptional aptitude for advancing and upkeeping specific skills.

Talent development

Talent development (TD) is regarded as an institutional action intended to enhance individuals' occupations, knowledge, and skills to align them with institutional planned objectives (De Vos, De Hauw, & Van de Heijden, 2011). TD aligns strongly with talent management (TM) because it includes institutional activities relevant to the attraction, selection, development, and retention of employees in the most

strategic roles (Scullion, Collings & Caligiuri, 2010). Congruent to the aforementioned authors (De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Scullion *et al.*, 2010) TD means that every individual has an equal opportunity to expand their skills, grow within an organization, and attain their professional ambitions.

Teacher leaders

Teacher leaders (TLs) are individuals who possess a set of skills that permits them to exert influence in and beyond the classroom (York-Barr & Duke, 2004), and who acquire necessary competencies necessary for transformation in schools (Cosenza, 2015). In schools, leaders (principals, deputy principals, and heads of department) should grant teachers the opportunity of fully employing their talents so that they can have the capacity to grow as leaders (Carswell, 2021).

Transformative philosophy

Transformative Philosophy (TP) articulates a new conception of philosophy through a discussion of salient themes in the analytical tradition, in the work of the later Wallgren (2006). Emphasis is placed on the care of others and the self, while individuals are in a position to influence the development of a personal leadership individuality in a transformative manner, with an adjustment in terms of their thoughts, thinking, prejudices, identity, and reasoning and which may lead to a new alignment of the self (Natanasabapathy & Maathuis-Smith, 2019).

Methodology and research design

This chapter adopted a qualitative research approach to assist in theory building and understanding (McGregor, 2019) of a transformative philosophy for TLs' TD. A literature review was employed to share knowledge, information, and skills regarding TLs' TD. A policy analysis was conducted to "offer a new set of tools to begin to try to explain things" (Ball, 1990:18). Interpretive policy analysis was applied to analyse stipulations in the national policy framework for teacher education and development in South Africa (NPFTED) (RSA, 2006), teacher professional development masterplan 2017–2022 (TPDM) (RSA, 2018), and skills

development guidelines for employees in the basic education sector (SDG) (RSA, 2022) to interpret meanings that are communicated regarding TLs' TD.

In the next section, we provide an explication of relevant literature that was consulted for this chapter.

Literature review

Firstly, teacher leadership can be explained as

> *A form of leadership beyond headship or formal position. It refers to teachers becoming aware of and taking up informal and formal leadership roles both in the classroom and beyond. It includes teachers working collaboratively with all stakeholders toward a shared and dynamic vision of their school within a culture of fairness, inclusion, mutual respect, and trust (Grant, 2008:88P).*

Secondly, teacher leadership should capacitate the individual to "do amazing things; they will initiate, innovate, implement and share a wide range of projects which can develop collaborative professional learning, improve practice and support student learning" (Harris & Jones, 2019:125).

Thirdly, teacher leadership can be described as

> *the influence one person has on others; it could mean an ability to transmit or project particular values in such a manner that they influence others and finally, leadership is associated with the ability of the person to be visionary and able to direct others towards the achievement of a particular goal (Makoelle & Makhalemele, 2020:296).*

Phrases such as "dynamic vision" (Grant, 2008), "they will initiate, innovate and implement" (Harris & Jones, 2019), and "able to direct others" (Makoelle & Makhalemele, 2020) provide an existential understanding of TD as a process of freedom, self-transcendence, striving for excellence and building up teacher leadership habits. From a philosophical perspective, TD is about advancing the leadership competencies of teachers in such a way that they are creative and active participants in enacting and improving their leadership abilities while inspiring others to be leaders (Zahorsky, 2010). Although TD has strong ties with the development of the self, and although it is not an all-inclusive approach, TD

strategies should be customised to meet the needs of individuals (Garavan, Carbery & Rock, 2012). In so doing, TD becomes a continuous developmental process, specifically about the nurturing of programmes that would support TLs' learning and growth (Masionis, 2022). Such programmes can be derived from education policy documents, specifically about TLs' TD. Education policy documents are construed as expressions of information, ideas, and intentions (Olssen, Codd & O'Neil, 2004) and can therefore be useful to search for leadership development opportunities regarding TLs' TD.

Significantly, leadership programmes for TD may assist TLs in the:

> *exercise of power on the self, by the self … which is also a form of submission, as the self, yields to its own power, and its will is articulated with that of the world around it in a series of tasks (Miller, 2012:271).*

Thus, by guiding TLs, TD may be considered to be "a possibility of a new form of right" (Foucault, 1977:15). Interpreting the aforementioned authors (Foucault, 1977; Miller, 2012), TD presupposes that TLs be guided in such a way that they have a renewed positive attitude towards their jobs, while taking responsibility for committing themselves to the education profession in a self-governing manner. Emphasis should thus be placed on developing teachers' leadership talents, and such teacher leadership development should be based on the advancement of competence, capacity, and self-efficacy (Isa *et al*., 2018).
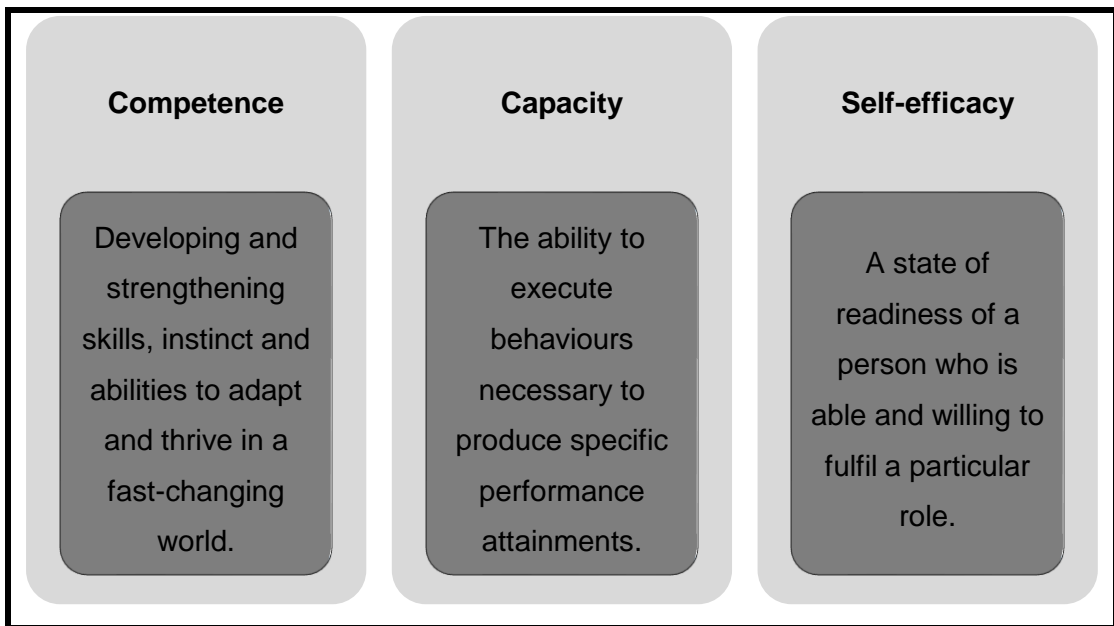
Competence	Capacity	Self-efficacy
Developing and strengthening skills, instinct and abilities to adapt and thrive in a fast-changing world.	The ability to execute behaviours necessary to produce specific performance attainments.	A state of readiness of a person who is able and willing to fulfil a particular role.

Figure 1: Advancement of teacher leadership talent

Source: Adapted from Isa *et al*. (2018)

Although scholars have theorized about self-efficacy, capability, and competence, it is not known how it may be enacted skilfully. Hussain and Khan (2022) report that individuals may have a certain level of skill in an activity, but it does not mean that they have a belief about their capability to perform that very activity. Undoubtedly, self-efficacy plays a vital role in changing individuals' perceptions nurtured through influence, thoughts, and motivation. When TLs competently act with self-efficacy, they can be directed to become reliable capable problem solvers and decision makers (Robescu *et al*., 2021) who can create ingenious work while making a difference in schools (Aina & Atin, 2020). The idea would be to introduce competence, capacity, and self-efficacy as ethical values so that TLs can become the best versions of themselves in terms of their ability to enact leadership in schools (Caldwell & Anderson, 2018).

Despite an awareness of what TD may entail and although numerous teachers in South Africa already are in a position to enact leadership, they do not see themselves as individuals who take the lead because they have not been appointed to official leadership or decision-making positions (Van der Vyver, Fuller & Khumalo, 2021). Harris and Jones (2020) advocate for a modification in school leadership

practices to build teacher leadership skills such as leadership and capacity building. In this regard, contemporary knowledge can be useful to extend the underlying assumptions in education policy, while researchers should continue with "a war for talent" (Meyers & Van Woerkom, 2014:194).

The role of education policy in talent development

De Klerk (2014) asserts that education policy reforms in the 21st century have placed a new kind of emphasis on teaching as an occupation, specialized individuality, and the professional growth of teachers. Ball (1993:14) explains that policy text is conveyed by a thought of policy as discourse, "principally to explain what policy text contains concerning what can be said, and thought, but also who can speak, where and with what authority". Education policy discourses thus call for innovative ideas about TD. Hence we contend that it is significant to find "a different tone, a different way of looking, a different way of speaking and a different way of thinking" (Olssen, Codd & O'Neill, 2004:60) about TLs' TD. We therefore are in congruence with the notion that we should be considerate as to how the regularities in education policy documents are construed as ideas and information (Olssen *et al*., 2004) about TD.

As academics, we are cognisant of the fact that education policy regulates the educational practices of teachers using prescriptive legislation and mechanisms of control. The regulatory function of education policy, according to Olssen *et al*. (2004: 2), should be seen as discursive embodiments of the dynamics of various elements which underlie social practices at particular points in time. Therefore "reading education policy is not an activity that involves just understanding it as the declarations of policymakers, but also recognizing, rather, that the discursive formations they contain . . . await decoding" (Olssen *et al*., 2004:2). The philosophical challenge of decoding education policy text does not consist of abandoning, changing, or replacing existing knowledge about TLs' TD. Rather, we endeavoured to search for innovative views regarding TLs' TD as articulated in South African education policies. From a TP perspective, teachers are encouraged to be the best leaders they can be because their ethical responsibility is to add value to their development as well as to society (Hooper & Caldwell, 2018).

In this chapter we analysed stipulations from the NPFTED (RSA, 2006), TPDM (RSA, 2018), and SDG (RSA, 2022). Firstly, the NPFTED aims "to properly equip teachers to undertake their essential and demanding tasks, to enable them to continually enhance their professional competence and performance, and to raise the esteem in which they are held by the people of South Africa" (RSA, 2006:4). This policy aims to advance the capabilities of teachers, especially those who are devoted to providing quality education, as well as those who uphold professional and ethical standards of conduct (RSA, 2006). Secondly, the TPDM aims to improve the quality of programmes aimed at teacher development so that teachers can be regarded as skilled and talented individuals (RSA, 2018). It is further indicated in this policy that "teacher development will be most successful in an environment where the career pathways and incentives (including non-financial incentives) experienced by teachers are clear and conducive to retaining teachers, specially dedicated and talented ones, within the profession" (RSA, 2018:15). Thirdly, the SDG aims to improve skills development processes and ensure that quality education is delivered (RSA, 2022). The policy further sets out guidelines which can be used "to discuss skills development issues with a wider audience as part of the drive to life-long learning" (RSA, 2022:9).

The aforementioned policies typify education policies as conversational methods, groups of activities, manuscripts, and practices that contain expressions of teachers' professional development (Ball, 2015). Therefore, we interrogate TLs' TD, particularly emerging meanings about what has been suppressed, and overlooked by school leaders and teachers themselves in terms of South African education policy. Subsequently, we apply a TP to analyse how South African education policy documents can be considered as directives for TL development in terms of TD.

The notion of a transformative philosophy

TP is generally considered as

> *an ethically based way of thinking, feeling, and interacting that earns the respect, trust, and commitment of others by effectively aligning purpose, principles,*

> *policies, people, practices, and priorities in the constant pursuit of long-term value creation as well as performance excellence (Hooper & Caldwell, 2018:9).*

For decades, leadership experts have called on leaders to adopt a new and higher standard – a transformative philosophical standard (Caldwell & Anderson, 2018) that would raise the bar of leaders' commitment to the self, school, as well as society, to become their very best selves. Thus a TP assumes that teachers may be allowed to act as autonomous professionals (Mezirow, 1998), while they are guided on how to open themselves to experience that "all of a sudden you are free and your baggage is gone" (Spooner & John, 2020:275); thus emphasizing the influential intercession that may be brought about by the adoption of a TP. In this way, an openness to a different version of the self may contribute to people being able to influence the advancement of a personal leadership identity in a transformative manner, with a modification in terms of their thinking, subjectivity, identity, and cognition and which may lead to a new positioning of the self (Natanasabapathy & Maathuis-Smith, 2019). For example, four decades ago, James McGregor Burns (1978) called for a "transformative" modification in leadership that would incorporate partnership, collaboration, and influence so that leaders would adhere to innovative and more active ways of how to enact leadership (Covey, 2004). In applying new thinking, leaders in schools should be cognisant of six components associated with TP.
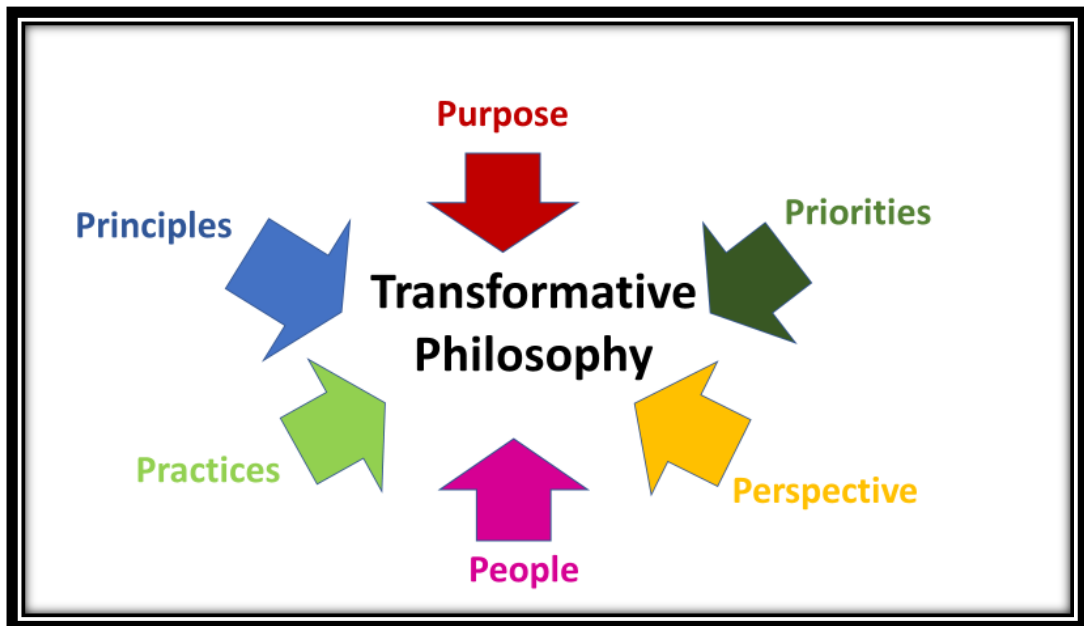
Figure 2: Components of a transformative philosophy

Source: Caldwell, Hooper & Atwijuka (2018:54)

The components outlined in Figure 2 may be explained as follows:

- **Purpose:** TP encourages leaders to be excellent at what they do and their ethical responsibility to add value to society.
- **Principles:** Underlying values and assumptions that can involve transforming perspectives, implying that individuals can pursue innovative leadership roles that are compatible with the new talents.
- **Practices:** Comprise the procedures and policies that are part of a fundamental viewpoint and that are applied to operationalize a viewpoint.
- **People:** The role that people play is of critical importance in terms of what they believe in, what they can put up with, and the way they react to certain situations.
- **Perspective:** A specific way of thinking about things, particularly those things that are influenced by experiences or beliefs.
- **Priorities:** These confirm what matters most, while positive behaviour is appreciated (Caldwell, Hooper & Atwijuka, 2018).

A recognition of the aforementioned TP components can be associated with the view that "great souls and creative talents produce 'offspring' which can be enjoyed

by others: wisdom, virtue, poetry, art, temperance, justice, and the law" (Plato, 340 BC, as cited in Manasseh, 2019:1). When individuals are sensitized to the transformative power within, that is, the creative talents they possess, they may be moved to act upon the self by asking "for more specific examples of how this may be accomplished or applied" (Papadimos, Manos & Murray, 2013:4). We advance the argument that an analysis of education policy documents may provide innovative perspectives related to TLs' TD. An innovative perspective may be referred to as a mode of *criticality* which includes the capacity to think outside a context of a conservative understanding of things (Burbules & Berk, 1999). By adopting a critical stance, and advancing new perspectives about TLs' TD, we concur with Foucault who asserts that individuals should: "Think differently, instead of legitimizing what is already known" (Foucault, 1985:9). Thinking differently opens spaces for TD and talent sustainability in schools.

Talent sustainability as a transformative leadership strategy in schools

With the implementation of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations [UN], 2015) and its related 17 Sustainable Development Goals, organizations internationally were invited to play a leadership role in encouraging forthcoming cohorts of people to encourage sustainable growth. To adhere to the UN's call, "educators are called to break down the traditional status quo of sage-on-the-stage, embracing more interdisciplinary and transdisciplinary education and learning schemes that go in the direction of transforming the role of the teacher in a guide-on-the-side" (Klein, 2021:8628). Drawing on Shields and Hesbol (2020), this "guide-on-the-side" strongly aligns with the transformative leadership talents of teachers in that TD may offer a promise of greater individual achievement (as leaders), but also empower teachers to sustain a better life in tandem with others.

Like in all organizations, talent sustainability in schools refers to a continuous attraction, development, and retention of teachers as leaders - individuals who have been empowered with the capabilities necessary to create a culture of excellence within schools (Chandrasekar & Zhao, 2020). An interesting observation

is that, for TLs to be regarded as empowered individuals, teachers would need thorough coaching as to how to utilize talent (Garvey, Stokes & Megginson, 2017) to enact leadership. Coaching is a developing interposition generally used for performance and leadership advancement and is grounded in, for example, "long-term, bespoke, developmental, inter-connective, trustworthy and reflective aspects" (Mangion-Thornley, 2021:9). See Figure 3.

Long-term: Individual opportunities for personal growth and emancipation.

Bespoke: An encouraging attitude towards talent training may be interpreted as a signal of the behaviour of leaders in terms of what they can and what they cannot do.

Developmental: Individuals have the potential to be excellent in a particular field, depending on ability and strength.

Inter-connective: Things are mutually woven together and, therefore, have an affinity for each other.

Trustworthy: The rational ground of our trusting others at the individual and institutional level.

Reflective: The reflective mind is considered to include decision-making, mental stimulation and goal-adoption.
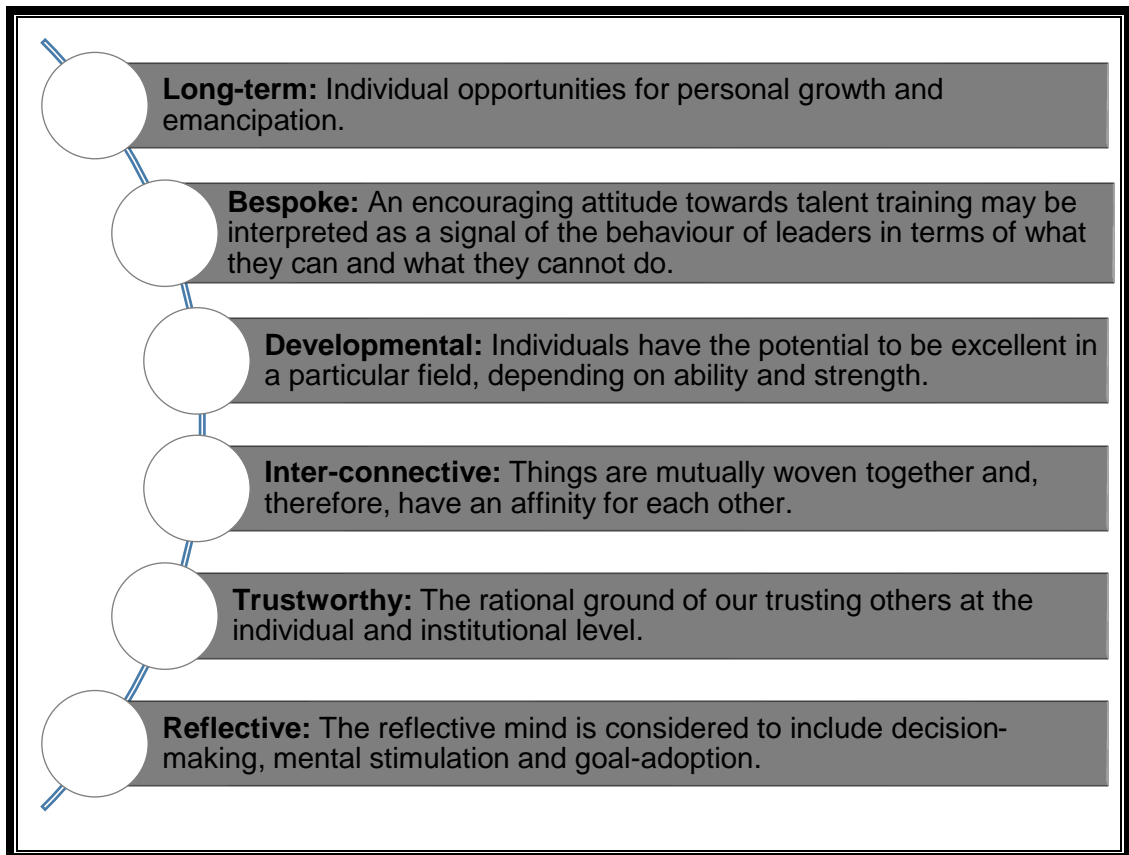
Figure 3: Factors of coaching for talent sustainability

Source: Own construction based on the views of Mangion-Thornley (2021:9)

From a transformative philosophical stance, the coaching factors mentioned above can contribute to talent sustainability because of the idea that talent is a dormant and rare concept that can be left unexploited if it remains unexplored (Gagné, 2004). Significantly, a transformative view on talent sustainability against the background of talent coaching can be placed in parallel with the discourse of transformative leadership development. Transformative leadership requires

individuals to work towards transformation: liberation, emancipation, democracy, equity, and excellence (Shields, 2011). Drawing on Shields (2011), we maintain that a transformative view on talent sustainability pertains to individual private good, implying that when the learning environment for TD is equitable, inclusive, and respectful, teachers may be more willing to act as knowledgeable, intellectual, and talented leaders. Arguably, the significance of talent sustainability for TLs is significant in promoting a stable and sustainable learning environment in the face of political turmoil, cultural change, technological advancement, globalization, technological advancement and pandemics such as COVID-19 (Newstead *et al.*, 2019). TD, as a part of leadership development, therefore, is an important measurement for the advancement, alteration, and sustenance of schools (Sinar *et al.*, 2018). TD initiatives should, thus, constantly be revised for significance and influence (McCauley & Palus, 2020). With the shortage of competencies, experience, and talent, schools should be able to nurture and retain talent by fostering an enabling learning environment as well as the advancement of skills so that teachers would become self-driven, intellectual leaders and transformative learners (Hall, Yip & Doiron, 2018; Hirschi & Koen, 2021).

Transformative learning theory

Mezirow's Transformative Learning Theory (TLT) is regarded as a method of teaching based on encouraging transformation, where educators challenge learners to censoriously assess and question the truth of their intensely held conventions about how they relate to the world around them (Mezirow, 1991). Pertinent to this study is the notion that teachers' assumptions about leadership talents can be transformed. Notably, TLT invites individuals to pay attention to the abilities they have and then to open themselves to the numerous opportunities for transformative development (Mezirow, 2000). It advocates for a modification of individuals' meaning perspectives, which are part of their frame of reference (Mezirow, 1991). Meaning perspectives imply that individuals are in a position to adjust their thinking about what they can do and what they can be, based on new information (Mezirow, 2000). When individuals consider new knowledge, transformative learning contributes to a critical consciousness of latent beliefs or

prospects and the assessment thereof so that they can interpret and assess their beliefs (Mezirow, 2000). In line with teacher leadership, TLT thus facilitates a fundamental modification of awareness that changes teachers' perspectives about the talents they might have and how to use newly developed talents to enact leadership efficiently.

In this chapter our analysis of education policy documents aims to encourage teachers to rethink the meaning they bring to their learning spaces in terms of their ability to enact leadership in schools. In this context, TLT "may be defined as learning that transforms frames of reference to make them more inclusive, discriminating, reflective, open, and emotionally able to change" (Mezirow, 2009:22). In presenting TD (from an education policy perspective) to TLs in schools, two pertinent aspects emerge (Mezirow, 1991). Firstly, a huge change is said to transpire when TLs' meaning perspectives changes very quickly. Secondly, when TLs' meaning perspectives regarding their ability to enact leadership have changed, they may be more comfortable about what they can do and what they can be. When a change in perspective occurs, TLs may find themselves "trying new roles; and building competence and self-confidence in new roles and relationships; and a reintegration into one's life based on conditions dictated by one's new perspectives" (Howie & Bagnall, 2013:8). Thus, after education policy perspectives about TD have been implemented, TLs may experience a sense of being and becoming. According to Natanasabapathy and Maathuis-Smith (2019), a sense of *being* reflects the behaviour of an individual at a given moment in time. This implies that teachers, as leaders, may investigate their abilities before engaging with transformative TD policy suggestions. A sense of *becoming* is a change to a personification of the anticipated transformation which will validate a transformative movement (Natanasabapathy & Maathuis-Smith, 2019). This implies that a transformed attitude, behaviour or belief could occur over a prolonged duration to validate that transformation has effectively taken place. We argue that providing TLs with knowledge regarding TD not only helps them to gain knowledge but hope that they would implement such knowledge to experience a transformation in character and behaviour.

In this chapter, we contend that transformation establishes a particular foundation, and creates new considerations about what it means to be a leader. Our view is supported by Newman's (2012) assertion that transformative learning involves an entire connection of learning and transformation with, "transformation being regarded as an alternative way of saying learning and learning another way of saying transformation" (Newman, 2012:36). This is further confirmed by the notion that:

> *transformative learning is about revolutionary enlightenment in a person's psyche – neither simply a learning of skills or ideas, nor simply an awakening in some spiritual sense, but an awakening that leads to new learning that otherwise would not have occurred (Mezirow, 2000, as cited in Howie & Bagnall, 2013:14).*

When aligned with TP, "revolutionary enlightenment" and "awakening" signify that to be transformative is to identify the necessity for unremitting development in a world defined by continuous change (Caldwell, Hooper & Atwijuka, 2018). Notably, TLT, aligned with TP, is an innovative contribution to the dictionary of leadership because it offers a context for guiding TLs in an environment of constant change.

In line with policy analysis, transformative learning should not be considered as just an additional theory because it should be regarded as the essence of adult education (Mezirow, 2015:11). Significantly, adults (teachers) should be assisted to become independent thinkers because they should learn to negotiate their talents, rather than to act on those of others. In this regard, Mezirow (2015:15) asserts that "This goal cannot be taken for granted; educational interventions are necessary to ensure that the learner acquires the understandings, skills, and dispositions essential for transformative learning". Teachers should, therefore, learn how to define their talents, needs, and objectives so that they become more tolerant and more accepting of themselves and others (Howie & Bagnall, 2013).

A transformative philosophical framework for teacher leaders' talent development

We drew on the works of some philosophers (above) to inform our policy analysis of stipulations in NPFTED (RSA, 2006), TPDM (RSA, 2018), and SDG (RSA, 2022) to derive novel perspectives regarding TD for TLs in schools.

Significantly, the contribution that philosophy may make to educational policy does not need to be a virtuously philosophical one but can (and sometimes should) be related to any part of critical and thoughtful contributions of a broader kind (Bridges, 1997). In this regard, "fruitful and responsible discussions of educational policy inevitably move to the larger philosophic questions that prompt and inform them" (Oksenberg Rorty 1998:1). Oksenberg Rorty (1998) maintains that educational policy should be seen as a shadow without the direction that policy can provide philosophy; therefore, philosophical intelligence can contribute to meaning-making of TD for TLs in schools. To a large or minor degree, several educational policies encompass commitments, expectations, values, ideas, and opinions, which, if not themselves of a directly philosophical kind, are suitable for theoretical consideration (McLaughlin, 2000). As such, philosophy should be regarded as informative because policy contains "multiple human activities, experiences, purposes, and needs*" (Scheffer, 1991:104) and so extensive human consideration is required for the valuable contribution philosophy is making concerning policy decisions.

Stipulations pertinent to TD were extracted from the aforementioned three policies and analysed. The stipulations were coded to derive themes about TD for TLs. Three themes emerged: perspectives as talent; a culture of talent development and performativity as an act of talent development. The themes were then analysed using interpretive policy analysis and the findings were discussed and interpreted. In Figure 4, we depict our proposed transformative philosophy framework.

A new thought: Perspectives as talent

A new move towards a transformative understanding of TD should start with an engagement with transformed perspectives of what can or cannot be done. Thus, when TLs face transformation in their workspaces, they should first start to develop a talent to listen, "to [their] own bodies and their manifold ways of perceiving and knowing, beyond the obvious and visible" (Formenti & West, 2018:1). This is because schools require thinking, authentic, caring and empathic citizens – individuals who can interrogate their own stories that would map out a realistic version of the talents they may possess. When aligned with TD, TLs should be cognizant of the fact that,

> as adults we are perspective takers and our ways of seeing and being both shape and are shaped by our ongoing experience of the world: what lies out there shapes the internal world, while all that we know is a product of our perception (Formenti & West, 2018:2).

When TLs consider themselves as perspective takers, they realize that perspective transformation is a dynamic process, a talent in itself as that relates to their selfhood in open and curious ways (McCormack, 2019).

South African education policy documents confirm that transformative perspectives signify talents in that, "the professional education and development of teachers works best when teachers themselves are integrally involved in it, reflecting on their practice" (RSA, 2006:5). Furthermore, teachers' perspectives can be changed, "partly through feedback from teachers themselves" (RSA, 2018:15), and schools are encouraged to, "inculcate a culture of life-long learning, enabling employee access to and participation in skills development" RSA, 2022:9). Phrases like "teachers themselves are integrally involved" (RSA, 2006:5), "from teachers themselves" (RSA, 2018:15) and "access to and participation in" (RSA, 2022:9) show that there can be varying narratives and divergent perspectives on how teachers lead and manage themselves in new ways. TLs may, through critical reflection, realize that innovative meaning structures need to be formed and action should be taken to break away from their fears in terms of their development (Formenti & West, 2018). Words such as "reflecting" (RSA, 2006:5), "feedback" (RSA, 2018:15),

and "inculcate" (RSA, 2022:9) can be associated with individuals' ability to become critically aware of how to use their inner strengths to change their perspectives about themselves and their roles as leaders in schools. Teachers must therefore take a critical stance to

> become aware of how . . . [they] perceive, understand, and feel about [their] world; of reformulating these assumptions to permit a more inclusive, discriminating, permeable, and integrative perspective; and of making decisions or otherwise acting upon these new understandings (Mezirow, 1990:14).

The above statement implies that if TLs contemplate the transformative perspective as a talent, they will be able to mirror their intensely entrenched frames of reference and become open to altering these in response to the significance of the leadership roles they can play. The exciting part that schools can play in unlocking TLs' perspective talents would be to involve teachers in the discovery of a renewed sense of confidence and empowerment, a deeper consideration for the inner self as well as a more developed sense of self-responsibility (Mezirow, 2000). For TLs, the concept of transformative perspectives as a talent suggests that they should work on themselves (Foucault, 1977) while reflecting on their growth through the use of insightful journaling, engaging in dialogues, and critical interrogation of who they are and what talented individuals they would like to become. This also implies that TLs should recognize that becoming more thoughtful is a changing process (Taylor, 2008) and that by cultivating transformative perspectives as talent, it is believed that TLs can renew and change their views, expectations, and experiences into brand new expressive perspectives (Mezirow, 2000).

Fostering a culture for talent development

A culture for TD should encapsulate a robust talent value plan inclusive of a fascinating organizational and engagement product as well as an appropriately collected talent career life cycle (Saurombe, Barkhuizen & Schutte, 2017). Such an inclusive culture should be aligned with the prospect of offering equality of opportunity. In ensuring fairness toward teachers regarding TD, schools should

consider a leadership talent mindset, success orientation, and nurturing of capabilities (Masale, Barkhuizen & Schutte, 2021) so that senior management team members can assist teachers to develop leadership talents. The aforementioned view does not negate TLs' talents nor their potential to develop certain talents. Arguably, to say that those individuals do not have a talent often implies that their ordinary abilities set boundaries for what they can do. For example, an individual can certainly not be a pilot or attain such skill, thus having no natural talent for flying (Brighouse, 2014). The point is not that teachers lack particular talents, but that latent talents of teachers need to be developed so that they can enact leadership more effectively. To address the possibility that TLs may have underdeveloped talents, education policies, and practices can be used to speak to TD. Education policies play a crucial role in fostering a culture of TD because the enactment of policy may assist with attracting, developing, supporting, and retaining talent (Great Teacher & Leaders, 2014).

Thus, to assist schools to foster a culture of TD, South African education policy documents indicate that schools should create conditions for "greater professional autonomy and require teachers to have new knowledge and applied competences, including the use of new technologies" (RSA, 2006:6). Schools should also create "an environment where the career pathways and incentives (including non-financial incentives) experienced by teachers are clear and conducive to retaining teachers, especially dedicated and talented ones, within the profession" (RSA, 2018:15). Therefore, it is imperative to conduct a "training needs analysis which involves assessing the skill, knowledge and attitude that the people currently possess and what is required to achieve organisation objectives and goals" (RSA, 2022:28). Interpreting the afore-indicated stipulations, we regard phrases like "new knowledge and applied competences", "career pathways are clear" and "assessing the skill, knowledge and attitude" as vital ingredients of a culture for TD development. It requires the nurturing of human capital, thus putting plans in place so that TLs can increase their productive capacity through education and skills training. The role of education policy in nurturing a culture for TD can be associated with Schultz's idea "…to treat education as an investment in man and to treat its consequences as a form of capital" (Schultz, 1960:571). This statement is congruent

with the view Masale *et al*. (2021) advanced that training concerning a leadership talent mindset, talent succession, and the nurturing of capabilities are ideal determinants to foster a culture for TD.

A leadership talent mindset is concerned with the degree of answerability that leaders are prepared to accept within organizations (Saurombe *et al*., 2017). Thus TLs' mindsets must direct how they understand and think about circumstances, including the decisions for which they are responsible. Certainly, the mindset of TLs will influence their interactions and relationships and how they lead. To examine the actions TLs may explore to acquire supplementary talents, education policy advises that schools create the space for them to obtain clarity about the cognisant and insentient beliefs they hold (Working Knowledge, 2022). A consideration of such beliefs and how they inform actions is significant to understanding different mindsets, while TLs position themselves to apply new knowledge and competencies.

Talent succession requires schools to ensure that TD is geared towards leadership innovation and a focus on people, while safeguarding that it is not merely about career planning, but a practical method relevant to the advancement of teacher leadership talent (Siambi, 2022). To this end, TD should be a continuous, focused, and demanding process by providing teachers with the experience, information, capabilities, and competencies that are essential to fill some of the vacant positions in schools. TD would then be situated within a culture of performance and stability. Significantly then, education policies, programmes, procedures, and practices must offer a solid foundation to accommodate a culture for TD because it would encourage leadership retention and impose smooth organizational change (Barrios, Prowse & Vargas, 2020). The justification of the role of education policy and culture for TD arises from its worth in the scrutiny of contemporary and forthcoming leadership talents which embodies continuing talent identification, the building of networks, leadership succession, and professional development (Egbuta, 2019).

The nurturing of capabilities should be regarded as technology for self-improvement because it may:

permit individuals to effect by their own means or with the help of others a certain number of operations on their own bodies and souls, thoughts, conduct and way of being, so as to transform themselves in order to attain a certain state of happiness, purity, wisdom, perfection, or immortality (Foucault, 1988:18).

Drawing on Foucault (1988), a transformation of the self, within a culture of TD, would require that TLs embrace self-improvement as the outcome of an individual choice aimed at stronger leadership abilities. By implication, TLs discover personal competencies and abilities in their search for manifold realities of who they are and what they can do (Foucault, 1988). Thus, when schools endorse a culture of TD, TLs will be empowered to use their talents to make autonomous choices about their leadership abilities, while acting on the freedom that such talent may bring.

Performativity as an act of talent development

Performativity advocates that individuals, in terms of education policy, are capable of transforming the self in line with the opportunities and choices articulated in policy (Cover, 2012). The aim of performativity, Ball (2012) states, is to reorientate educational and theoretical operations towards those orientations that are expected to have a promising influence on TLs' lives. TLs must take charge of their personal talent development while harnessing their emerging selves through resilience in striving to become experts (Kim, 2010). The idea here is that TLs should engage professionally in TD because "performativity offers us the possibility of being better than we were, or even being the best – better than others" (Ball, 2010:125). In becoming better, performativity as an act of TD may assist TLs in becoming a new kind of professional; individuals who can work on themselves while reorganizing their sense of self in response to the talents they already have (Ball, 2003, as cited in Walls, 2022).

Performativity in relation to the education realm should aim to "supply the system with players capable of acceptably fulfilling their roles" (Lyotard, 1984:57). In this regard, South African education policy documents are explicit that it is important to "achieve a community of competent teachers dedicated to providing education of high quality, with high levels of performance as well as ethical and professional

standards of conduct" (RSA, 2006:5). It is also necessary to "strengthen leadership and management in schools" (RSA, 2018:58) to "improve the knowledge, skills, and abilities for employees to achieve the goal of quality education" (RSA, 2022:16). Concepts including "performance", "strengthen" and "improve" may be considered as performative acts towards TD. Notably, TD hinges on the notion that TLs acknowledge that the development they experience may help them to create a transformed kind of awareness – a kind of identity of the self. Here TLs would be placed in a position to perform as self-determining individuals; that is, they use opportunities afforded them to transform their individualities (Kipnis, 2011). As TLs anticipate their self-transformations in terms of performativity, they should be cognizant that "the foremost importance regarding life and work is to become somebody you weren't in the beginning" (Foucault, 1988:9). A transformation of the self then becomes a self-analytical excavation, resulting in a philosophical action that individuals (in this instance TLs) may desire to follow (Foucault, 1988).

A closer look at performativity as an act of TD can be expressed as follows:

> *A new kind of teacher and new kinds of knowledge are called up by educational reform - a teacher who can maximize performance, who can set aside irrelevant principles, or out-moded social commitments, for whom excellence and improvement are the driving force of their practice (Foucault, 1980:81-82).*

Foucault's (1980) view implies that TLs should perform in such a manner that they use their talents to advance their leadership, consistently growing in capability. This point indirectly takes issue with the claim that TD can contribute to talented TLs – individuals who exploit learning opportunities and who have the talent to create creative works, while actively working to make a difference in schools (Aina & Atin, 2020; Rasmussen & Lingard, 2018).
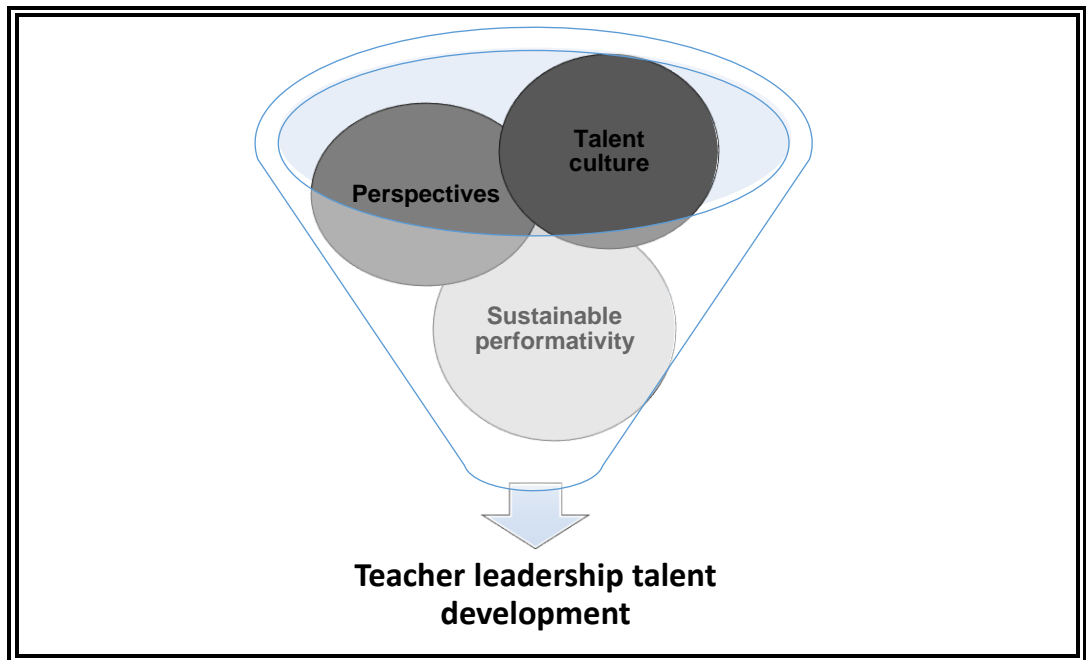
Figure 4: Transformative philosophy framework for talent development

Source: Own construction

Limitations

This conceptual chapter contributes to the knowledge corpus by offering additional knowledge concerning TLs' TD from a transformative philosophy point of view. Since a policy analysis was conducted, it excludes the voices of school leaders (principals, deputy principals, department heads) and teachers regarding their perceptions and experiences of TLs' TD. In practice, neither a desirable number of policy stipulations (objectives) can be identified nor can all the identified alternatives be analysed in detail.

Implications

Information in this chapter requires school leaders and teachers to strengthen their understanding of education policy options related to the TD of TLs in schools. Furthermore, school leaders should be trained on how to view TD from a transformative lens so that TLs can have an equal opportunity to expand their talents and strengthen their leadership abilities.

Conclusions and recommendations

This chapter aimed to propose a transformative philosophy framework for TLs' TD. We are cognisant of the fact that teacher leadership is not widely practised (Lowery-Moore *et al*., 2016) and that teachers are not always aware that they perform leadership duties in schools (Van der Vyver *et al*., 2021). Considering the changing nature of school leadership, we are also aware that opportunities exist for the development of teachers' talents so that they can be in a stronger position to make leadership decisions and to make a significant impact concerning whole-school development, learning, and teaching (Doherty, 2021). In this chapter, we argued that a TP regarding TLs' TD can motivate school leaders and teachers to influence the development of leadership talents in a transformative manner, with an adjustment in terms of how they think about the enactment of leadership.

Two objectives relevant to TD were indicated. Concerning the first objective, the main findings are as follows:

- TD is about inspiring TLs to use their ability to acquire knowledge, to be creative, and to act autonomously to grow in competence and confidence as leaders;
- Education policy plays a significant role in allowing TLs to open themselves to TD to recognize their intrinsic talents. That is, to become dynamic and autonomous; and
- Talent can be wasted if it remains undiscovered; therefore TLs should be guided on how to become self-driven intellectual leaders and transformative learners.

In light of the main findings from the literature and relevant policy stipulations analysed in this study, TLs may possess a certain level of talent, but if empowered with how to use their talents, they may act with self-efficacy, enact competence and become individuals capable of leading with competence.

Concerning the second objective, the analysis of stipulations from the NPFTED (RSA, 2006), TPDM (RSA, 2018), and SDG (RSA, 2022) indicates that a transformative philosophy in terms of TD implies that TLs can be guided to:

- discover a new sense of confidence, a more profound consideration of the inner self, as well as a greater sense of responsibility;
- cultivate a talent mindset so that they would engage in self-improvement while enjoying the freedom that transformative talent may bring; and
- Become better leaders than they have been before; thus establishing a changed consciousness to experience a transformed version of the already talented self.

This implies that TLs, from a transformative philosophical perspective, may be in a position to use their talents to become transformative leaders who contribute meaningfully to the advancement of inclusion, equity, and social justice in schools.

We would like to invite academic scholars and educationists to employ ways of thinking regarding TLs and TD where universal truths about (education policy) texts, discourses, and constructions of meaning are questioned. The latter recommendation is based on the notion that information about TLs and TD changes over time which implies that more meanings about the two mentioned constructs in education policy discourses wait to be explored and communicated. An empirical study would be another valuable avenue for research to elicit the voices of school leaders after an application of the suggested transformative philosophy framework for TLs' TD. Examining school leaders and teachers' perspectives on TLs' TD may grant them a window of opportunity to become aware of the value of developing teachers as leaders within the school.

CHAPTER 9:

THE "TALENT" TO CORRUPT OR BE CORRUPTED IN THE WORKPLACE: AN ETHICAL APPRAISAL

Johannes (Hannes) L van der Walt
Research Fellows, Edu-HRight Research Focus Area, Faculty of Education, North-West University, Potchefstroom

Izak J Oosthuizen
Research Fellows, Edu-HRight Research Focus Area, Faculty of Education, North-West University, Potchefstroom

Abstract

Many tempting opportunities in the workplace exist for workers and management to engage in corruptive activities; either as agent or as victim or colluder. After explaining the meaning of the term "corruption", the authors conclude that corruptive behaviour can be ascribed to the innate depravity of mankind, and that special measures should be taken to avoid getting entangled in such behaviour, among others preventive steps to be taken in pedagogical (training) context. A number of moral issues pertaining to corruptive behaviour in the workplace are then explicated and examined: the importance of commitment to the social contract implicitly present in the workplace, also of trust, a sense of duty, an understanding of the consequences of one's actions, utilitarianism, realism and integrity in the workplace. The chapter concludes with a number of tentative guidelines for both management and the worker corps that could arguably contribute to the avoidance of corruption in the workplace. An empirical investigation might reveal the extent to which management and workers in actual fact tend to adhere to the principles as outlined in this chapter.

Keywords

Corruption, education, ethical behaviour, ethics, management, morality, training, workers, workplace

Introductory remarks and aim of the discussion

We all know how it begins, already at home while growing up: cutting corners; making promises but not keeping them; borrowing things from friends and siblings,

and not returning them; "forgetting" to attend to domestic chores; general disobedience; doing things to the disadvantage of siblings and playmates; unfair division of goodies; taking the first choice; and always going for the best, even to the detriment of others – the list is endless. The pattern continues at school: "forgetting" to do homework, and then copying the homework of others; borrowing books and writing materials, and then "forgetting" to return them to their owners; arriving late for school for no justifiable reason; taking shortcuts and cutting corners; and shirking duties but taking the credit – this list too is endless.

Once this pattern of petty corruption has been established, it tends to continue through university, college or other place of training, and is then extended into the workplace and into life in general. Most of us are familiar with how it begins in the workplace: you need a stapler at home, borrow one from the office and merely "forget" to return it; you need writing materials, printer ink, toilet rolls, a litre of gloss paint, a few lengths of wood or steel at home, and then take what is necessary from the office or the factory floor; you need to make a personal call and then make the call from your official telephone in the office, in the process "forgetting" to use the correct code for personal calls; you need a letter typed about the sale of your private home and request your secretary to slip it in between her normal office work; you are supposed to work from 8:00 to 16:30 from Monday to Friday, but you gradually set the pattern of leaving office on Wednesday at 15:00 for your weekly round of golf; you make a long weekend out of a public holiday on a Thursday and the weekend thereafter by taking off the Friday, filling in the application for leave and "forgetting" the application in the top drawer of your desk; you need to buy groceries for the weekend and use the company car during office hours; the company car that you may use to travel from home to work and back is used for a family outing during the weekend – this list of petty corruption in the workplace also is endless.

Petty corruption of the type described above can escalate into large-scale corruption of the type examined by the Zondo Commission in its inquiry into state capture in South Africa (2019-2022). It may also escalate to levels of state and private sector collusion and take the form of bribery, large gifts, graft, clever forms

of theft, tax avoidance, hiding and working with "hot" cash, receiving payment for a project but never delivering, sharing in the spoils of such corruption – likewise, this list is endless. Corruption Watch South Africa (2022) recently listed the following types of corruption that may occur with respect to public or private resources:

- The abuse of money, goods, vehicles, buildings and any other resources that belong to private businesses or the government, such as:
  - pension funds and medical aid funds
  - trade union money and resources
  - lottery money
  - donations to charities
- Bribes paid by business individuals to government officials in order to be given a government contract or license
- The use of government- or business-owned resources, such as motor vehicles, for private purposes
- Government officials taking advantage of their position to favour a family member or business associate for a job or tender contract, commonly called "nepotism"
- Police officers soliciting bribes or members of the public offering bribes in order to escape lawful punishment

Manyaka and Nkuna (2014:1572-1574) provide the following overall sketch of corruption in the private and public sectors. In some cases, resources that are meant to reach socio-economic and developmental objectives are diverted to benefit a small elite. Examples of this are the sale of government property for personal gain by government officials and the collection of bribes for providing permits and licenses, for giving passage through customs or for hindering the participation of competitors in business. Corruption can range from petty incidences (bribes or illicit payments for routine bureaucratic processes) to large-scale projects (e.g., leaders, politicians and senior officials diverting public resources on a large scale to serve their private interests). As mentioned, corruption can even take the form of state capture, a process of collusion between the private sector and politicians or public officials for their own private benefit. It is clear from

the above that corruption can manifest itself in various forms: bribery, nepotism, embezzlement, extortion, nepotism, fraud, theft and conflict of interests.

The purpose of this chapter is not to analyse the scourge of corruption in the workplace and society as such[2] but rather to examine the anatomy of corruption in terms of an ethical appraisal. For this purpose, the remainder of this chapter is composed as follows: The next section contains a discussion of the meaning of the word "corruption". The section thereafter forms a bridge between corruption as a social plague and the violation of ethical or moral[3] principles. This paves the way for an analysis of corruption in the workplace in terms of a number of ethical principles that should ideally be adhered to. The chapter concludes with a number of suggestions with regard to how corruption in the workplace can either be prevented or remediated if already occurring there.

The meaning of the word "corruption" (in the workplace)

In light of the content of the previous section, the perceptive reader would have understood our ironic use of the term "talent" in the title of this chapter. "Talent" in this ironic sense refers to openness, susceptibility, availability, willingness or ability among some people to contemplate, devise, plan or execute corrupt activities, and the openness, willingness, possibly also naïveté, and inclination of their victims or colluders to participate in such activities and share in the spoils. "Talent" in this ironic sense thus refers to the openness on the part of some people to corrupt – we will refer to them as "corrupters or agents of corruption" – and to others who are somehow deceived or coerced into participating in such corrupt activities – we will refer to them as "victims of or participators or colluders in corrupt activities". The agents of corruption tend to take the initiative in

---

[2] Krsteski (2017) can be consulted for a detailed overview of the scale of corruption in South Africa, also in comparison with other countries.

[3] Authors tend to distinguish between "ethics" and "morals", and with good reason. For the purpose of the discussion in this chapter, we use them as synonyms (see, e.g., Grayling, 2019: xvi-xvii; also see Baijnath, 2017:200).

improvising and manipulating a corrupt project or process, and the latter are somehow drawn into such processes or activities of corruption, based on promises of a better future or some personal or professional gain. We will examine the positions and activities of both these participative groups in the ethical appraisal to follow.

First, let us return to the crux of the matter, namely the meaning of the word "corruption". "Corruption" is the noun derived from the infinitive "to corrupt". "Corrupt" is derived from the Latin word corruptus (spoiled), which in turn is derived from corrumpere (to ruin), from rumpere (to break) (Sinclair, 1999:327). According to Cassell's new Latin-English English-Latin dictionary (Simpson 1968:683), "corruption" can be translated back to Latin as corruptio (the state of being corrupt or of corrupting), depravatio (a perverting, distorting, disfiguring, depraving person) and corruptela (the means of corruption, bribery, seduction, or a corrupter). In modern English, the word "corrupt" has come to mean the following: a person or people willing to do dishonest or illegal things in return for money or to get an advantage; dishonest and immoral behaviour; or to have a bad effect on somebody and make him or her behave in an immoral or dishonest way. The noun "corruption" means dishonest or illegal behaviour, especially of people in authority or the act or effect of making somebody change from moral to immoral standards of behaviour (Hornby, 2015:335). The Cambridge international dictionary of English (Procter 2002:308) offers the following meaning of "corrupt" after indicating that it has to do with immoral behaviour: dishonestly using one's position or power to one's own advantage. Also, the word "corruption" is directly linked to crimes and criminals.

It is clear from the preceding analysis of the words "to corrupt" and "corruption" that they relate to dishonest, immoral, unethical and even criminal behaviour. This chapter deals with the dishonesty and immorality associated with corrupt behaviour, which is a widespread problem (Paley, 2021:173). The criminal or legal fallout of corruption and corrupt behaviour falls beyond the scope of this discussion. One of the many causes of corruption that merit special attention from

a principled view is "depravity", which, according to Biblical perspectives, refers to the original, sinful state of the human being. We will return to this in due course.

The nexus between corruption and morality

The moral aspects of corruption are accentuated in the following definition of corruption by Corruption Watch South Africa (2022): "Corruption is the abuse of entrusted resources or power for personal gain. Corruption Watch is concerned with any such abuse by anyone at any level of government or in business" (emphasis added).

The moral aspects of corruption also emerge in the snapshot of the situation in South Africa as portrayed by Risk and Compliance Portal (2020):

> *South Africa suffers from widespread corruption, despite it performing better than regional averages across a number of key measurements. The country has simpler procedures, smoother interactions with tax officials and easier enforcement of commercial contracts than comparable regional countries. Public procurement is particularly prone to corruption, and bribery thrives at the central government level. South Africa has a robust anti-corruption framework, but laws are inadequately enforced. The Prevention and Combating of Corruption Act (PCCA) criminalizes corruption in public and private sectors, including attempted corruption, extortion, active and passive bribery, bribing a foreign public official, fraud, and money laundering, and it obliges public officials to report corrupt activities. It is a criminal offense to provide any form of "gratification" to an official if it is not lawfully due. (emphasis added)*

Corruption, as indicated above, is a two-way process involving an agent and a victim or a colluder who engage in illegitimate and unethical actions that diminish the economic prospects of a country or a business and are to the detriment of the nation or social and political institutions of the business, including its markets and workplaces. In view of this, Manyaka and Nkuna (2014:1573-1574) conclude that corruption refers to "a diversion from the set or accepted norms in the course of performance of one's public duties, for selfish personal gain" (emphasis added). Corruption in any form is detrimental to the public trust and accountability, as it distorts the allocation of public or private resources, thereby reducing economic

growth and increasing poverty. The pursuit of self-interest through corruption can be self-defeating in that resource utilisation becomes less efficient, and group unity in an organisation erodes (Lahti & Weinstein, 2005:53). Corruption also flies in the face of the honest and objective exercise of authority and is therefore morally unacceptable. It threatens the livelihood of everyone by crippling service delivery, undermining economic growth and eroding the legitimacy and functioning of the state and the markets. Corruption embodies a serious contravention of the stipulation in Section 195 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) regarding "the promotion and maintenance of a high standard of professional ethics".

It is interesting to note that in their list of strategies to combat corruption, Manyaka and Nkuna (2014:1577-1578) do not include an exhortation to the citizens of South Africa (and other countries) to revert or devote themselves to ethically or morally justifiable behaviour. They do refer to a renewal of political will, investment into research into corruption, the institution of anti-corruption strategies, the strengthening of constituencies in the fight against corruption, the reduction of opportunities to corrupt and changing incentives for corrupt behaviour. Despite expressing grave concern about corruption in nearly all walks of life in South Africa, Krsteski (2017) also makes no suggestions about the amelioration of the situation in terms of a return to morality or ethical behaviour. To do so is important, according to Liautaud (2021:4): if we do not understand the forces driving ethics failure, such as corrupt activities in the business environment, we have little chance of preventing and remedying them, and hence limited ability to create and inspire ethics success.

Anthropological perspective

Two distinguishable parties are involved in a relationship of corruption, namely an agent and the victim or colluder, as the case may be. The word "agent" is derived from the Latin ago, meaning "I drive, I do" (from agere – to drive, to do) (Grayling, 2021:62) – the person who inspires and takes the initiative in a corruptive relationship. The importance of commencing the discussion at the point of agency

and victimhood cannot be overemphasised: if a worker decides as a matter of principle not to engage, either as an agent (perpetrator) or as a victim (colluder), in corrupt activities, then corruption will obviously not occur and be a problem in the workplace. The problem is, however, as can be seen from the work by Krsteski (2017), that people, including those in the workplace, are susceptible to corruption. This inclination, according to Biblical guidelines, can be ascribed to the natural depravity of the human being – that is, the natural or broken state of humanity.

Scripture provides the following perspectives on the natural, broken or sinful state of humankind. James 4:1-16 and 1 Peter 2:11 describe the natural state of the human being and ascribe it to living far from God and from His ordinances. Luke 12:31-34 states that persons will follow their natural inclination if their heart is not with God and with the cause of his Kingdom. "For everything in the world", according to 1 John 1:16-17, "the cravings of sinful man, the lust of his eyes, and the boasting of what he has and does – comes not from the Father, but from the world" (New International Version [NIV]). Titus (3:3-4) conveys the same message: "At one time we too were foolish, disobedient, deceived and enslaved by all kinds of passions and pleasures. We lived in malice and envy, being hated and hating one another. But when the kindness and love of God our Savior appeared, he saved us, not because of righteous things we had done, but because of his mercy" (NIV). Romans 8:5 is also clear about the anastatic (fallen) heart of the sinner: "Those who live according to the sinful nature have their minds set on what that nature desires …"

Pedagogical perspective

Since it is people who corrupt other people, and people who become corrupted or particate in corruption that comes their way, it comes down to education – at home, at school and during pre-service training and in-service training – to equip the upcoming generation with knowledge of what corruption actually entails and how one can be naïvely and unwittingly become entrapped in a corrupt situation. What is required to avert these threats is to resort to a pedagogy of discernment – a pedagogy that equips young people with the ability to discriminate between

proper behaviour that attests to personal integrity and moral astuteness, and behaviour that might be considered to be or construed as corruptive, despite its ostensibly innocuous appearance in its initial stages (Potgieter, 2015:199-200). A pedagogy of discernment enables a person to perceive, distinguish and apprehend the dangers associated with a particular phenomenon such as an invitation to participate in corrupt behaviour, and to discern "with regard to the shaping, moulding, development, application and realisation of their own ethics and morals" (Potgieter, 2015:200). Potgieter (2015:200) continues: "A pedagogy of discernment … should be about teaching [young people] how to best access the wisdom of their minds, spirits, intuition and emotions in order to allow them to discover what really is essential and enduring in and for their own lives" and, one could add, for their future in the workplace.

Paley (2021:165) uses an interesting metaphor to explain what occurs when young people learn about morals: they get their principles from others (educators and peers) as flamingos gain their colouring from their food, that is, without realising they are doing so and with no way of stopping it from happening. Paley's description of how a young person learns and internalises moral principles in the course of socialisation processes is in order if indoctrination, and hence toxic education, is not intended. Indoctrination and toxic education deprive young people of the freedom to make moral choices for themselves. Bower (2005:279) correctly, in our opinion, observes that only by practising freedom can people acquire the skills necessary to act responsibly.

A pedagogy of discernment is based on a good grasp of the underlying moral principles discussed in the next section of this chapter. Nguyen's (2018:21) empirical study revealed that in schools where values education formed part of the curriculum, "the majority of [the] participants identified honesty as the most important value … and then respect, independence and creativity". Kopp and Mandl (2018:124) agree with this finding and state that values education is not only a primary aim of education but also facilitates peaceful living together; thus, by implication, it appreciably limits the space for corrupt activities. Knowledge and the mastery of values and principles promote discernment between what is morally

acceptable and morally reprehensible behaviour. The next section contains a discussion of some of the key moral principles on which the avoidance of corruption in the workplace depends.

Morality: key to the struggle against corruption in the workplace

Sacks (2021:1) correctly states that in all situations, hence also in the market and workplace, morality is required. Such morality encompasses concern for the welfare of others, an active commitment to justice and compassion, and a willingness not to ask what is good for the self and the self alone in this particular situation (in the workplace, for instance) but what is good for everyone in the situation (Sacks, 2021:1). Baggini (2020:17) concurs by stating that there has to be an ethic of mutuality, which is of a transactional nature and takes the form of a "self-emptying" ethic. In her experiments, Koonce (2018:111) has found that reciprocal and caring relationships are important in developing mutual understandings and creating an atmosphere of respect.

With regard to this, Stornaiuolo and Nicholls (2018:7/20) refer to "a moral project as the act of recognizing the humanity of others and acting upon them without demanding reciprocation". This view resonates with that of Strauss (2009:763-765), namely that an intermodal coherence exists between the economic and social aspects of reality on the one hand, and the moral aspect on the other. This coherence finds expression in showing the necessary respect to others in the course of conducting economics or business and in social interaction (e.g. in dealing with the management, staff or customers). If workers only focused on themselves and what benefits them personally, they would lose sight of the one thing that gives lasting happiness, that is, making life better for others. Sacks (2021:2) points out that market economies will fail if they are not undergirded by a moral sense that puts our shared humanity first. In cases where people (workers) do not identify with others in the institution (business), moral imagination can be used, where they are expected to act in accordance with a fair and reasoned principle. This will help them to show empathy, overriding their natural bias and promoting altruistic behaviour

towards individuals and groups in the organisation with whom they do not have much in common (Bazalgette, 2017:24). Following this strategy is especially useful in institutions of great complexity, where ways have to be found to handle delicate situations, physically as well as philosophically, thereby creating mutually acceptable order and procedures (Plotnitsky, 2006:45, 47).

Pinker (2021:218) claims that there is no final and correct answer to questions of moral valuation; people can use "signal detection thinking" to ascertain whether their actions are consistent with their moral values. Morality can also be seen as the voice of society within the self – the "we" within the "I" or the common good that limits and directs one's pursuit of private gain. Also, morality is what broadens a worker's perspective beyond the self and its desires; it places the worker in the midst of a collective social order, in this case that of the organisation or business, a collective ideally constituted by shared morality (Sacks, 2021:12). Moreover, morality cannot be outsourced by the organisation (management) because it depends on all involved (Sacks, 2021:17).

The sense of morality referred to above has a variety of substantive components and angles, among other things commitment to a social contract, trust, responsibility, duty, consequences, the well-being of all concerned, realism, personal integrity and the need to tap into the true source of morality[4].

Commitment to a social contract in the workplace

A business corporation is not simply a loose collection of individuals coincidentally cooperating in a venture; it is an organic whole comprising many individuals who pursue their own and others' well-being in a joint business venture (Pinker,

---

[4] It is beyond the scope of this chapter to discuss the multiple frames of reference for ethics that can be used in a business environment as lenses to view and evaluate conduct and practice, or to use as norms. Baijnath (2007: 200 ff.) distinguishes the following lenses: ethics of justice, of critique, of care, of community and of profession. To these, Frame (2008: 14 ff.) adds virtue ethics, command ethics, narrative ethics, teleological ethics, casuistry, situation ethics and social ethics. Mitchell (2013: 58 ff.) adds the following to this list: a natural law view of morality, utilitarianism and evangelical ethics. In addition, Geisler (2010: 19 ff.) contributes teleological ethics, deontological ethics, generalism, situationism, relativism and absolutism.

2019:365). A worker who is employed in a business (organisation) enters into a social contract with that organisation or institution, thereby implicitly undertaking to adhere to the rules of the institution and contribute to the attainment of its goals and objectives. The social contract between the organisation and the workers forms the basis of the trust and the social capital on which the relationships and the execution of the work in the organisation depend. The rules of reciprocity within the organisation as a social contractual relationship ideally create a basis of trust and, hence, the ethos within the organisation (Sacks, 2021:268, 276, 296, 297). Commitment to the social contract in question tends to remove wicked temptations, "sucker's payoffs" and tragedies of mutual defection, as Pinker (2021:244) puts it. Moreover, commitment to a social contract puts all involved in a positive-sum game: no one gets harmed, and all work together harmoniously (Pinker, 2019:28). It also prevents the workers in the organisation from participating in "a race to the bottom", where the "bottom" is the breakdown of group-serving cooperation and group stability in the business (Lahti & Weinstein, 2005:57).

Trust in the workplace

A social contract is founded on trust (Ariely, 2010:128), and adherence to moral standards in an organisation creates trust. The stronger the bonds of community in the organisation, the more powerful the force of trust among all concerned, and the more they can jointly achieve (Sacks, 2021:3). Morality glues all in the workplace together, says Paley (2021:17); it affects how workers act towards all other people. Without having trust that others will behave in a specific way – that they will behave morally – society is not possible, he avers. Morals bind people (in this case, workers) into cooperating groups, and it is not difficult to see why this is beneficial in a business environment (Paley, 2021:42). A society with a strong, shared common moral code is a high-trust place, where even the winners set an example of caring for the losers (Sacks, 2021:19). Moral viscosity in a business corporation tends to promote group stability (Lahti & Weinstein, 2005:58).

Trust also ensues when the workers have confidence in measures taken by the management and in the achievement indicators and assessment processes. The underlying challenge for management here, according to Lloyd (2021:3), is to reconcile the management of the resources in the business with a minimalist though enabling role focused on managing the relationships and interaction among the diverse individuals and groups involved. Policies and management, according to Lloyd, will only have a chance of success if potentially conflicting issues in the business environment are recognised, understood and resolved. In his opinion, the importance of transparency and accountability on the part of both management and the workers to increase trust cannot be overemphasised. The higher the trust levels, he avers, the less the need for (overpowering) management structures (Lloyd, 2021:4).

Responsibility in the workplace

It is a "wondrous" fact, as Sacks (2011:97) points out, that "God could take the risk of creating a creature with the freedom to disobey him and wreck his world", among other things through socially delinquent acts such as corruption in the workplace and elsewhere. In a more recent book (Sacks, 2021:21, 45), he correctly points out that "there is no freedom without responsibility"; in other words, if workers are entrusted with the freedom to make choices in the execution of their duties, they have to be responsible for the effective execution of such duties. According to Lahti and Weinstein (2005:58), the more freedom individuals (in this case, workers) have, to make behavioural decisions, the more they seem to be willing to participate in the communal struggle for group stability in the business. On the other hand, the more responsible workers are in the execution of their duties, the fewer formal regulative processes will be required (Lloyd, 2021:3). An effective workplace involves a degree of freedom on the part of the workers to decide about the best practices to follow; a set of shared rules that all workers have to abide by and responsibilities for the diligent completion of a task or duty. Workers also have the responsibility to provide to others in the workplace what they expect for themselves (Pinker, 2019:4).

In large and connected communities such as a business corporation, many opinions about the best or correct procedures to follow exist, but in the end, the norm is to decide to organise affairs so that they work to the mutual advantage of the business, its management and the workers (Pinker, 2019:27). Workers should be able to stand back and objectivise the work they are doing; that is, they have to be able to do a second-order evaluation of their own work. Doing so will enable them to see the threat of corruption that may raise its head in the workplace and will enable them to ask questions such as the following: Is this a desire that I should seek to satisfy? Is this an objective that I should act on, or should I refrain from doing so? This ability to take responsibility and stand back is what makes people moral beings who are capable of understanding that they have duties, obligations and responsibilities in the workplace (Sacks, 2021:46). Corruption can be overcome, says Sacks (2021:310-311). "Bad behaviour can become contagious, but so can good behaviour and it usually wins out in the long run" (Sacks, 2021:311). Schnelle (2020:118) formulates this view as follows in Biblical terms: "By orienting themselves entirely to God and thus being freed from themselves, [workers] can allow their lives to be determined by love that seeks the welfare of others." He continues that obedience to God's commands includes a dimension of freedom that allows workers to find out what love means concretely in their particular job situation (Schnelle, 2020:121).

Deontological ethics in the workplace

Ethics in the workplace should also have a deontological perspective in that it embraces notions of rights, duties and responsibilities that tie in with the vision and mission of the business (organisation) and in terms of which acts (such as corruption) are deemed to be immoral by their very nature (Pinker, 2019:416). Frame (2008:50, 101, 123) maintains that a good act is a response to a duty. In Scripture, duty and happiness are not opposed; in the long run they reinforce each other. Deontology is correct in saying that people (those involved in markets or business environments) need to have moral norms beyond their individual subjectivity and the happiness of mankind.

Consequentialism and utilitarianism in the workplace

Based on all of the foregoing, the workers in a business environment will understand that their actions and behaviour will be morally evaluated by their consequences (Pinker, 2019:416) and even by their unintended consequences (Liautaud, 2021:32; Sacks, 2021:151). As no worker can calculate every consequence of every action in the indefinite future, the business corporation for which they work may consider drawing "bright lines" that no worker should ever cross. Liautaud (2021:58, 86) refers to the process of drawing such bright lines as "framing". That is, being clear about the principles to be adhered to, ideally before having to face important choices and decisions, such as during a disciplinary hearing of a colleague suspected or accused of corruption.

The "bright lines" or "framing" defines the identity of the business and tells the world what to expect from it, as well as how it expects its workers to behave. These bright lines are the principles that guide the choices and the decisions made in the business, but, being principles, they are not hard and fast rules; they are enduring guides that help those involved in the business to navigate complex problems and make consistent choices for the well-being of all concerned (Liautaud, 2021:24). This can be seen as a utilitarian approach.

No consequence anticipated to be harmful should be tolerated by management or the workforce. In cases where people (workers and management) from diverse cultural and moral backgrounds have to work together in the same environment, it may be wise to adopt a utilitarian moral approach. That is, a morality based on maximising human flourishing that seeks the greatest happiness of the largest number of all concerned (within the parameters of the ethos, mission and vision of the business) (Pinker, 2019:416-417).

Pinker (2019:418) offers wise counsel in this regard: "A viable moral philosophy [in a business environment] should not be constructed from layers of intricate argumentation … but should draw on simple, transparent principles that everyone can understand and agree upon." In so doing, management will draw the so-called bright lines to be adhered to, and thereby prevent most forms of corruption in the

workplace. Where to draw these bright lines in an organisation will depend on many factors, such as the ethos, vision and mission of the business, the well-being of all concerned, the experience of management and the workforce, their backgrounds, the degree of market freedom, the capital available and state regulation (Pinker, 2019:365).

Realism about ethics in the workplace

Everyone involved in business should ideally strive to recognise and follow the ethical (moral) principles enumerated above. It is, however, important for all parties concerned to understand that people are living in what Christian ethicists such as Vorster (2017:154) refer to as "a broken dispensation". In such a dispensation, Vorster (2017:153) argues, "moral choices are in most cases incommensurate and indeterminate". As human beings, people will fall into temptation and even unwittingly engage in corrupt activities. For this reason, he advises that all involved in business, management and workers alike, should "approach all ethical problems [in the business] with a strong sense of Christian realism" (Vorster, 2017:153). Liautaud (2021:12) concurs with this view and states that practical circumstances may require management (for instance) to avoid a binary (simplistic right or wrong) approach in terms of which they may over-simplify into an exercise of choosing sides. A suspected incidence of corruption in the workplace can involve shades of "moral grey" and a blend of risks and opportunities on all sides. She concludes: you can "do ethics outside of reality all you want, but you will live with the very real consequences" for all involved (Liautaud, 2021:12). When management or a disciplinary committee immediately takes sides, it may fail to identify the information that could shape the outcome of the hearing.

In some cases a final ethical resolution to every ethical dilemma is not available, and those involved may discover that even their "final resolutions" may generate new problems (Vorster, 2017:154). In some cases, Vorster (2017:155) avers, a Christian manager or worker may be obliged "to act from the law written in the heart". A truly theonomous (God-given) ethics views the Word and the Spirit as the unified voice of God, "speaking into specific situations [even in the workplace] of

moment to moment living [and working]" (Vorster, 2017:155). Ideally then, a problem such as corruption in the workplace should not be addressed in a totally casuistic or mere pragmatic way. Those involved should act, in principle, in accordance with the clear bright lines referred to above when dealing with an ethical problem such as corruption in the workplace.

Vorster (2017:157-163) offers a number of ethical guidelines for all concerned in a business environment to consider before engaging in a particular act. Generally speaking, a teleological (targeted or aimed) approach should be followed by asking what good for the organisation or the business can come from what one (or a group) is doing. The answer with respect to corruption is clear: nothing good can come from it.

As stated above, a consequentialist approach may also be helpful: What would the consequences of this act be? How would it affect the business, management, my co-workers and our clientele? Is what I am doing here fruit of the Spirit, as enumerated in Galatians 5:22-26? A utilitarian approach may also be useful: Is what I am now doing or engaging in to the advantage of all in the business? What would be the result if everybody did what I am doing? Another principle is to emulate the image of Christ in all that we do: Am I, in doing this or engaging in this form of corruption, exuding the attitude of Christ, as outlined in Philippians 2:4-7 – "Each of you should look not only to your own interests, but also to the interests of others. Your attitude should be the same as that of Jesus Christ: Who, being in very nature God, did not consider equality with God something to be grasped, but made himself nothing, taking the nature of a servant, being made in human likeness" (NIV)? Only a selfless person lives responsibly, and this means, according to Vorster (2017:161), that a person involved in business can waive some of his or her rights voluntarily for the purpose of serving the well-being of others in the business and the community at large. Lastly, all those involved in business should consider resorting to a "fair amount of situation ethics" – the ability to apply common sense and act according to the Christian conscience (Vorster, 2017:163; also see Stoker, 1967:236; Thompson, 2018:59).

Moral integrity in the workplace

It is important to display moral integrity in the workplace (Liautaud, 2021:163). Each person involved in an organisation should do his or her best to achieve his or her "most authentic self in work and life". In Liautaud's (2021:163) opinion, aspects of integrity or authenticity, such as genuineness, trustworthiness, dependability and being true to oneself and one's principles and beliefs, all hinge on one's connection to a fact-based assessment of oneself and "full reality". The Bible casts light on personal integrity and the importance thereof. Van Rensburg (2012:11) explains that a person's thoughts, words and deeds should be congruent, sincere, genuine and honest (1 Corinthians 4:19; Matthew 23:19), even when only he or she can hear and analyse them (Romans 12:3), based on genuine love for God and fellow human beings (Romans 12:9). Noble and organic character, as Kubow (2011:15) puts it, speaks of a person who possesses a distinctive and honourable quality. That is, a particular attitude towards life and the self, and who demonstrates a consistent pattern of integrity in both private and public affairs (also see Nolan, 1009:13).

Drawing from the true Fount of morality

Humankind in its natural depraved state may succumb to the temptation to engage in corrupt activities, either as an agent (the active and initiating party) or as a victim, colluder or participant. There is a way out of the dilemma of engaging in corrupt activities, and that is to return to God and his will, thereby subjecting oneself to the religious and ethical (moral) norms of God's Kingdom. He who has turned to God does the will of God, and in so doing, puts to silence the "the ignorant talk of foolish men. Live as free men, but do not use your freedom as a cover-up for evil; live as servants of God" (1 Peter 2:15-16, NIV). 1 Peter (4:1-2) continues: "Therefore, since Christ suffered in his body, arm yourselves also with the same attitude, because he who has suffered in his body is done with sin. As a result, he does not live the rest of his earthly life for evil human desires, but rather for the will of God." "The world and its desires pass away, but the man who does the will of God lives forever" (1 John 2:17, NIV). Titus 3:4-5 explains the change that believers have undergone and non-believers still have to undergo: "But when the kindness and love of God our

Savior appeared, he saved us, not because of righteous things that we had done but because of his mercy …" (NIV). Romans 13:14 concludes: "…clothe yourself with the Lord Jesus Christ, and do not think about how to gratify the desires of sinful nature" (NIV).

A pedagogy of discernment, as discussed, will assist the upcoming generations of future workers in businesses and on the factory floor in understanding the difference between an apostatic heart (a heart that has turned away from God) and an anastatic heart (a heart given to God and devoted to his service) and what it means when Scripture exhorts, "Above all else, guard your hear, for it is the wellspring of life" (Proverbs 4:23, NIV), including one's decisions when confronted with the temptation to engage in corrupt activities in the workplace. Those who live in accordance with the Spirit "have their minds set on what the Spirit desires" (Romans 8:5, NIV). Those who walk in the Spirit will not fulfil the lust of the flesh but will bear the fruit of the Spirit in whatever they do (Galatians 5:16-24).

It is clear from the above discussion that engaging in corrupt activities in the workplace can be regarded as a "work of the flesh", inspired by the natural inclination of humankind to benefit the self at the expense of others. People remain fallible, all too often falling short of what they are called on to become and do (Sacks, 2011:22). Management and factory floor leaders should therefore concentrate on passing on the message to all workers that they should concentrate on not only avoiding "works of the flesh" but also "bearing the fruit of the Spirit" in whatever they do. Whether to engage in corrupt activities or not is, in essence, a matter of spiritual orientation: one either opts for the natural inclination of humankind in its natural, depraved, fallen state or for a life in accordance with the directions of the Spirit, as it works in the worker's conscience.

The attitude of "living in accordance with the Spirit" cannot be formalised in a set of rules that a worker can apply casuistically (from case to case) but should form the compass of his or her conscience. To "possess a conscience" means, in the case of the Christian believer (worker, in this case), to know, together with his or her inner self and, above all, with God, that something is good or bad. The conscience

is the spiritual function in the human being by means of which, while standing before omniscient God, one knows, together with God and one's own inner self, that one has to act in a specific, acceptable manner, with no alternative (Vorster, 2017:162-163). According to Stoker (1976:233), people's consciences enable them to "know" intuitively and emotionally-cognitively, to know with their heart (un logique du coeur). This knowing with and of the conscience is enmeshed at the deepest levels with one's personal beliefs and assumptions about God, human existence and the world. Dill (2012:542) speaks of a "moral consciousness", a "consciousness with a conscience" to act for the good of others. Baggini (2020:28, 162) mentions "moral wisdom or vision". That is, more a kind of know-how than know-what. According to Baggini (2020:161-162), at root, the good in any situation is known by a kind of intuition: people (in this case, managers and workers) intuitively know and understand that, for instance, harmony is better than disharmony, prosperity in the business is better than the loss of clientele, and peace is better than strife. In brief, the conscience can be regarded as the faculty that God has given humankind for determining good and evil, right and wrong. But Frame (2008:122) warns: conscience must be informed by God's revelation, lest it be ignorant, immature and even "seared" (1 Timothy 4:2).

This is also where a pedagogy of discernment enters the frame. Young people in training for the workplace should be assisted to discern between a work life in accordance with the "flesh" (the natural sinful nature of humankind) or in accordance with the Spirit. This will assist them in making responsible decisions in their future workplaces and set high moral standards for themselves and their actions in their [future] workplaces (Frame, 2008:62-63).

Guidelines drawn from the above regarding the prevention of corruption in the workplace

Guidelines for management

Managers should consider including a "background session" during training sessions in which current and prospective workers are prompted to examine their

backgrounds and histories to see whether they had, in those early years of their lives, developed and internalised habits that might render them susceptible to corruption in the workplace. Such sessions could also contain a segment in which the attendees should reflect on and discuss the possibility of committing petty crimes, including petty forms of corruption, in the workplace.

During such sessions, prospective and current workers can also be informed about the findings of the Zondo Commission on large-scale corruption and even state capture. This may sensitise the attendees to the constant threat of corruption in the workplace, in both the public and the private sectors. The facilitator of such a session should allow the attendees to discuss the constant threat of corruption in all situations, in particular in the workplace, and how to recognise corrupt activities as soon as they emerge in the workplace.

Although this issue was not touched on in the discussion in this chapter, it is also worthwhile to spend time during a training session for workers to discuss the role and value of whistle blowers in the ranks of the workers. Instead of derogating them, their role should be appreciated; they can be seen as the gatekeepers of the integrity, social capital and integrity of the business or organisation.

Special training sessions should be held during which prospective and current workers receive basic training in ethics or morality. These sessions need not be complicated; the facilitator should concentrate on the bare essentials of what a worker ought to know and understand regarding the following aspects: the menace of corruption in the workplace; what "corruptive agency" and "victimhood" mean and how a worker can avoid becoming one of the two; what it means to be and remain honest and demonstrate personal integrity; what it means to enter into a social contract with the business and co-workers; how trust is created and can be lost in the workplace; that superficial and formal measures to combat corruption in the workplace are necessary but not sufficient; and that combatting corruption remains a matter of the heart and of the worker's conscience.

Managers should bear in mind that corruption is perpetrated by human beings and can occur at any level in the business. It will therefore be prudent to institute

measures that will discourage any person in the organisation from engaging in corrupt activities. Opportunities for doing so must be kept at a minimum. One way of doing so is by drawing the "bright lines" referred to above. These lines have to be drawn in the simplest and most understandable terms so that all workers will have a good grasp of them and of what it takes to conform to the rules and standards set. Regular assessment should be held for the purpose of determining whether all concerned in the business understand the rules and the extent to which these are obeyed.

This chapter contains several Christian or Biblical perspectives of the depravity of humankind and offers notions about how to address the shortcomings in humankind that render it susceptible to corruption. Managers who can associate themselves with these perspectives should attempt to put them into practice in their dealings with their subordinates. Those who adhere to other religions can do the same by appealing to their own sources of authority. Most of the moral perspectives presented and discussed in this chapter are, according to Vigil (2008:199), in some way "above Christianity". They are, in his opinion, common-sense rules, belonging to basic ethics, or what some would refer to as "natural ethics" because they are explicitly set out, with small variations, in most of the world religions. He substantiates this opinion with reference to Jainism, Buddhism, Confucianism, Hinduism, Judaism, Baha'i and Islam. How these perspectives regarding moral behaviour are interpreted on the ground will depend on differences in doctrine and metaphysical beliefs (Donovan, 1986:367).

Lastly, managers should bear in mind that they are working in a business environment. In other words, an environment governed by economic norms and rules, and not the norms of a penitentiary or a school, for instance. Workers should be empathically convinced to follow the rules, and they have to be brought to an understanding that management may take steps when rules are transgressed or disobeyed. Managers may also consider appealing to the freedom and responsibility of all concerned to make morally justifiable decisions and to bear in mind that their decisions and subsequent actions should be for the well-being of all concerned, and finally, the advantage of the business. Finally, all concerned have to

be led to understand that the raison d'être of a business is to make a profit. Morality and moral behaviour should prevail; if they do not, all concerned and the business are on a free fall to the "bottom".

Guidelines for future, potential and current workers

Workers are advised to examine their own lives, from the time that they grew up, at home and at school, to see whether they might have learnt and internalised a bad habit that could render them susceptible to corrupt activities in the workplace. Engaging in potentially corrupt activities in the workplace is the one "talent" that they should avoid at all costs.

Furthermore, workers should avail themselves of every opportunity to develop their skill set for their work in the organisation by attending in-service training sessions. One of the skills that should be mastered is developing personal integrity and ingrained honesty, and recognising and resisting the temptation to engage in corrupt activities in the organisation. Another skill is that of understanding the connection between corruption and morality – the fact that corruption, in essence, is a contravention of a number of ethical principles. Yet another skill to be mastered is the ability to develop insight into the fact that human beings tend to engage in corrupt activities due to the original depraved (sinful) state of humankind, but that there are ways to reform oneself and change one's life orientation for the best. Workers should expect their managers (the chief executive officer and managers on various levels of the business) to draw bright lines that will help everyone concerned to know the difference between morally acceptable and morally delinquent behaviour.

In the end, every person involved in a business is a worker. Although all workers should do their utmost to ensure the survival of the business, they should all demonstrate personal moral integrity. Integrity is a prerequisite for the development of the trust and social capital on which all depend for their well-being and happiness in their work environment.

Possible limitations of this study

The discussion in this paper is of a conceptual-theoretical-philosophical nature in that it focused on ethical or moral principles and the requirement for management and workers in trade and commerce to adhere to them. A follow-up study could be devoted to the conversion of the ethical/moral principles discussed in this chapter into a questionnaire distributed among workers and members of the management echelons of businesses. The survey could be followed up by qualitative studies such as individual and focus-group interviews, and with organisational case studies on the factory floor, to mention only some of the possibilities for further investigation.

Conclusion

Corruption is a constant threat in any work environment due to the natural inclination of human beings to succumb to the temptation of abusing a situation for personal benefit. Although one of the very few avenues open to management is to appeal to the inner goodness of the workers, experience has shown that this might be in vain because of the natural fallen state of humankind. Ethics training should be considered as a possible avenue for laying a morally acceptable track for workers to follow. Such training needs not be deeply intensive or complex; it should just be sufficient to make workers understand the morally bright lines within which they have to perform in the business. Such training will pave the way for cultivating integrity, trust and social capital in the business and for greater job satisfaction among all concerned. Moral training will arguably be to the benefit of all, including the bottom line of the business.

CHAPTER 10:

MANAGING TALENT IN THE NEW HYBRID WORKPLACE: EVIDENCE FROM SAUDI ARABIA

AA Ahmadani

North-West University, PhD graduate, Economic and Management Sciences, Senior Manager within Saudi Arabia private sector

SL Middelberg

North-West University, Professor, Applied Research in Management Cybernetics–niche area, Economic and Management Sciences

Abstract

The COVID-19 pandemic has changed how people work, and firms have to navigate and manage their talent's workplace going forward as conditions are increasingly returning to those before the pandemic. A combination of working from home and at the office is becoming popular. However, the considerations thereof on talent management should be further investigated. This chapter examines talent management in this new hybrid workplace by presenting empirical evidence from a Saudi Arabian private sector firm. A mixed methods approach was followed with qualitative data collected from ten managers on their perceptions of the advantages/disadvantages of the hybrid model and the skills they require to manage teams in this new environment. A questionnaire completed by 240 employees established the employees' preference for a working model. A comparison was drawn between the various workplace models. It was found that most managers would prefer employees to return to the office as managing staff working remotely is complicated and challenging. In contrast, employees prefer working from home or adopting a hybrid model. A successful and talented manager with unique competencies can manage different workplace models, keeping the actual progress of productivity and growth retained. It is thus recommended that the leadership's capability to drive and steer the talents toward the optimal workplace model should be developed.

Keywords

Hybrid workplace, remote working, Saudi Arabia, talent management, workplace, working from home

Introduction

Firms need to improve their performance continually so as to create and sustain a competitive advantage over rival firms (Herrera & las Heras-Rosas, 2020). This can only be achieved if the importance of implementing talent management strategies and practices is emphasised (Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020; Singh, 2021). Talent management (TM) is an approach or strategy to anticipate human capital needs and attract, develop, engage and retain employees who add value to the firm (Mahajan, 2020; Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020). Mey, Poisat and Stindt (2021) argue that top talent remains the primary source of organisational competitive advantage. The ability to attract, motivate and develop TM and retention of high-performing employees is an imperative role of management in today's dynamic and volatile complex world of work.

The COVID-19 pandemic forced many firms to adapt to drastic changes in the workplace due to quarantines, lockdowns, and self-imposed isolation. Globally, employees had to work from home (Buheji & Buheji, 2020; Lund, Madgavkar, Manyika & Smit, 2020). Fatol, Robescu, Farkas and Draghici (2020) contend that, notwithstanding the future, there is a need to redefine the workplace and the competencies required. The latter will shift, bearing in mind that the talents will drive the new human resources approach, not a workplace – especially as talented employees hold power over their firms to the extent that these firms rely on talents to create unique value and attain competitiveness (De Boeck, Meyers & Dries, 2018).

Firms are passing through an era of transformation. Competitors, the economy or other external or internal factors adversely affect the well-being of many firms (Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020). As the measurement of COVID-19 is being suspended and life returns to normal, a new working model has gained popularity – referred to as a hybrid model – a combination of working from home and returning to the office. Saudi Arabian private sector firms are no exception.

The main objective of this chapter was to examine talent management in the new hybrid workplace. Empirical evidence was gathered from one of the most

prominent Saudi Arabian private sector automotive firms about the perspectives of employees and managers with regard to the changing workplace. A mixed methods approach was followed as qualitative and quantitative data were collected from the firm's talent. The advantages and disadvantages of the hybrid model as perceived by management were gathered, and the skills that they considered to be required for managing teams in this new environment. Furthermore, the employees' preferences for a working model were established. Bearing in mind that Saudi Arabia is one of the least understood economies in the world (Al-Kibsi, Woetzel, Isherwood, Khan, Mischke & Noura, 2015), the gathering of empirical evidence in this country provided a valuable contribution to the debate on hybrid workspaces.

The following section (section 2) will discuss relevant literature on TM and the workplace, followed by the third section on research design and methodology. Section 4 will present the research findings and then a discussion thereof in section 5. The chapter will conclude in section 6.

Literature review

This section presents extant literature on the role of TM and the workplace.

Talent management

TM process refers to attracting, selecting, acquiring, retaining, and developing talented workers as sample processes or activities (Singh, 2021). TM also includes essential activities on a high level such as workforce planning, performance management, reward and incentives, motivation, succession planning and leadership development (Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020). The concept of TM is one of the most debated in the field of human resources (De Boeck *et al*., 2018; Fatol *et al*., 2020; Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020; Kravariti & Johnston, 2020; Singh, 2021; Sikder & Wijesuriya, 2021).

Li Qi and Jia Qi (2021) argue that talented people are loyal to a firm and more engaged and motivated when they experience job satisfaction and commitment – because TM implies recognising a person's inherent skills, traits, and personality and onboarding him into the firm as a unique talent that suits a particular job

(Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020). However, in this talent-constrained environment, the primary sources of talent should be internal, as upskilling an internal hire can be done at a lower cost than hiring an external candidate (Fatol *et al.*, 2020).

Reidhead (2020) believes that HR plays a crucial role in ensuring the long-term survival and success of the firm. Establishing that type of organisational culture in which effective HR management can be ensured has become essential. Having the best people in the most suitable roles according to their expertise is the aim of the HR department of any firm (Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020). However, TM cannot be left solely to the human resources department to attract and retain employees, but rather be practised at all managerial and departmental levels (Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020).

HR managers must focus on TM, particularly talent retention and talent shortage, which can harm organisational performance (Li Qi & Jia Qi, 2021).

Evidence-based research reveals that if TM is not implemented or practised professionally it usually causes dissatisfaction and results in losses or failure (Kravariti & Johnston, 2020). This implies that TM has a right and fair evaluation of employee performance, decision-making of top management, fairness distributive of compensation and reward, training and development, and motivation to minimise employee dissatisfaction and disengagement and hence increase employee retention (Li Qi & Jia Qi, 2021). Talent retention is one of the biggest challenges for firms today. Employee resignations are not new; neither are the reasons – dissatisfaction or unhappiness with their job or boss, new opportunities and changing careers are increasing. Retaining key talent must top every firm's strategic agenda (Arokiasamy & Tat, 2020) as talent scarcity is increasingly becoming a global issue. The competition between firms in recruiting high-performing employees is more significant than ever (Fatol *et al.*, 2020). Also, the business environment today is characterised by outsourcing, increasing mobility, freelancing, and different contracts between firms and their employees, making TM's role more challenging (Singh, 2021).

The role of TM has been increasing over the last decade bringing forward the importance of cultivating the employees' potential (Fatol *et al.*, 2020). Mey *et al.* (2021) argue that for TM to be a successful tool for the firm, the leaders should demonstrate 1) a sense of belonging, respect, and engagement, 2) support for continuous growth and development, and 3) optimise empowerment (flexibility and freedom) to employees in executing the plans. Nwanisobi and Christopher (2020) claim that all modern firms today have realised the importance of TM attributes such as attracting, developing, and retaining their talent to survive in the competitive market. However, the issue concerns the leaders' insight or implementation and practices.

TM practices will increase the commitment of the workforce, resulting in more engaged talented employees and a lower attrition rate (Li Qi & Jia Qi, 2021).

Katsaros (2022) confirms that over the years, the leadership of successful large firms has developed a working environment based on freedom, honesty, trust and mutual respect.

Workplace

This section defines the workplace concept and discusses the three models of 1) working from an office, 2) working from home (remotely), and 3) the hybrid workplace. Tamunomiebi and John-Eke (2020) define the workplace as being diverse as it comprises different departments, divisions and subsidiaries; sometimes domiciled in different locations or regions. Mariotti and Akhavan (2020) defined the workplace as an office or any working environment in which professional people work alongside or in localised spaces where they share their knowledge and efforts in teams or individually. Indradevi (2020) reports that the definition of the workplace has grown over time to include different psychological aspects. Li Qi and Jia Qi (2021) opine that the workplace is one of five drivers of employee engagement: the work environment, leadership, team and co-workers, training and development opportunities and compensation.

The workplace also creates a strong employer brand displayed by a workplace setup or location (Shet, 2020). Increasingly firms emphasise workplace compatibility – either working remotely or following a hybrid model – and realise its impact on employee performance and productivity (Rathee & Rajain, 2020).

Work from office

Working from the office offers a wide range of continuous training approaches by creating a learning atmosphere through the cross-fertilisation of ideas and sharing of knowledge between different levels of employees (Tamunomiebi & John-Eke, 2020).

According to Mariotti and Akhavan (2020) the physical workplace holds benefits such as:

- Cognitive: sharing of knowledge and learning from colleagues
- Organisational: the establishment of networks that enable the transfer and exchange of information
- Social: socially embedded relations between employees
- Institutional: everyday habits, routines, established practices, rules or laws

A "meaningful workplace" is yet another concept that has gained popularity. It refers to developing a sense of connection between oneself, co-workers and the workplace (Indradevi, 2020; Rathee & Rajain, 2020). This feeling of workplace belonging is enhanced through inclusive leadership and employees participating in designing change (Katsaros, 2022).

The workplace can be a place of direct communication, engagement, and learning. Moreover, it gives a sense of commitment and discipline by recognising on-time attendance and working enthusiastically (Zardasht, Omed & Taha, 2020). One of the positives of the "workplace" is that engaged workers can learn and interact more and easily surpass those less engaged (work remotely). This is because they shape their careers and personal resources and are often emotionally stronger (Gadi & Kee, 2020). Some activities can be performed only in the office, such as; dressing professionally, being punctual, showing responsibility and respect, and

interacting socially with peers (Shet, 2020). Other benefits of working at the office include appreciating colleagues, especially one's peers, and diversity in a workplace that enhances critical thinking abilities, problem-solving, employee knowledge and professional skills (Tamunomiebi & John-Eke, 2020). Such skills are a fundamental human need, especially motivation and appreciation, and they only are practised in the office (Katsaros, 2022). Sajeevanie (2020) concurs by emphasising that working in a healthy competitive workplace reinforces self-management and optimises performance.

On the other hand, working from the office has disadvantages such as bullying, harassment, or any negative actions that could steer to a hostile working environment (Gadi & Kee, 2020). Workplace bullying is a significant problem and contributes to health problems such as stress and anxiety (Lagrosen & Lagrosen, 2022). Additionally, discrimination and prejudice will negatively influence victims' morale and productivity and performance. The firm should manage diversity without discrimination (Tamunomiebi & John-Eke, 2020). Health diseases can develop due to downsizing, resulting in fewer employees being expected to do more (Lagrosen & Lagrosen, 2022). A survey published by Ippolito, Constantinescu and Rusu (2020) relating to work-related stress found that 43% of European workers complain of back pain, muscular pains in the neck or upper limbs (42%), fatigue (35%) and muscular disorders in the hip or lower limbs (29%). Gadi and Kee (2020) believe that the reasons for unusual staff turnover could be related to work engagement and/or the state of the workplace. Zardasht *et al*.'s (2020) survey on staff turnover supports this as they discovered that workplaces are considered a strong reason for resigning as some employees were not happy with their workplace condition, arrangements or location. Lagrosen and Lagrosen (2022) claim that workplace stress has not yet been appropriately examined.

A McKinsey survey conducted during the pandemic found that 36% increase in work time outside their offices means some firms will need less office space, and several are already planning to reduce real estate expenses (Lund *et al*., 2020).

In closing, Indradevi (2020) supports working from the office, and advocates that employees should "bring their whole selves to the job – not only their physical presence and intellect".

Work from home (remotely)

Work from home is not a new model; it was introduced as "flexible work" back in 2008 and refers to firms' practices that help employees decide when and where work is conducted (Bal & Izak, 2021). Subsequently, in the mid-2000s, the rising phenomenon of coworking spaces has provided a flexible and mainly affordable solution for freelancers, entrepreneurs, small firms and start-ups, which may have experienced the issues of isolation when working from home, to work in a shared workplace, interact, socialise and share knowledge (Mariotti & Akhavan, 2020). Nevertheless, today firms have broken through cultural and technological barriers that prevented remote work in the past, setting in motion a structural shift in the area in which work takes place, and tasks and activities determine the potential for remote work, not occupations (Lund *et al*., 2020).

Many factors affect remote working such as cultural behaviours, team dynamics and proximity, personal habits and digital literacy (Saatçi, Rädle, Rintel, O'Hara & Nylandsted Klokmose, 2019). Lund *et al*. (2020) claim that continuous working from home creates new psychological and emotional stresses among employees, including isolation. The other drawback of working remotely is a lack of technical expertise in dealing with technology (Hancock & Schaninger, 2020). Furthermore, working from home (remotely) raises an array of issues and challenges for employees and employers and increases the gap in mutual understanding. On the other hand, firms struggle with how best to deliver coaching remotely and enhance employee productivity, among other delicate issues (Lund *et al*., 2020).

Lund *et al*. (2020) explain that some forms of remote work are likely to persist long after COVID-19, requiring investment in digital infrastructure, freeing up office space, and the structural transformation of cities. However, for employees working from home, managers should have regular conversations with their employees to get them engaged and active (Hancock & Schaninger, 2020). Such employees

struggle to show their effort, find the best homework balance, and equip themselves for working and collaborating remotely (Lund *et al.*, 2020). Saatçi *et al.* (2019) highlight the fact that remote-working employees feel isolated from those working from the office who have more access to interaction and learning. In contrast, 41% of employees who responded to a McKinsey consumer survey reported they were more productive working remotely than in the office (Lund *et al.*, 2020).

Hybrid workplace

The potential for remote work or hybrid depends on the mix of activities undertaken in each occupation and the physical, spatial, and interpersonal context of those workers (Lund *et al.*, 2020). Employees often face anxiety, fear, and depression in a fast-moving world. Working in an environment that supports the employees' right to express their beliefs openly helps them to have better working relationships with colleagues, to feel safer, and be more engaged in their work (Rathee & Rajain, 2020). Many physical or manual activities, and those that require the use of fixed equipment, cannot be performed remotely; hence the need for a hybrid workplace (Lund *et al.*, 2020).

Studies on digital workplace transformation have shown that new technologies and practices supporting employee connectedness and responsive leadership form the digital workplace (Zimmer, Baiyere & Salmela, 2020).

A mix of remote and physical work activities was supported by 800 corporate executes taking part in a recent McKinsey survey (???). These respondents selected the hybrid model as a preferable choice, considering its suitability for some occupations (Lund *et al.*, 2020). Because the blurring of the line between work and life while working remotely means that employee experience is even more critical. There is no commute to the office for remote workers and no in-person gatherings or conversations (Buheji & Buheji, 2020). A more critical discussion on accepting this hybrid model thus emerged in different business environments (Bal & Izak, 2021). As per the McKinsey institute, more than 20% of the workforce could work remotely three to five days a week as effectively as they could if working from an

office. If remote work took hold at that level, that would mean three to four times as many people working from home than before the pandemic and would profoundly impact urban economies, transportation, and consumer spending, among other things (Lund *et al.*, 2020).

Top management should facilitate hybrid workplace harmony (Tamunomiebi & John-Eke, 2020). This suggests that executives anticipate operating their businesses with a hybrid model, with employees working remotely and from an office during the workweek. For instance, JPMorgan has an earlier plan for its 60 000 employees to work in 50% hybrid mode two weeks a month from home and two weeks from the office. For more flexibility, managers can also split the days in a week depending on the line of business and need (Lund *et al.*, 2020).

Besides facilitating productivity, there is a need for the continuous development of digital infrastructure cost that requires significant public and private investment. It boosts flexibility – not needing to be physically co-located with fellow workers enables independent work and more flexible hours – as well as productivity, with less time wasted commuting (Lund *et al.*, 2020). Nevertheless, Mey *et al.* (2021) argue that work is becoming more technologically advanced and is essential. It becomes a critical consideration as human beings will continue to seek management which promotes human and social connectedness, engagement, and empowerment in enhancing the positive nature of their working experience. A researcher at Stanford University found that only 65% American candidates had fast enough internet service to support viable video calls. In many parts of the developing world, the connectivity infrastructure is sparse or non-existent (Lund *et al.*, 2020).

Lund *et al.* (2020) explain that many jobs require collaborating with others or using specialised machinery; other jobs, such as conducting scans, have to be performed on location; and some, such as making deliveries, are performed while out and about. Many jobs are low wages and more at risk from broad trends such as automation and digitisation. Digital skills are still in short supply, and remote working for all employees places remote and online freelancers on an equal footing

with full-time employees. Even in other talent categories, temporary labour usually responds more quickly in crisis recovery, as employers value flexibility during its early (and uncertain) stages (Hancock & Schaninger, 2020). Not having sufficient knowledge of the technology used is inconvenient for the employees (Saatçi *et al*., 2019).

Despite the changes in the previous two years in relevance to emerging new technologies and digitisation, steep learning is still required (Buheji & Buheji, 2020). Remote work potential is higher in advanced economies than in emerging economies, as employment is skewed toward occupations that require physical and manual activities in sectors such as agriculture and manufacturing (Lund *et al*., 2020). Nevertheless, handling employee experience in a mixed environment is still challenging. Management is required to reinvent the approach and monitor the productivity of a hybrid work environment as some employees are back in the office and others remain at home (Hancock & Schaninger, 2020). For instance, in India, the workforce could spend just 12% of the time working remotely without losing effectiveness. Although India is known globally for its high-tech and financial services industries, most of its workforce of 464 million is employed in occupations like retail services and agriculture that cannot be performed remotely (Lund *et al*., 2020).

Mariotti and Akhavan (2020) contend that remote working does not necessarily have to be restricted geographically; it can be well-managed and organised effectively. Similarly, Xie, Elangovan, Hu and Hrabluik (2019) argue that researchers predict that the hybrid model is the future of work, enabling firms to be flexible and take advantage of the positive elements of both physical and remote offices. At the same time, Lund *et al*. (2020) claim that the workforce could theoretically work one-third of the time remotely without a loss of productivity, or almost half the time but with diminished productivity.

Research design and methodology

The study followed a mixed methods case study approach with qualitative and quantitative data collected from the largest private sector multinational firm in the

automotive industry in Saudi Arabia. The data were collected from June to July 2022. Data were collected in two consecutive phases, as discussed below.

Qualitative data

The first phase comprised the collection of qualitative data using semi-structured face-to-face or online interviews using the Microsoft Teams platform. Ten participants representing various levels of management in the case study firm were selected using purposive sampling. The latter is defined by Etikan, Abubakar, Rukayya and Alkassim (2015) as the deliberate inclusion of specific participants based on the knowledge and experience they contribute to the research. Moreover, Cooper and Schindler (2008) opine that in qualitative research, the sample should be just big enough to uncover new knowledge and provide insight. The sample size of ten was thus deemed adequate.

All ten interviewees manage a team of individuals and have done so for numerous years. The focus was on their managerial perspective as they have intensive knowledge and experience in productivity, goal setting and performance measurement. The interview questions were:

1. Do you find it challenging to manage talents in a hybrid workplace? If so, what are the challenges?
2. What are the advantages and disadvantages of a hybrid workplace?
3. Which skills do leaders need to manage a hybrid team?

During the next phase, quantitative data were collected.

Quantitative data

A random sample of 250 employees was drawn from the automotive company's staff complement representing staff from eight different departments. This sample included staff that directly reported to the interviewees. An e-mail was sent which included a link to a questionnaire requiring the respondents to select one of three options to the following question:

What is your preference in performing your employment duties:

a) Work from the office (normal)

b) Work from home (remotely)

c) Work hybrid model (mix of normal and remotely)

After removing duplicates, 240 responses were received, representing an excellent response rate of 96%.

Research Findings

This section articulates the feedback collected in each phase.

Findings from qualitative data

The results of each of the questions will be discussed.

1. Do you find it challenging to manage talents in a hybrid workplace? If so, what are the challenges?

All the managers concurred that managing the hybrid model remains challenging. Still, almost all the interviewees preferred the hybrid workplace model to remote working. Noticeably, eight out of ten favour return to the office like before COVID-19. They hope for and are planning that 2023 will start with the full staff complement returning to "normal" working conditions, i.e. in the office.

The hybrid model's main challenges were deciding when and which staff members should be in the office. Some have to work remotely while others return to the office, especially if a division has a small staff complement. Splitting the staff members could lead to sub-optimal teamwork collaboration if there is a task interdependence. Ultimately, the performance and/or progress of employees and the firm could be negatively affected as all employees became accustomed to working from home for two years during the COVID-19 pandemic.

2. What are the advantages of a hybrid workplace?

The advantages reported by the interviewees included productivity improvement and gradual preparation for a complete return to the office. An advantage of the hybrid model reported, as opposed to working solely from home – that could also

be viewed as a disadvantage of working remotely – is that many staff members do not have a dedicated space or work environment at home.

The identified disadvantages include splitting, and managing team members requires tremendous effort. Furthermore, they found it difficult to manage and display equal treatment and fairness among the employees. Additionally, the employees demonstrated resistance to change, and conflicts arose.

3. Which skills do leaders need to manage a hybrid team?

The interviewees' perceptions of the skills required were managing teams in different environments, time management skills, and treating employees fairly and equally.

Findings from quantitative data

The aim of asking a simple, concise and direct question was to establish a clear answer to whether Saudi Arabian employees in one of the largest automotive private sector firms preferred or were ready to return to work at the office.

Figure 2 presents the results of quantitative findings based on the feedback of 240 respondents.
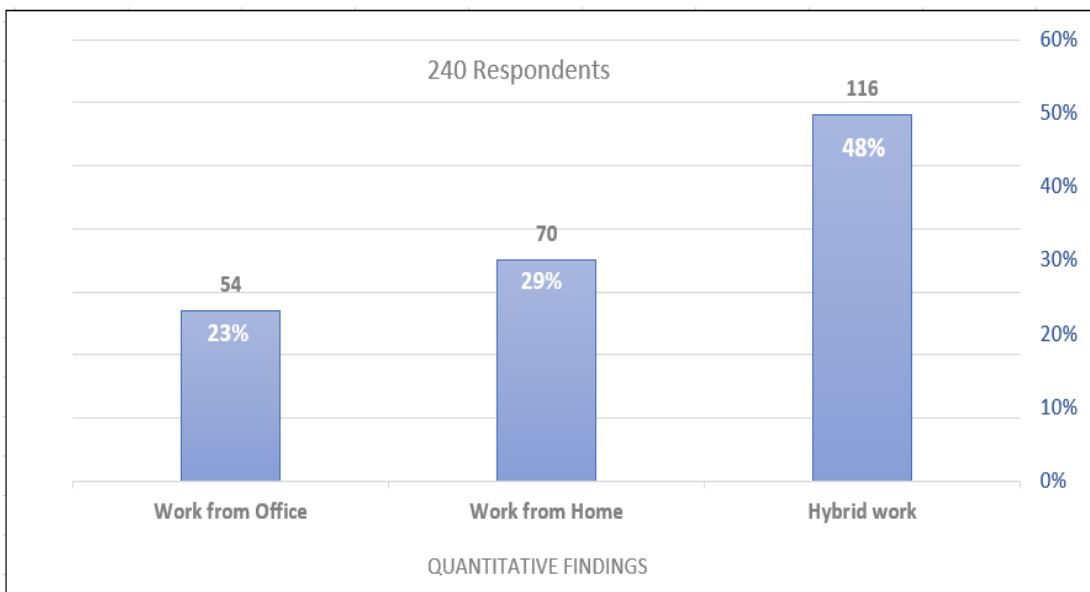

Figure 2: Results of quantitative findings

Source: Own research

It is evident from figure 2 that 54 (23%) of the 240 respondents preferred working from the office, 70 (29%) preferred working from home, whereas 116 (48%) of the sample like the hybrid model. Interestingly, less than a quarter of the sample prefer the traditional working method from the office. Furthermore, the majority of the sample, almost half, has adapted to the hybrid model, as indicated by their preference.

Discussion of findings

The findings from the qualitative data uncover the managerial perceptions as they have the responsibility, and sometimes a burden, of managing the talents. Nwanisobi and Christopher (2020) emphasise that the more support and attention from senior management, the stronger the talent output. The results revealed a high degree of concern toward working remotely, such as employees' lack of engagement and commitment and a decline in work performance. This is often the result of a weak sense of belonging and the absence of learning by doing and sharing cognitive knowledge between employees and managers. Mey *et al*. (2021) argue that management should be encouraged to demonstrate a sense of belonging.

The feedback shows that managing talents remotely is complicated and challenging in controlling and directly monitoring employees. Considering the context of Saudi Arabian cultural and governmental regulations, some managers also mentioned a concern of managing female employees in the office exacerbated in remote or hybrid workplaces.

In contrast, employees' views (quantitative) varied from the management perspective (qualitative). The employees' responses indicated resistance to returning to the office fully but accepting the hybrid model. The two years of COVID-19 lockdowns have resulted in employees relaxing in their comfort zone, with the majority working from home and the rest in a hybrid model. In light of this, the results that only 23% of employees are ready to work from the office are justified.

What is, however, encouraging is that almost half of the respondents welcome the hybrid model.

The sampled managers' concerns appear valid as they have no control over employees working from home and limited control when following the hybrid model. At the same time, they can monitor and (partly) control their team members at the office.

Table 2 is a summary comparison between workplace advantages and disadvantages.

Table 2: Workplace models' comparison

Workplace Model	Advantages	Disadvantages
Work from office	**Employer (manager) perspective**	
	Organisational culture, discipline, commitment, direct supervision, critical thinking, brainstorming, motivation, engagement, monitoring performance and identifying employee strengths, creating and shaping employee experience, belonging and brand awareness.	Operational cost, reallocation issues, increasing resource demands, government/environment regulations.
	Employee perspective	
	Self-management, social and cultural interaction, direct learning, teamwork, knowledge sharing, belonging, enhancing personal and performance strengths, learning from observing, logical and emotional connections.	Stress and anxiety, bureaucracy, bullying, discrimination, management absence, transportation cost.

	Employer (manager) perspective	
Work from home	Cost-effective, fewer resources requiring less effort.	Reduced productivity, increased investment in technology infrastructure, lack of engagement, difficulty to measure and monitor staff performance.
	Employee perspective	
	More discipline to manage both social and work life.	Technology literacy, weak network connections, communication issues, unlimited working hours, the lack of instructions, effort not always visible.
Hybrid work	Employer (manager) perspective	
	(In addition to work from office advantages) A balance between employees' desires and business needs.	Maintain and update technical infrastructure, prioritise responsibilities.
	Employee perspective	
	(In addition to work from office advantages) Work-life balance, ability to adapt.	Time management, fair allocation and implementation of responsibilities, transportation costs.

Source: Own research

From these findings, the following recommendations can be made:

- Managers should be equipped through training to better manage their talents working remotely by building best practices and creating healthy working environments.
- Firms must realise that human capital is a crucial resource and therefore introduce and practise programmes to retain staff (such as continuous development and career planning) and increase the interest and attraction to a firm (Fatol *et al*., 2020; Nwanisobi & Christopher, 2020). Additionally, managers should be encouraged to display respect, fairness and integrity

values by promoting empowerment and equal treatment of staff. Mey *et al*. (2021) concur by underlining the solid and direct relationship between leadership behaviour and talent retention. They continue by suggesting that certain behaviours of transformational leaders are critical, such as being respectful, empowering, motivating, engaging, and committed.

- Internal hiring should be encouraged as building capability from current employees is more cost-effective and efficient than buying or buying options to gain competitiveness and enhance performance.

- TM should have a multi-dimensional vision, starting by identifying talents, onboarding and retaining, and positioning the right person with the right skills at the right place and time. Nwanisobi and Christopher (2020) agree by positing that there is nothing more crucial than fitting the right employee in the right position. Research revealed that when TM devote attention to its development programs, firms are 75% more likely to succeed in fulfilling senior positions and future leadership roles. This interprets the high cost of TM activity as costly as it is to replace a departing employee, even more, costly is the competitive advantage lost with each employee who walks out the door (Arokiasamy & Tat, 2020; Damer, 2020; Herrera & las Heras-Rosas, 2020; Bagul, 2021; Li Qi & Jia Qi, 2021).

- TM leaders (decision-makers) should intentionally focus on staff turnover by identifying its causes and addressing its reasons (for example, top management bullying or substantial differences between wages of top management and staff).

Conclusion

The objective of this chapter was to examine talent management in the new hybrid workplace from the perspectives of managers and employees in a Saudi Arabian private sector firm. It was found that managing successful operations through remote or hybrid working models is complex and generates challenges. Businesses and extant literature may have diverging perspectives about workplaces, namely: 1) remote- or hybrid models are appropriate for certain jobs and a complete return to the office will lead to a decline in productivity and an increase in the costs of operating offices; and 2) working from home could result in higher productivity and

better quality performance. However, it remains a management decision influenced by their ability to manage their "talents" remotely through, among other things, the support of high-quality, up-to-date technology infrastructure and no compromise in terms of productivity, output quality and sustainable growth. Under these circumstances, working remotely or following the hybrid model is the best decision to reduce the operational costs of offices. This decision can be cascaded down according to every firm/business or department/division as per individual needs, requirements, goals and objectives but are not suitable for all business types.

It is worth noting that a successful and talented manager with unique capabilities and competencies can manage different models or workplaces, maintaining the actual progress of productivity and growth. The central point of debate therefore is the capability of the leadership to drive and steer the talents toward the ideal and/or optimal output as per the circumstance. Nevertheless, that does not mean advocating that all employees return to the office and that top management and other management staff remain behind the screens.

Managers should realise that firms struggle in hiring and retaining talent, not because of a scarcity of the latter, but rather other factors, not only prevalent in Saudi Arabia, including:

- Internal reasons (bureaucracy, no transparent merit-based recruitment process, lack of retention program, disengage incapable or strict leaders, unhealthy environment, unfair promotion programs, etc.)
- External reasons (governments stepped in, strict regulations such as giving employees the right to quit a current job with significantly fewer liabilities, forced recruitment)
- Stringent competition with easy accessibility via advanced technology and modern applications allowed recruiters to hunt for the most talented competencies (Patronage package, healthier environment, brand image, increment and/or promotion).

The results indicate that employees are more inclined to either work from home or adopt a hybrid model, with 77% of the sample indicating this preference. However, these working models might not be supported from the business side, as the preferred working model requires employee commitment, engagement, and productivity. The main contribution of this chapter is to extend the academic and business' understanding of managing talents in different workplace models. Employees are influenced by their managers and their managers by the top hierarchy. Therefore TM is not just a process; it is a mindset that must be practised and supported by best practice policies and procedures (Mahajan, 2020). If the top leaders have a mindset to identify, support and prioritise talent management, they can practise professional talent management and attract and retain talented employees. In Saudi Arabia, many private-sector firms have announced implementing a hybrid model effective from August 2022. However, the aim is to return to "normal" working from the office.

Future research can be conducted on talent management from a Middle Eastern context, such as increasing staff turnover, enforcements on decreasing diversity, employee retention's best practices and wage-gap imbalances.

References

Chapter 1

Acemoglu, D. & Autor, D. 2011. *Skills, tasks and technologies: Implications for employment and earnings*, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0169-7218(11)02410-5 Date of access: 12 Jun. 2022.

Baruch, Y. 2000. Teleworking: benefits and pitfalls as perceived by professionals and managers. New Technology, *Work and Employment*, 15(1):34–49.

Bick, A., Blandin, A. & Mertens, K. 2020. *Work from Home After the COVID-19 Outbreak.* (CEPR Discussion Paper No. DP15000.) https://ssrn.com/abstract=3650114 Date of access: 12 Jan. 2022.

Bloom, N., Liang, J., Roberts, J. & Ying, Z.J. 2015. Does Working from Home Work? Evidence from a Chinese Experiment. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 130(1):165–218.

Boeri, T., Caiumi, A. & Paccagnella, M. 2020. Mitigating the work-safety trade-off, *Covid Economics: Vetted and Real-Time Papers*, 1(2) 60-66.

Brussevich, M., Dabla-Norris, E. & Khalid, S. 2020. Who will Bear the Brunt of Lockdown Policies? Evidence from Tele-workability Measures Across Countries, (IMF Working Paper, No. WP/20/88).

Caulfield, B. 2015. Does It Pay to Work from Home? Examining the Factors Influencing Working from Home in the Greater Dublin Area. *Case Studies on Transport Policy*, 3(2):206–214.

Clancy, M. 2020. *The Case for Remote Work*, (Economics Working Papers, No. 20007), Iowa State University, Department of Economics, https://lib.dr.iastate.edu/econ_workingpapers/102 Date of access: 17 Jun. 2020.

Collins, J.H.&JMoschler, J.J. 2009. The Benefits and Limitations of Telecommuting. *Defence AR Journal*, 16(1):55–66.

Department of Public Service and Administration. 2020. *State of disaster: Guidelines for the containment/ management of the Corona virus (COVID-19) in the public service*. Pretoria: Department of Public Service and Administration.

Dey, I. 2005. *Qualitative data analysis*. London: Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.

Di Mauro, F. & Syverson, C. 2020. *The COVID crisis and productivity growth*, VoxEU.org. https://voxeu.org/article/covid-crisis-and-productivity-growth Date of access: 17 Jun. 2022.

Dingel, J. & Neiman, B. 2020. *How Many Jobs Can be Done at Home?*, (NBER Working Paper, No. 26948), http://dx.doi.org/10.3386/w26948 Date of access: 18 Jul. 2022.

Dingel, J.I.& Neiman, B. 2020. How Many Jobs Can Be Done at Home? *Journal of Public Economics*, 189(1):104235.

Donadio, R. 2020. The Coming Setback for Women in the Workplace, *The Atlantic*, https://www.theatlantic.com/international/archive/2020/05/france-women-workplace-coronavirus-pandemic/612136/ Date of access: 8 Jul. 2020.

Dr Y.L.M. 2020. COVID-19: What does the 'new normal' mean? *The Star*. https://www.thestar.com.my/lifestyle/health/2020/05/21/covid-19-what-does-the-039new-normal039-mean/ Date of access: 13 Dec. 2022.

Eddleston, K.A.& Mulki, J. 2017. Toward Understanding Remote Workers' Management of Work–Family Boundaries: The Complexity of Workplace Embeddedness. *Group & Organization Management*, 42(3):346–387.

Enaifoghe, A.O. 2021a. South Africa's Response to COVID-19 through a Multimodal Approach. In: *Fall 2021 Special Issue: Living in an Era of Emerging Pandemics*. The Zambakari Advisory, LLC. 2021:62.

Enaifoghe, A.O. 2021b. Mitigating Structural Barriers to Global Economic Development in the Least Developed Countries. *Researchers World - International Refereed Social Sciences Journal*, 10(2):56.

Enaifoghe, A.O., Maramura, T. & Ndlovu, M. 2021. Critically Assessing the Effect of COVID-19 beyond the Pandemic: The Social and Economic Impacts in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of Human Ecology*, 74(1-3):40-48.

Espinoza, R. & Reznikova, L. 2020. *Who can log in? The importance of skills for the feasibility of teleworking arrangements across OECD countries*, (OECD Social, Employment and Migration Working Papers, No. 242). Paris: OECD Publishing.

Eurofound and International Labour Office. 2017. *Working anytime, anywhere: the effects on the world of work*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Financial Times. 2020. *Coronavirus may create lasting workplace change*, https://www.ft.com/content/5801a710-597c-11ea-abe5-8e03987b7b20 Date of access: 17 Jun 2022.

Gajendran, R.S. & Harrison, D.A. 2007. The Good, the Bad, and the Unknown About Telecommuting: Meta-Analysis of Psychological Mediators and Individual Consequences. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(6):1524–1541.

Galanti, T., Guidetti, G., Mazzei, E., Zappalà, S. & Toscano, F. 2021. Work from Home during the COVID-19 Outbreak: The Impact on Employees' Remote Work Productivity, Engagement and Stress. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine,* 63(1):426–432, Publish Ahead of Print.

Gorlick, A. 2020. The productivity pitfalls of working from home in the age of COVID-19, *Stanford News*. https://news.stanford.edu/2020/03/30/productivity-pitfalls-working-home-age-covid-19/ Date of access: 17 Jun. 2022.

Grant, C.A., Wallace, L.M., Spurgeon, P.C., Tramontano, C. & Charalampous, M. 2019. Construction and Initial Validation of the e-Work Life Scale to Measure Remote e-Working. *Employee Relations* 41(1):16–33.

Harvard Business School. 2020. COVID-19 and the Workplace: Implications, Issues, and Insights for Future Research and Action. (Working Paper 20-127).

Ikwegbue, P.C., Enaifoghe, A.O., Maduku, H. & Agwuna, L.U. 2021. The Challenges of COVID-19 Pandemic and South Africa's Response. *African Renaissance*, 18(1):271-292.

JLL 2020. *Home and Away: The new workplace hybrid?* https://www.jll.com.hk/content/dam/jll-com/documents/pdf/research/apac/ap/jll-research-home-and-away-jul-2020-latest.pdf Date of access: 17 Jul. 2022.

Kahn, L. Lange, F. & Wiczer, D. 2020. *Labor Demand in the Time of COVID-19, Econofact,* https://econofact.org/labor-demand-in-the-time-of-COVID-19 Date of access: 17 Jun. 2022.

Kifor, C.V., Săvescu, R.F. & Dănuț, R. 2022. Work from Home during the COVID-19 Pandemic—The Impact on Employees' Self-Assessed Job Performance. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 19(17):10935.

Morikawa, M. 2020. *COVID-19, teleworking, and productivity,* VoxEU.org, https://voxeu.org/article/covid-19-teleworking-and-productivity Date of access: 17 Jun. 2020.

Mukhopadhyay, B. & Mukhopadhyay, B.K. 2020. Effectively Managing Remote Workplace during COVID-19. *The Sentinel, Post-Editorial*. 19 March 2022. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Boidurjo_Mukhopadhyay/publication/3400 22982_Managing_Remote_Work_During_COVID-19/links/5e9334cba6fdcca789105d94/Managing-Remote-Work-During-COVID-19.pdf?origin=publication_detail Date of access: 15 Jun. 2022.

Mulki, J.P., Bardhi, F., Lassk, F.G. & Nanavaty-Dahl, J. 2009. Set up remote workers to thrive. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 51(1):63. https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Felicia_Lassk/publication/264844669_Set_ Up_Remote_Workers_to_Thrive/links/542ec3900cf29bbc126f5601/Set-Up-Remote-Workers-to-Thrive.pdf?origin=publication_detail Date of access: 12 Jun. 2022.

Ng, K.C. 2020a. *Do Hong Kong's Work-From-Home Employees Get a Day Off When Typhoon Signal No 8 Is in Force?* https://www.scmp.com/news/hong-kong/society/article/30,97,872/hong-kong-braces-higos-will-teleworkers-still-have-work-when Date of access: 18 Aug. 2022.

Nkate, J. 2020. The effect of COVID-19 on the work arrangements in the South African public service. *Africa Journal of Public Sector Development and Governance*, 3(1) 2020.

OECD. 2018. *Good Jobs for All in a Changing World of Work: The OECD Jobs Strategy*, OECD Publishing, Paris, https://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264308817-en Date of access: 14 Jun.2022.

OECD. 2020. *OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*. Productivity gains from teleworking in the post COVID-19 era: How can public policies make it happen? Updated 7 September 2020.

OECD. 2020a. Capacity for remote working can affect lockdown costs differently across places, *OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*, http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/capacity-for-remote-working-can-affect-lockdown-costs-differently-across-places-0e85740e/ Date of access: 21 Jun. 2022.

OECD. 2020b. Corporate sector vulnerabilities during the Covid-19 outbreak: assessment and policy responses, *OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*, http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/corporate-sector-vulnerabilities-during-the-covid-19-outbreak-assessment-and-policy-responses-a6e670ea/ Date of access: 13 Jun. 2022.

OECD. 2020c. Keeping the internet up and running in times of crisis, *OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*, http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/keeping-the-internet-up-and-running-in-times-of-crisis-4017c4c9/ Date of access: 23 Jul. 2022.

OECD. 2020d. Supporting people and companies to deal with the COVID-19 virus: Options for an immediate employment and social-policy response*, OECD Policy Responses to Coronavirus (COVID-19)*. http://www.oecd.org/coronavirus/policy-responses/supporting-people-and-companies-to-deal-with-the-covid-19-virus-options-for-an-immediate-employment-and-social-policy-response-d33dffe6/ Date of access: 3 Aug. 2022.

OECD. 2020e. Productivity gains from teleworking in the post-COVID-19 era: How can public policies make it happen? *Tackling coronavirus (COVID-19): Contributing to a Global Effort*. Updated 7 September 2020.

Ozimek, A. 2020. The Future of Remote Work, *Upwork*. https://www.upwork.com/press/economics/the-future-of-remote-work/ Date of access 17 Jun. 2022.

Purwanto, A. Asbari, M., Fahlevi, M., Mufid, A., Agistiawati, E., Cahyono, Y. & Suryani, P. 2020. Impact of Work from Home (WFH) on Indonesian Teachers' Performance during the COVID-19 Pandemic: An Exploratory Study. *International Journal of Advanced Science and Technology,* 29 (5):6235–6244.

Ramaphosa, C. 2020a. *Escalation of measures to combat Coronavirus COVID-19 pandemic*. Pretoria: The Presidency. 23 March 2020

Ramaphosa, C. 2020b. Statement by President Cyril Ramaphosa on measures to combat COVID-19 epidemic. Pretoria: The Presidency. 15 March 2020.

Republic of South Africa. 2002. *Disaster management act*, no. 57 of 2002

Sileyew, K.J. 2019. Research Design and Methodology. In: Abu-Taieh, E., Mouatasim, A.E. & Hadid, I.H.A. (Eds.), *Cyberspace*. Intech Open.

Silverman, D. 2016. Qualitative research. New York. Sage Publications.

Sun Life 2020. Accessed 20 May. *Health Conscious Office Workers Appreciate Benefits of Working from Home*. https://www.sunlife.com.hk/en/about-us/newsroom/news-releases/2020/health-conscious-office-workers/ Date of access: 14 Aug. 2022.

Troup, C., & Rose, J. 2012. Working from Home: Do Formal or Informal Telework Arrangements Provide Better Work–Family Outcomes? *Community Work & Family* 15(4):471–486.

U.S. Bureau Of Labor Statistics. 2021. *Effects of COVID-19 Pandemic on Productivity and Costs Statistics*. Last Modified Date: November 18, 2021.

Viete, S. & Erdsiek, D. 2018. *Trust-Based Work Time and the Productivity Effects of Mobile Information Technologies in the Workplace,* (ZEW Discussion Paper, No. 18-013), http://ftp.zew.de/pub/zew-docs/dp/dp18013.pdf Date of access: 17 Jun 2022.

Vyas, L. & Butakhieo, N. 2021. The impact of working from home during COVID-19 on work and life domains: an exploratory study on Hong Kong, *Policy Design and Practice,* 4:(1):59-76.

Whiteside, P. 2020. Coronavirus: Five things that will never be the same again because of COVID-19. *Skynews*. https://news.sky.com/story/coronavirus-five-things-that-will-never-be-the-same-againbecause-of-covid-19-11968739 Date of access: 7 Apr. 2022.

Wong, H.K.A. & Cheung J. 2020. Survey Findings on Working from Home Under COVID19. Lingnan University. https://www.ln.edu.hk/f/upload/48,728/Survey%20findings%20on%20Work%20From%20Home_Eng.pdf Date of access: 20 May 2022.

Chapter 2

Ali, S. 2016. A brief introduction to decolonial computing. XRDS: crossroads, *The ACM magazine for students*, 22(4):16-21.

Anangisye, W. 2019. Personal interview. Interview conducted on 23 July 2013, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania.

Anzaldúa, G. 1999. *Borderlands / La Frontera: The new mestiza* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Aunt Lute Books.

Anzaldúa, G. 2002. Now let us shift … the path of conocimiento … inner works, public acts. In: Anzaldúa, G. & Keating, A. (eds.), *This bridge we call home: Radical visions for transformation.* New York: Routledge. pp. 540-578.

Baloyi, M.E. 2020. Black self-hatred: Regaining self-worth – From decolonization towards reconciliation in South Africa – a practical theological appraisal. *Theologia viatorum*, 44(1): a33. https://doi.0rg/10.4102/TV.v44il.33 Date of access: 14 Jun. 2022.

Ben-Porath, S. & Smith, R.M. 2013. Introduction. In: Ben-Porath, S. & Smith, R.M. (eds.), *Varieties of Sovereignty and citizenship*. Philadelphia: Pennsylvania University Press. pp. 1-14.

Calderón, D. 2014. Anticolonial methodologies in education: Embodying land and indigeneity in Chicana feminisms. *Journal of Latino/Latin-American Studies*, 6(2): 81-96.

Frame, J.M. 2015. *A history of Western philosophy and theology*. Phillipsburg: P & R Publishing.

Gaini, F. 2018. Altered islands: Young Faroe Islanders' future landscapes. *Suomen antropologi,* 43(4):3-18.

Hershey, R.A. 2019. 'Paradigm wars' revisited. New eyes on indigenous people's resistance to globalization. *The indigenous people's journal of law, culture and resistance*, 5(1):43-116.

Holiday, R. & Hanselman, S. 2016. *The daily Stoic*. London: Profile Books.

Holm, A.H. 2020. Unbordering borders: La Reconquista happens in ceremony. *Academia letters, article 97*. https://doi.org/10.20935/AL97 Date of access: 18 Jul.2022.

Hooks, B. 1992. *Black looks: Race and representation*. Boston: South End Press.

Jansen, J.D. 2017. *The problem with decolonization.* University seminar. https://www.litnet.co.za/problem-decolonisation-jonathan-jansen-seminar/ Date of access: 13 Aug 2022.

Kafanabo, E.J. 2019. Personal interview. Interview held on 23 July 2019 in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania.

Magano, M.D. 2018. Indigenising knowledge for the excluded children. Indilinga *African journal of indigenous knowledge systems,* 17(2):234-244.

Magezi, V. 2019. Doing practical, public theology in the context of South Africa's decolonization discourse. *Evangelical review of theology*, 43(4):312-329.

Magula, M. & Phoshoko, S. 2020. Decolonisation of the law curriculum in South Africa through the prism of lived experience. *Pretoria law student review*, 14(1):84-95.

Majumder, M. 2021. Paradigm war: A distinct indigenous vision. *Academic letters, article 926*. https://doi.org/10.20935/AL926 Date of access: 7 Jun. 2022.

Maldonado-Torres, N. 2007. On the coloniality of being. *Cultural studies,* 21(2):240-270.

Mudau, P. & Mtonga, S. 2020. Extrapolating the role of transformative constitutionalism in the decolonization and Africanisation of legal education in South Africa. *Pretoria student law review*, 14(1): 44-57.

Pochedley, L.S. 2016. *Neshaby treaty making: (Re)visionings for indigenous futurities in education*. Unpublished MEd dissertation. Austin: University of Texas.

Povinelli, E.A. 2013. Citizens of the earth: Indigenous cosmopolitanism and the governance of the prior. In: Ben-Porath, S. & Smith, R.M. (eds*.), Varieties of sovereignty and citizenship*. Philadelphia: Pennsylvania University Press. pp. 211-226.

Sacks, J. 2020. *Morality.* London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Shahjahan, R.A., Ramirez, G.B. & De Oliveira Andreotti, V. 2017. Attempting to imagine the unimaginable: A decolonial reading of global university rankings. *Comparative education review*, 61(S1):S51-S73.

Take-Profit.Org. 2021. https://take-profit.org/en/statistics/unemployment-rate/south-africa/ Date of access: 20 Apr.2022.

Tarnas, R. 2010. *The passion of the Western mind*. London: Pimlico.

Urrieta, L. & Calderón, D. 2019. Critical Latinx indigeneities: Unpacking indigeneity from within and outside of Latinized entanglements. *Association of Mexican American education journal,* 13(2): 145-174.

Van der Walt, A.G.P. 1978. *Die teorie en praktyk van die onderwys by Hieronymus.* Unpublished MEd dissertation. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University.

Van der Walt, B.J. 1999. *Visie op die werklikheid*. Potchefstroom: Potchefstroom University.

Verus Newsletter. 2022. *Staat van het onderwijs 2022: verscherpte aandacht op basisvaardigheden*. https://mailchi.mp/verus/staat-van-het-onderwijs-2022-verscherpte-aandacht-op-basisvaardigheden?e=e5a091a697 Date of access: 15 Apr.2022.

Zamora, D. 2016. *Decolonizing the "good immigrant": Discourse, cultural studies, and decolonial thought*. Unpublished MA dissertation. Los Angeles: California State University.

Chapter 3

Akbari, A. & Khormaiee, F. 2015. The prediction of mediating role of resilience between psychological well-being and emotional intelligence in students. *International Journal of School Health*, 2(3):1-5.

Alhaider, M. 2022. A critical review of talent management in a local context: a case study. *Management*, 10(1):53-67.

Baran, B.E. & Woznyj, H.M. 2020. Managing VUCA: the human dynamics of agility. *Organisational dynamics*. DOI: 10.1016/j.orgdyn.2020.100787

Borg, J., Borg, N., Scott-Young, C.M. & Naderpajouh, N. 2020. The work readiness–career resilience linkage: Implications for project talent management. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 14(4):1-19.

Bryman, A. & Bell, E. 2011. *Business research methods* (3rd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.

Bundtzen, H. & Hinrichs, G. 2021. The link between organisational agility and VUCA — an agile assessment model. *SocioEconomic Challenges*, 5(1):35-43.

Caligiuri, P., De Cieri, H., Minbaeva, D., Verbeke, A. & Zimmermann, A. 2020. International HRM insights for navigating the COVID-19 pandemic: implications for future research and practice. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 51(5):697-713.

Claus, L. 2019. HR disruption — time already to reinvent talent management. *Business Research Quarterly*, 22(3):207-215.

Daubner-Siva, D., Ybema, S., Vinkenburg, C.J. & Beech, N. 2018. The talent paradox: talent management as a mixed blessing. *Journal of Organisational Ethnography*, 7(1):74-86.

Day, A. & Randell, K.D. 2014. Building a foundation for psychologically healthy workplaces and well-being. In: Day, A., Randell, K.D., Kelloway, E. & Hurrell, J. Jr. (Eds.), *Workplace wellbeing: how to build psychologically healthy workplaces.* West Sussex: Wiley Blackwell. pp. 3-26.

De Klerk, J. 2005. Spirituality, meaning in life, and work wellness: a research agenda. *International Journal of Organisational Analysis*, 13(1):64-68.

De Simone, S. 2014. Conceptualizing wellbeing in the workplace. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 5(12):118-122.

Dewar, C., Hirt, M. & Keller, S. 2019. The mindsets and practices of excellent CEOs. *McKinsey Quarterly*, 11:1-15.

Dhillon, R. & Nguyen, Q.C. 2021. *Strategies to respond to a VUCA world*. https://lup.lub.lu.se/student-papers/search/publication/9040634 Date of access: 15 Jun. 2022.

Du, J. & Chen, Z. 2018. Applying organisational ambidexterity in strategic management under a "VUCA" environment: evidence from high tech companies in China. *International Journal of Innovation Studies*, 2(1):42-52.

Eriksson, P. & Kovalainen, A. 2015. *Qualitative methods in business research: a practical guide to social research*. London: Sage.

Gallup 2021. *Wellness vs. wellbeing: what's the difference?* https://www.gallup.com/workplace/340202/wellness-wellbeing-difference.aspx Date of access: 21 Jun. 2022.

Gandhi, L. 2021. HR challenges in the post-Covid-19 world. *Effective Executive*, 24(1):43-54.

Haimes, Y.Y. 2009. On the complex definition of risk: a systems-based approach. *Risk Analysis: An International Journal*, 29(12):1647-1654.

Hancock, B. & Schaninger, B. 2020. HR says talent is crucial for performance — and the pandemic proves it. *McKinsey and Company*, 27:1-7.

Hartmann, N.N. & Lussier, B. 2020. Managing the sales force through the unexpected exogenous COVID-19 crisis. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 88: 101-111.

Hill, A., MacNamara, Á., Collins, D. & Rodgers, S. 2016. Examining the role of mental health and clinical issues within talent development. *Frontiers in Psychology,* 6(2042):1-11.

Hirsh, W. & Tyler, E. 2017. *Talent management: learning across sectors. Leadership Foundation for Higher Education*. pp. 1-52. https://s3.eu-west-2.amazonaws.com/assets.creode.advancehe-document-manager/documents/lfhe/asset_images_docs/research_resources/research/series_5/6825_lfhe_talent_management_52ppnew.pdf_1572866040.pdf Date of access: 14 Jun. 2022.

Hosseini, A. & Jafari Bazyar, F. 2019. Organisational resilience from the perspective of organisation employees and managers. *Management Studies in Development and Evolution*, 28(91):9-30.

Jaja, S.A. & Amah, E. 2014. Mentoring and Organisational Resilience. A study of manufacturing companies in Rivers State. *IOSR Journal of Business Management*, 16(10):01-09. DOI: 10.9790/487X-161010109.

Jin, J. & Tang, J. 2021. Exploring the effect of perceived organisational support and resilience on Chinese pharmacists' engagement in stressful and competitive pharmaceutical work at hospitals. *Saudi Pharmaceutical Journal*, 29(9): 931-938.

Kaliannan, M. & Adjovu, S.N. 2015. Effective employee engagement and organisational success: a case study. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 172:161-168.

Karumuri, V., Kore, G., 2021. Effective Talent Management Practices: A Review. (EBMS). *EPRA International Journal of Economics, Business and Management Studies.* June, pp. 32-35.

Khan, A. 2021 VUCA and well-being — the challenges and prospects in the new pandemic era. *Editorial Advisory Board*. pp. 97-106.

Lee, J.Y., Yahiaoui, D., Lee, K.P. & Cooke, F.L. 2022. Global talent management and multinational subsidiaries' resilience in the Covid-19 crisis: moderating roles of regional headquarters' support and headquarters–subsidiary friction. *Human Resource Management*, 61(3):355-372.

Malinga, K.S., Stander, M. & Nell, W. 2019. Positive leadership: moving towards an integrated definition and interventions. In: Van Zyl, L. & Rothmann, S. Sr. (Eds.). *Theoretical approaches to multi-cultural positive psychological interventions.* pp. 201-228.

Marques, V.C. & Berry, G.R. 2021. Enhancing work–life balance using a resilience framework. *Business and Society Review*, 126(3):263-281.

Mayer, C.H. & Wilke, K. 2022. Leading through VUCA times for a sustainable future of work: expert views on the global automotive industry. In: *Leadership after COVID-19*. Cham: Springer International. pp. 253-268.

Mendy, J. 2020. Bouncing back from workplace stress: from HRD's individual employee's developmental focus to multi-facetted collective workforce resilience intervention. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 22(4):353-369.

Nangia, M. & Mohsin, F. 2019. Sustainable talent management practices in a VUCA (volatile, uncertain, complex, ambiguous) environment. *ABS International Journal of Management*, 7(1):59-68. https://absjournal.abs.edu.in/ABS-Journal-Volume-7-isuue-1-June-2019/article-10.pdf Date pf acces: 2 Jun. 2022.

Ngoc Su, D., Luc Tra, D., Thi, H.H.M., Nguyen, H.H.T. & O'Mahony, B. 2021. Enhancing resilience in the Covid-19 crisis: lessons from human resource management practices in Vietnam. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(22):3189-3205.

Nteogwuija, I. & Wechie, I. 2019. Talent retention and employees' resilience of tele-communication companies in Rivers State, Nigeria. *Global Journal of Management and Business*, 6(1):100-107.

Park, E.R., Luberto, C.M., Chad-Friedman, E., Traeger, L., Hall, D.L., Perez, G.K., Goshe, B., Vranceanu, A.-M., Baim, M., Denninger, J.W., Fricchione, G., Benson, H. & Lechner, S.C. 2021. A comprehensive resiliency framework: theoretical model, treatment, and evaluation. *Global Advances in Health and Medicine*, 10. DOI: 10.1177/21649561211000306.

Park, E.R., Luberto, C.M., Chad-Friedman, E., Traeger, L., Hall, D.L., Perez, G.K., Goshe, B., Vranceanu, A.M., Baim, M., Denninger, J.W. & Fricchione, G. 2021. A comprehensive resiliency framework: theoretical model, treatment, and evaluation. *Global Advances in Health and Medicine*, 10, p.21649561211000306. https://doi.org/10.1177/2164956120976554. Date of access: 12 Jul. 2022.

Paul, M. & Jena, L.K. 2022. Workplace spirituality, teachers' professional well-being and mediating role of positive psychological capital: an empirical validation in the Indian context. *International Journal of Ethics and Systems, ahead of print.* https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOES-08-2021-0163. Date of access: 2 Jun. 2022.

Peker, A. & Cengiz, S. 2022. Covid-19 fear, happiness and stress in adults: the mediating role of psychological resilience and coping with stress. *International Journal of Psychiatry in Clinical Practice*, 26(2):123-131.

Phan, H., Mills, A.R. & Fleming, J. 2021. Perceived wellness among pharmacy residents during COVID-19. *Journal of the American Pharmacists Association*, 61(6):e52-e59.

Sharma, A., Rangarajan, D. & Paesbrugghe, B. 2020. Increasing resilience by creating an adaptive salesforce. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 88:238-246.

Stokes, P., Liu, Y., Smith, S., Leidner, S., Moore, N. & Rowland, C. 2016. Managing talent across advanced and emerging economies: HR issues and challenges in a Sino-German strategic collaboration. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 27(20):2310-2338.

Tansley, C. 2011. What do we mean by the term "talent" in talent management? *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 43(5):266-274.

Tomčiková, L., Svetozarovova, N. & Coculova, J. 2021. Challenges and priorities in talent management during the global pandemic caused by COVID-19. *Marketing and Management of Innovations,* 5(2):94-103.

Vercio, C., Loo, L.K., Green, M., Kim, D.I. & Beck Dallaghan, G.L. 2021. Shifting focus from burnout and wellness toward individual and organisational resilience. *Teaching and Learning in Medicine*, 33(5):568-576.

Villajos, E., Tordera, N. & Peiró, J.M. 2019. Human resource practices, eudaimonic well-being, and creative performance: The mediating role of idiosyncratic deals for sustainable human resource management. *Sustainability*, 11(24):1-20.

Vötter, B. 2019. Crisis of meaning and subjective well-being: the mediating role of resilience and self-control among gifted adults. *Behavioral Sciences*, 10(1):1-10.

Wilson, V.A. 1998. *Qualitative research: an introduction. Purposes, methodology, criteria for judgment, and a rationale for mixed methodology.* (ERIC Document Retrieval Service (EDRS), ED423285.) https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED423285 Date of access: 8 Jun. 2022.

Winn, G.L. & Dykes, A.C. 2019. Identifying toxic leadership and building worker resilience. *Professional Safety*, 64(03):38-45.

Chapter 4

Amusan, L., & Ngoh, M.S. 2016. Women as agents of development: An assessment of Modimola Village in the Northwest Province of South Africa through the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP). *Gender and Behaviour*, 14(2):7238-7245.

Antonopoulos, R. 2009. Promoting gender equality through stimulus packages and public job creation: Lessons learned from South Africa's Expanded Public Works Programme (No. 101). Public Policy Brief.

Beierl, S. & Dodlova, M. 2022. Public works programmes and cooperation for the common good: Evidence from Malawi. *The European Journal of Development Research,* 1(1):21.

Bellamy, K. & Rake, K. 2005. Money, money, money: Is it still a rich man's world?

Beukes, R., Fransman, T., Murozvi, S & Yu, D. 2017. Underemployment in South Africa. *Journal of Development Southern Africa*, 34(1):33-55.

Beukes, R., Fransman, T., Murozvi, S. & Yu, D. 2017. Underemployment in South Africa, *Development Southern Africa*, 34:1: 33-55, DOI:10.1080/0376835X.2016.1269634.

Biyase, M. & Bromberger, N. 2015. Public works programmes in South Africa: Experience and the problem of their limited use. *Journal of Governance and Regulation*. 4(4):1-9.

Carli, L.L. 2020. Women, Gender equality and COVID-19. Gender in Management: *An International Journal*. 23(1), 37(4)

Casale, D. 2004. What has the feminisation of the labour force brought women in, South Africa? Trends in labour force participation, employment, and earnings, 1995-2001. (DPRU Working Paper No. 04/84). Cape Town: Development Policy Research Unit.

Chen, M., Vanek, J., Lund, F., Heintzand, J., Jhabvala, R. & Bonner, C. 2005. *Progress of the world's women: women, work and poverty*. New York: United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM).

Department of Public Works (DPW). 2009. Expanded Public Works Programme Five-Year Report 2004/05 - 2008/09 (Pretoria).

Dladla, N. 2017. Racism and the marginality of African philosophy in South Africa. *Phronimon,* 18(1):204-231.

Eurofound. 2016. *The Gender Employment Gap: challenges and solutions*. Luxembourg, Publications Office of the European Union.

Evandrou, M. & Glaser, K. 2003. Combining work and family life: the pension penalty of caring. *Ageing and Society*, 23(1):582-60.

Ferrant, G., Pesando, L.M. & Nowacka, K. 2014. Issues Paper: Unpaid Care Work: The missing link in the analysis of gender gaps in labour outcomes, OECD 2014.

Festus, L., Kasongo, A., Moses, M. & Yu, D. 2015. *The South African Labour Market,1995-2013*. Economic Research Southern Africa (ERSA) Research Programme.

Gradín, C. 2020. Segregation of women into low-paying occupations in the United States. *Applied Economics*, 52(17):1905-1920.

Gugerty, M.K. & Kremer, M., 2008. Outside funding and the dynamics of participation in community associations. *American Journal of Political Science*, 52(3):585-602.

Heyl, A. 2015. The EPWP in the social sector: Valuing or de-valuing 'women's work'? Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Hochfeld, T., Stuart, L. & Sophie, P. 2017. *How to make South Africa's public works programme work for women.* Braamfontein, South Africa: The Conversation.

ILO. 2016. *Women at Work Trends 2016*. International Labour Office: Geneva.

International Labour Organisation (ILO), 2018. The gender gap in employment: What's holding women back?

Kagisanyo, K. & Cheng, B. 2018. *South Africa: Expanded Public Works Programme*, South Africa: ILO.

Kiger, M.E. & Varpio, L. 2020. Thematic analysis of qualitative data: AMEE Guide No. 131, *Medical Teacher,* DOI: 10.1080/0142159X.2020.1755030.

Kingdon, G. & Knight, J. 2007. Unemployment in South Africa, 1995–2003: Causes, Problems and Policies. *Journal of African Economies*, 6(5):813–848.

Kuhn, S., Milasi, S. & Yoon, S. 2018. *World employment social outlook*: Trends 2018. Geneva: ILO.

Levendale, C. 2017. Towards women's economic empowerment: An overview of challenges, achievements, legislative mechanisms, and programmes. International Women's Conference, August 2017. Parliament of the Republic of South Africa.

London: The Fawcett Society. Ben-Zeev, K. 2016. *Who Cares?* South Africa's Expanded Public Works in the social sector and its impact on women, Southern Africa: Heinrich Böll Foundation.

Manila, B.C. 2014. *Analysis and application of Maslow's theory in managing EPWP in public works.* A paper presented at the SALGA Regional conference Giyani Community Hall, 2-4 September 2014.

Mascherini, M., Bisello, M. & Rioboo Leston, I. 2016. *The gender employment gap: Challenges and solutions*. Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union.

Ngoh, M.S. 2013. Rural women and their role in the expanded public works programme in Modimolla village, Northwest Province: an assessment (Doctoral dissertation).

Nhlapo, T.M.S. & Vyas-Doorgapersad, S. 2016. Human resource provisioning strategy for gender equality within the Department of Correctional Services: The case of Groenpunt Management Area, *Administration Publica*, 24(3):166–182.

Niyimbanira, F. 2016. Characterisation of time-related underemployment in a South African municipality: a case of Bushbuckridge, Mpumalanga province. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanity Studies*, 8(1):116-132.

Niymbanira, R.N. & Sabela, P.T. 2019. Gender Dynamics In Employment and Labour Force Trends in South Africa. *International Journal of Economics and Finance Studies,* 11(2):36-54.

Nyangiwe–Ndika, W. 2015. An analysis of barriers which affect women in leadership positions in Eastern Cape Municipalities. Case study of Amathole District Municipality (Doctoral dissertation, University of Fort Hare).

OECD. 2012. Closing the gender gap: act now. OECD Publishing.

Public Service Commission (PSC). 2006. *Gender mainstreaming initiative in the Public Service*, PSC, Pretoria.

Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1994. *RDP*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1996, *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa,* No. 108 of 1996, Government Printer, Pretoria.

Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1996. *The Public Financial Management Act (1997)*. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Republic of South Africa (RSA), 1997. *The Growth Employment and Redistribution Strategy.* Pretoria: The National Treasury.

Research Brief on Gender and Equality in South Africa 2013-2017. *SA Human Right Commission.* (Online) https://www.shrc.org.za/home/21/files.pdf Date of Access: 12 May 2022.

Statistics South Africa. 2021. *Quarterly Labour Force Survey*. Pretoria: STATSA.

STATS SA (Statistics South Africa). 2018. *Quarterly Labour Force Survey*. Statistical release P0211. Pretoria: Government Printers.

Sulla, V., Zikhali, P. & Cuevas, P.F. 2022. Inequality in Southern Africa: An Assessment of the Southern African Customs Union (English). Washington, DC: World Bank Group.

The Republic of South Africa. The Basic Conditions of Employment Act 75 of 1997.

Tolla, T. 2013. *Black women's experiences of domestic work: Domestic workers in Mpumalanga.* The University of Cape Town. (Unpublished mini dissertation.) www.psychology.uct.ac.za/sites/default/files/image_tool/images/117/Tsidiso.Tolla_.pdf Date of access: 10 May 2022.

World Bank. 2005. *Women and poverty. Summary of women's watch.* New York: Oxford University.

Chapter 5

Aldonas, G.D, 1997. Multilateral Investment Agreements. *The International Lawyer*, 31(2):447–452.

Al-zagheer, H., Ali, H., Shawabkeh, A.L., Barakat, S. & Nahleh, I. A. 2022. On-line Human Resources Management Model. *Advances in Dynamic Systems and Apllications,* 17(1):37–45.

Anderson, E. & Gatignon, H. 1986. Modes of foreign entry: A transaction cost analysis and propositions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 1(1):26.

Anlesinya, A., Dartey-Baah, K. & Amponsah-Tawiah, K. 2019. Management, A Review of Empirical Research on Global Talent. *FIIB Business Review, 8(2).* https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1177%2F2319714451836306 Date of access: 2 Aug. 2022.

Ashif, A.S.M. 2019. Talent Management as a Source of Competitive Advantage : A review. *International Journal of Business and Social Research*, 9(4):28–34. https://doi.org/10.18488/journal.1006/2015.5.9/1006.9.208.214 Date of access: 21 Apr. 2022.

Barney, J. 1991. Firm Resources and Sustained Competitive Advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1):99–120.

Bonneton, D., Schworm, S. K., Festing, M. & Muratbekova-Touron, M. 2019. Do global talent management programs help to retain talent? A career-related framework. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 33(2):203–238. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2019.1683048 Date of access: 6 May 2022.

Borisova, O., Aleks, A., Silayeva, R., Saburova, L.N., Belokhvostova, N.V. & Sokolova, A. 2017. Talent Management as an Essential Element in a Corporate Personnel Development Strategy. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal,* 16(31).

Brenkert, G.G. 2019. Mind the Gap! The Challenges and Limits of (Global) Business Ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 155(1):917–930.

Buckley, P. & Casson, M. 2021. Thirty years of International Business Review and International Business Research. *International Business Review,* 30(2): 101795. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2021.101795 Date of access: 3 Jun. 2022.

Buckley, P. 2002. Is the International Business Research Agenda Running Out of Steam? *Journal of International Business Studies*, 33(2), 365–373. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8491021 Date of access: 15 Jun. 2022.

Buckley, P., Doh, J. & Benischke, M. 2017. Towards a renaissance in international business research? Big questions, grand challenges, and the future of IB scholarship. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 48(9):1045–1064. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-017-0102-z Date of access: 19 May 2022.

Cavusgil, S., Knight, A., Riesenberger, J. R., Rammal, G. & Rose, L. 2015. *International business: the new realities* (2nd edition). Pearson Australia.

Cerar, J., Nell, P.C., & Reiche, B.S. 2021. The declining share of primary data and the neglect of the individual level in international business research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 21(1)10. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-021-00451-0 Date of access: 2 Jun. 2022.

Chao, A., Chazdon, R.L., Colwell, R.K. & Shen, T.J. 2006. Abundance-based similarity indices and their estimation when there are unseen species in samples. *Biometrics*, 62(2):361–371. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1541-0420.2005.00489 Date of access: 17 Jul. 2022.

Contractor, F.J. 2016. Tax avoidance by multinational companies: Methods, policies, and ethics. *Rutgers Business Review,* 1(1):27–43. https://doi.org/10.46697/001c.16887 Date of access: 2 Jun. 2022.

Cox, H. 1997. The Evolution of the International business enterprise. *Global Business Strategy*, 1(1):9–46.

Cyert, R. & March, J. 1963. *A Behavioral Theory of the Firm*. Upper-Saddle River, New York: Prentice Hall.

Czinkota, M., Ronkainen, I. & Moffett, M. 2002. *International Business*. 6th ed.. Thonson: Asia.

Dabic, M., Maley, J. & Novak, I. 2021. An analysis of globalisation in international business research 1993–2018: Rise of the sceptics. *Critical Perspectives on International Business*, 17(3):444–462. https://doi.org/10.1108/cpoib-02-2019-0016 Date of access: 22 May 2022.

Darley, W.K. & Luethge, D.J. 2019. Management and business education in Africa: A post-colonial perspective of international accreditation. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 18(1):99–111. https://doi.org/10.5465/amle.2016.0086 Date of access: 17 May 2022.

Das Mohapatra, A. K. & Behera, R. 2020. Talent Management Practices: A Review based Study. *Journal of Information and Computational Science*, 10(9): 472–492. www.joics.org Date of access: 2 Jun. 2022.

Davidson, W. 1980. The Location of Foreign Direct Investment Activity: Country Characteristics and Experience Effects. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 11(2):9–22.

Dean, S.A. & East, J.I. 2019. Soft Skills Needed for the 21st-Century Workforce. *International Journal of Applied Management and Technology*, 18(1):17–32. https://doi.org/10.5590/ijamt.2019.18.1.02 Date of access: 2 Jun. 2022.

Dimanche, F. & Lo, K. 2022. The Elusive Search for Talent: Skill Gaps in the Canadian Luxury Hotel Sector. *Tourism and Hospitality*, 3(1):31–46. https://doi.org/10.3390/tourhosp3010003 Date of access: 21 May 2022.

Dunning, J. 1980. Toward an eclectic theory of international production. *International Business Review*, 22(3):1–3.

Dunning, J.H. 1998. Location Enterprise: The Multinational Neglected. *Journal of International Business Studies,* 40(1):45–66. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490024 Date of access: 5 Jul. 2022.

Eden, L, & Lenway, S. 2001. Multinationals: The Janus face of globalisation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(3):383–400.

Eden, L., Nielsen, B. & Verbeke, A. 2020. *Research methods in international business*. UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Eden, Lorraine, & Nielsen, B.B. 2020. Research methods in international business: The challenge of complexity. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 51(9):1609–1620. https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-020-00374-2 Date of access: 5 Jun. 2022.

El Dahshan, M., Keshk, I.L. & Dorgham, L.S. 2018. Talent Management and Its Effect on Organisation Performance among Nurses at Shebin El -Kom Hospitals. *International Journal of Nursing*, 5(2):108–123. https://doi.org/10.15640/ijn.v5n2a10 Date of access: 29 Apr. 2022.

Fernandes, C., Veiga, P.M., Lobo, C.A. & Raposo, M. 2022. Global talent management during the COVID-19 pandemic? The Gods must be crazy! *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 1–11. https://doi.org/10.1002/tie.22249 Date of access: 4 Jun.2022.

Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Thunnissen, M. & Scullion, H. 2020. Talent management: context matters. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 31(4):457–473. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2019.1642645 Date of acces: 21 Aug. 2022.

Hayakawa, K. & Kimura, F. 2015. How Much Do Free Trade Agreements Reduce Impediments to Trade? *Open Economies Review*, 26(4):711–729. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11079-014-9332-x Date of access: 1 May 2022.

Hofstede, G. 1980. Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values. NY: Sage publications.

Hyman, M., Yang, Z., Fam, K.S. & Stratemeyer, A. 2008. International Business Research: A Retrospective. *The Open Business Journal*, 1(1):67–95.

Ibrahim, A. U. & Daniel, C. O. 2018. Research Article Talent Management and Its Effects on the Competitive Advantage in. *International Journal of Recent Advances in Multidisciplinary Research,* 05(11):4247–4253.

Johanson, J. & Vahlne, J.E. 1977. The Internationalisation Process of the Firm-A Model of Knowledge Development and Increasing Foreign Market Commitments *Journal of International Business Studies*, 8(1):23–32.

Johanson, J. & Wiedersheim-Paul, F. 1975. the Internationalisation of the Firm — Four Swedish Cases. *Journal of Management Studies*, 12(3):305–323. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.1975.tb00514.x Date of access: 11 Jul. 2022.

Jones, G. 2017. International Business and Emerging Markets: A Long-Run Perspective. In: *SSRN Electronic Journal (Issue September).* https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3035357 Date of access: 23 Jul. 2022.

Kabwe, C. & Okorie, C. 2019. No Title. *Thrunderbird International Business Review*, 61(6):857–872. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1002/tie.22090 Date of acccess: 16 May 2022.

Kameda, N. 2005. A research paradigm for international business communication. *Corporate Communications*, 10(2):168–182. https://doi.org/10.1108/ 1356 3280510596970 Date of access: 22 Jun. 2022.

Kechagia, P. & Metaxas, T. 2022. FDI and Institutions in BRIC and CIVETS Countries: An Empirical Investigation. *Economies*, 10(4):77. https://doi.org/10.3390/economies10040077 Date of access: 27 Apr. 2022.

King, K. A. & Vaiman, V. 2019. Enabling effective talent management through a macro-contingent approach: A framework for research and practice. *BRQ Business Research Quarterly*, 22(3):194–206. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.brq.2019.04.005 Date of access: 13 May 2022.

Kircher, D. 1964. Now the Transnational Enterprise. *The International Executive*, 6(3), 13. https://search.proquest.com/docview/220297257?accountid=12834 Date of access: 11 Jun. 2022.

Klarin, A., Inkizhinov, B., Nazarov, D. & Gorenskaia, E. 2021. International business education: What we know and what we have yet to develop. *International Business Review*, 30(5):101833. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ibusrev.2021.101833 Date of access: 18 Jun. 2022.

Kogut, B. & Singh, H. 1988. The effect of national culture on the choice of entry mode. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 1(1):411–432.

Kogut, B. & Zander, U. 1993. Knowledge of the Firm and the Evolutionary Theory of the Multinational Corporation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(1):625–645.

Krugman, P.R., & Obstfeld, M. 2002. *International Economics* (6th. Ed.). Boston: Addison Wesley.

Kumar, A. 2017. The Intersection of Global Business and International trade laws. *Legal Desire*. https://legaldesire.com/the-intersection-of-global-business-and-international-trade-laws/ Date of access: 21 Jun. 2022.

Kyaw, A.M.M., Harland, P. & Mujtaba, B.G. 2017. Global Management Skills and Attributes for International Business. *Journal of International Relations and Foreign Policy*, 5(1):1–16. https://doi.org/10.15640/jirfp.v5n1a1 Date of access: 29 May 2022.

Li, J. & Guisinger, S. 1992. The Globalisation of Service Multinationals in the "Triad" Regions: Japan, Western Europe and North America. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(4):675–696. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490283 Date of access: 24 Jun. 2022.

Lundan, S.M. 2018. From the editor: Engaging international business scholars with public policy issues. *Journal of International Business Policy*, 1(1–2):1–11. https://doi.org/10.1057/s42214-018-0007-y Date of access: 17 May 2022.

Mahapatra, G.P. & Dash, S. 2022. Talent development in a changing world of work. *IIMB Management Review*, 34(1):83–91. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iimb.2022.03.002 Date of access: 2 Jun. 2022.

Maruca, R.F. 1994. The right way to go global: An Interview with Whirlpool CEO David Whitwam. *Harvard Business Review,* March-April, 1–15.

McDonnell, A., Collings, D.G., Mellahi, K. & Schuler, R. 2017. Talent management: A systematic review and future prospects. *European Journal of International Management*, 11(1):86–128. https://doi.org/10.1504/EJIM.2017.081253 Date of access: 16 Jun. 2022.

Melo, J.D. & Tsikata, Y. 2014. *Regional integration in Africa Challenges and prospects*. (WIDER Working Paper 2014 / 037). Africa, February.

Meyer, K.E. & Estrin, S. 2001. Brownfield entry in emerging markets. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(3):575–584. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490985 Date of access: 15 May 2022.

Mohammed, A.A., Baig, A.H. & Gururajan, R. 2019. The effect of talent management processes on knowledge creation. *Journal of Industry-University Collaboration*, 1(3):132–152. https://doi.org/10.1108/jiuc-05-2019-0010 Date of access 2 Apr. 2022.

Moxon, R.W. & Fagafi-nejad, T. 1977. Technology Transfer and the Transnational Enterprise: The Outlook for Regulation. *Journal of Contemporary Business*, 6(4):147.

Mwasha, O.N. 2015. The benefits of regional economic integration for developing countries in Africa: A case of East African Community (EAC). *Korea Review of International Studies,* 69–92. http://www.eac.int. Date of access: 27 Jun. 2022.

Nayyar, D. 1978. Transnational Corporations and Manufactured Exports from Poor Countries. *The Economic Journal*, 88(349):59–84.

Nielsen, B.B., Welch, C., Chidlow, A., Miller, S.R., Emma, R.A., Gardner, M.K. & Pegoraro, D. 2020. Fifty years of methodological trends in JIBS: Why future IB research needs more triangulation. *Journal of International Business Studies,* 51:1478–1499. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1057/s41267-020-00372-4 Date of access: 2 May 2022.

O'Grady, S. & Lane, H.W. 1996. The Psychic Distance Paradox. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(2):309–333.

Pagan-Castaño, E., Ballester-Miquel, C., Sánchez-García, J. & Guijarro-Garcíaac, M. 2022. No Title. *Journal of Business Research*, 141, 528–535. https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2021.11.052 Date of access: 22 Jun. 2022.

Peng, M.W. 2004. Identifying the big question in international Business Research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 35(2):99–108.

Penrose, E. 1959. *The Theory of the Growth of the Firm*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Premarathna, I. 2021. International Business Management Challenges and Issues Under Foreign Laws and Regulations: a Study Based on the South Asia Region. *Universe International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*, 1(1):156–170.

Qobo, M. 2007. The Challenges of Regional Integration in Africa: In the Context of Globalisation and the prospects for a United States of Africa. Institute for Security Studies. June, 23–47.

Ravenhill, J. 2016. Region-building in Africa: Political and economic challenges. In: *Region-Building in Africa: Political and Economic Challenges,* Issue March, pp. 1–348. https://doi.org/10.1057/9781137586117 Date of access: 29 May 2022.

Rout, M. & Satpathy, B. 2020. Examining the impact of talent management practices on different sectors: A review of literature. *Journal of Xi'an University of Architecture & Technology*, 7(3):4445–4454.

Rugman, A.M., & Verbeke, A. 2004. A perspective on regional and global strategies of multinational enterprises. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 35:3–18. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400073 Date of access: 14 Jun. 2022.

Selivanovskikh, L. 2020. Global talent management. *Russian Management Journal*, 18(3):383–410. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.011 Date of access: 27 Jun/ 2022.

Shah, G.M., Memon, N.A. & Tunio, G. 2021. Need for Talent Management and Investigating Its Impact on Organisational Performance of Higher Education Institutes. *International Review of Management and Business Research*, 10(1):168–182. https://doi.org/10.30543/10-1(2021)-13 Date of access: 19 May 2022.

Shenkar, O. 2012. Cultural distance revisited: Towards a more rigorous conceptualisation and measurement of cultural differences. *Journal of International Business Studies,* 43(1):1–11. https://doi.org/10.1057/jibs.2011.40 Date of access: 22 Jun. 2022.

Shweta, B. 2020. A Study of Talent Management Practices and Strategies in the Service Sector. *International Journal of Engineering and Management Research*, 10(5):21–29. https://doi.org/10.31033/ijemr.10.5.6 Date of access: 4 Jun. 2022.

Sindhura. 2022. Talent Management Strategies in Human Resource Management: Critical for Business-A Systematic Review. *Journal of Positive School Psychology,* 6(3):3396–3409. http://journalppw.com Date of access: 29 May 2022.

Skully, M.T. 1976. The Transnational Corporation: A Critical Analysis of Its Prospects. *The Australian Quarterly*, 48(3):73. https://doi.org/10.2307/20634859 Date of access: 21 May 2022.

Stewart, M. 1972. Transnational Enterprise. *The International Executive*, 14(4):13. https://search.proquest.com/docview/220297257?accountid=12834 Date of access: 18 Jul. 2022.

Sullivan, D. 1994. Measuring the Degree of Internationalisation of a Firm. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(2):325–342.

Sullivan, D.P. & Daniels, J.D. 2008. Innovation in international business research: A call for multiple paradigms. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39(6):1081–1090. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8400400 Date of access: 23 May 2022.

Theys, N.A. & Schultz, C.M. 2020. A qualitative perspective of Talent Management. *Journal of Contemporary Management*, 17(1):64–85. https://doi.org/10.35683 /jcm19111.56 Date of access: 16 Jun. 2022.

Toyne, B. & Nigh, D. 1998. A More Expansive View of International Business. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 29(4):863–875.

Toyne, B. 1997. International business inquiry: Does it warrant a separate domain? In B. Toyne & D. Nigh (Eds), *International business: An emerging vision*: University Columbia, pp. 67–89.

Valbuena, P. & Montenegro, Y.A. 2017. Trends in International Business Research (2012-2016). *Cuadernos Latinoamericanos de Administración,* 12(25): 19–28. https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490724 Date of access: 17 Jun. 2022.

Whysall, Z. Owtram, M. & Brittain, S. 2019. The new talent management challenges of Industry 4.0. *Journal of Management Development*, 38(2):118–129. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-06-2018-0181 Date of access: 2 Jun. 2022.

Wright, R.W. & Ricks, D. 1970. Trends in International Business Research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 1(1):109–123. https://doi.org/10.1057 /palgrave.jibs.8490724 Date of access: 29 Jun. 2022.

Chapter 6

Aguinis, H. 2009. *Performance management*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson. Prentice Hall.

Aguinis, H. 2019. *Performance Management for dummies*. A Wiley Brand. New Jersey, Canada: John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Alam, P.A. 2017. Measuring organisational effectiveness through performance management system and Mckinsey's 7S model. Department of Management and Business Administration, Aliah University.

Armstrong, M. 2021. *Performance management key strategies and practical guidelines*. 3rd ed. London and Philidephia: Autumn house press.

Asrar-ul-Haq, M., Anwar, S., 2018. The many faces of leadership: Proposing research agenda through a review of literature. *Future Business Journal* 4, 179–188. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbj.2018.06.002

Babbie, E.R. 2011. *Introduction to social research*. Wadsworth Cengage Learning.

Bryman, A. & Bell, E. 2014. *Research methodology: Business and management contexts.* Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Bussin, M. 2012. The performance management handbook for emerging markets: a practical and informative handbook for managing performance for the world of work in emerging markets. Johannesburg: Knowres Publishing.

Celik, C. 2014. Performance appraisals' fairness perceptions and public service motivation: the case of Turkish district governors. Dallas: The University of Texas.

Chen, P., Sparrow, P. & Cooper, C. 2016. The relationship between person-organisation fit and job satisfaction. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 31(5):946-959.

Christensen, L.B., Johnson, B., Turner, L.A. & Christensen, L.B. 2011. *Research methods, design, and analysis*. Boston: Allan & Bacon.

Diane, B.P. 2012. The relationship between leadership and performance management: a case of Kgatleng land board (Botswana). (Doctoral dissertation).

Du Plessis, T. & Van Niekerk, A. 2017. Factors influencing managers' attitudes towards performance appraisal. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(1):1-10.

Dube, S. 2014. Employee attitudes to the performance-management system of a Consulting Engineering Company. (Doctoral dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal, Westville).

Dusterhoff, C., Cunningham, J.B. & MacGregor, J.N. 2014. The effects of performance rating, leader–member exchange, perceived utility, and organisational justice on performance appraisal satisfaction: applying a moral judgment perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 119(2):265-273.

Garcia, Y. 2017. The path towards public service motivation in the Federal Government: satisfying employees' basic psychological needs (Doctoral dissertation, Northcentral University).

Giauque, D., Ritz, A., Varone, F. & Anderfurhren-Biget, S. 2010. Motivating employees of the public sector: does public service motivation matter? *International Public Management Journal*, 13(3):213-246.

Govender, D. 2018. An assessment of performance management system at the organisation under study. College of Law and Management studies.

Govender, T., Grobler, A. & Joubert, Y.T. 2015. Justice perceptions of performance management practices in a company in the chemical industry. South African *Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 18(4):567-585.

Gruman, J.A. & Saks, A.M. 2011. Performance management and employee engagement. *Human Resource Management Review*, 21(2):123-136.

Harillal, A. 2012. Management effectiveness in motivating employees at a Durban manufacturing plant. (Master's dissertation, University of KwaZulu- Natal.)

Jayawarna, S. & Dissanayake, R. 2019. Strategic planning and organisation performance: A review on conceptual and practice perspective. Archives of Business Research.

Jensen, U.T. 2016. Causes and consequences of public service motivation: governance interventions and performance implications. Oslo: Forlaget Politica.

Kim, S. and Vandernabeele, W., 2010. A strategy for building public service motivation research internationally. *Public Administration Review*, 70(5), pp. 701-709.

Lapuente, V. & Van der Walle, S. 2020. The effects of new public management on the quality of public services. *Governance Wiley*, 33:461-475.

Lithakong, K.E. 2014. Evaluating the effectiveness of a 360-degree performance appraisal and feedback in a selected steel organisation.

Mabika, M. 2017. The influence of employee motivation on job performance: A Study of a few superstar stores in Durban Central. University of Kwa-Zulu - Natal.

Mabona, W.D.M. 2013. Exploring factors influencing the attitude of staff towards performance management: the case of core network field operation section in Telkom-Eastern Cape. (Doctoral dissertation).

Maloa, F. 2016. An assessment of a performance management system in a freight rail organisation.

Matlala, M.M. 2011. Employee fairness perceptions of a performance management system.

Mavhungu, D. & Bussin, M.H. 2017. The mediation role of motivation between leadership and public sector performance. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(1):1-11.

Miao, Q., Eva, N., Newman, A. & Schwartz, G. 2018. Public service motivation and performance: The role of organisational identification. *Public Money & management*. Routledge. 1467-9302.

Mkhize, D.A.2018. The effects of a performance management system: A case study of the South African Social Security Agency, Kwazulu - Natal, SASSA Durban District. University of Kwa-Zulu- Natal.

Mohun, E. 2018. The barriers and gateway to performance management effectiveness in a large contact centre environment in Kwa-Zulu - Natal. University of Kwa-Zulu-Natal.

Mone, E.M. & London, M. 2018. Employee engagement through effective performance management: A practical guide for managers. London: Routledge Academic.

Ngobeni, L.S. 2018. An assessment of the implementation of the Performance management and development system. A case study of the Department of Home Affairs in Durban, Kwa Zulu Natal. College of Law and Management science.

Nzeru, W. 2020. Reconceptualising coaching and mentoring framework to improve operational efficiencies: Case study of AMCOR South Africa. University of Kwa-Zulu Natal.

Omboi, B.M. 2011. The effect of performance appraisal systems on employees in Kenya Tea Development Agency: A survey of selected tea factories in Meru County-Kenya. *Research Journal of Finance and Accounting*, 2(3).

Park, S. 2014. Motivation of public managers as raters in performance appraisal: Developing a model of rater motivation. *Public Personnel Management*, 43(4):387-414.

Plachy, R.J. & Plachy, S.J. 2021. Performance management. Getting results from your performance planning and appraisal system. American Management Association.

Punch, K.F. 2013. Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches. Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Rahman, A., Shahzad, N., Mustafa, K., Khan, M.F. & Qurashi, F. 2016. Effects of organisational justice on organisational commitment. *International Journal of Economics and Financial Issues*, 6(3S).

Rowland, C.A. & Hall, R.D. 2012. Organisational justice and performance: is appraisal fair? *EuroMed Journal of Business*, 7(3):280-293.

Runge, C.E. 2013. Community college goal alignment: executive goal setting within performance management. Maryland, MA: Maryland University College.

South Africa. 1996. *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996*. Pretoria: Government Publishers.

South Africa. 1996. Department of Public Service Administration. White Paper on Human Resources Management in the Public Service. Pretoria: Government Publishers.

South Africa. 1998. *Skills Development Act 97 of 1998*. Pretoria: Government Publishers.

South Africa. 2001. *Public Service Regulation 2001*. Pretoria: Government Publishers.

South Africa. 2011. *Department of Defence 2011*. Pretoria: Government Publishers.

South Africa. 2011. *Department of Defence. ed 1. 2011*. Policy, process and procedures for the performance mangement and development system policy in the department of defence. Pretoria. Government Publishers.

South Africa. Constitution of the Republic of South Africa. 1996. Act No 108 of 1996. Pretoria: Government Printer.

South Africa. Tool, H.R. 2012. *Performance management and appraisal*. Australia: Flinders university press.

Srivastava, U.R. 2015. Multiple dimensions of organisational justice and work-related outcomes among Health-Care Professionals. *American Journal of Industrial and Business Management*, 5:666-685.

Syamsir, S. 2016. The Influence of Public Service Motivation on Service Quality of Civil Servants in West Sumatra Indonesia. *European Journal of Economics and Business Studies*, 5(1):33-41.

Syamsul, H., Tjahjoho, H.K. & Palupi, M. 2020. Study of organisational justice in SMEs and positive consequences: Systematice Review. *International Journal of Advanced Science and Technology*. 29(3).

Teo, T.C. & Low, K.C.P. 2016. The impact of goal setting on employee effectiveness to improve organisation effectiveness: Empirical study of a high-tech company in Singapore. *Journal of Business & Economic Policy*, 3(1), p.1-16.

Thantsa, G. 2013. A needs assessment for a performance management training programme amongst commanders within the South African military health services. (Doctoral dissertation, Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University).

Tirivanhu, P., Olaleye, W. & Bester. A. 2017. Advancing evidence -based practice for improved public sector performance: Lessons from the implementation of the management performance assessment tool in South Africa. *Journal of Public Administration*. 52(4.)

Tool, H.R. 2012. *Performance management and appraisal. A Handbook*. Australia: Flinders university press.

Tsiu, T. 2012. Employees' experiences of performance management appraisals. (Thesis)

Woyessa, Y.E. 2015. The effectiveness of performance management systems at the Central University of Technology, Free State. (Doctoral dissertation, University of the Free State).

Xipu, M.P. 2010. *The implementation of performance management in the public sector*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Johannesburg).

Zewotir, T. 2012. On employees' performance appraisal: The impact and treatment of the raters' effect. South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences, 15(1):44-54.

Chapter 7

Allen, D.G., 2006. Do Organizational Socialization Tactics Influence Newcomer Embeddedness and Turnover? *Journal of Management*, 32(2):237–256.

Anderson, N.R., Cunningham-Snell, N.A. & Haigh, J. 1996. Induction training as socialization: Current practice and attitudes to evaluation in British organizations. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 4(4):169-183.

Bachkirova, T., Jackson, P. & Clutterbuck, D., 2011. *Coaching and Mentoring Supervision: Theory and Practice*. UK: McGraw-Hill Education.

Bauer, T.N. & Erdogan, B. 2011. Organizational socialization: The effective onboarding of new employees. In: *APA handbook of industrial and organizational psychology Maintaining, expanding, and contracting the organization*, APA Handbooks in Psychology. American Psychological Association. 3(1).

Bauer, T.N. 2010. *Onboarding new employees: Maximizing success*. SHRM Foundation's Effective Practice Guideline Series. UK: University of Bradford.

Bauer, T.N. 2015. *Onboarding: The power of connection.* http://www.successfactors.com/enus/resources.htm Date of access: 22 Apr. 2022.

Bauer, T.N. Bodner, T., Erdogan, B., Truxillo, D.M. & Tucker, J.S. 2007. Newcomer adjustment during organizational socialization: A meta-analytic review of antecedents, outcomes, and methods. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3):707-721.

Bierema, L.L. & Hill, J.R. 2005. Virtual mentoring and HRD. *Advances in Developing Human Resources,* 7(4):556-568.

Bourdeau, A. 2011. *The Perfect Introduction: Getting Onboarding Right.* https://archive.canadianbusiness.com/leadership/the-perfect-introduction-getting-onboarding-right/ Date of access 12 May 2022.

Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012. *Job openings and labor turnover*. https://www.bls.gov/news.release/pdf/jolts.pdf Date of access: 17 Jun.2022.

Cable, D.M., Gino, F. & Staats, B.R. 2013. Reinventing employee onboarding. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 54(3):23.

Caldwell, B.G. & Caldwell, C. 2016. Ten classic onboarding errors: violations of the HRM-employee relationship. *Business and Management Research*, 5(4):47-55.

Caldwell, C. & Peters, R. 2018. New employee onboarding–psychological contracts and ethical perspectives. *Journal of Management Development*, 37(1):27-39.

Carlos, A.R. and Muralles, D.C. 2022. Onboarding in the age of COVID-19. *IFLA Journal*, 48(1):33-40.

Cilesiz, S. 2010. A phenomenological approach to experiences with technology: current state, promise, and future directions for research. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 59:487–510 .

Collins, 2013. *Collins English Dictionary*. http://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english Date of access: 17 May 2022.

Craft, H.M., Malveaux, R., Lopez, S.A. and Combs, J.P. 2016. The acclimation of new assistant principals. *Journal of School Administration Research and Development*, 1(2):9-18. Date of access: 13 Jun. 2022.

Creswell, 2006. *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Creswell, J. 1998. Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Crotty, M. 1998. The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process. London: Sage.

Dai, G. & De Meuse, K.P. 2007. *A review of onboarding literature*. Lominger Limited, Inc., a subsidiary of Korn/Ferry International, 1-9.

D'Aurizio, P. 2007. Onboarding: Delivering on the Promise. *Nursing Economic*, 25(4):228-229.

DePree, M. 2004. *Leadership Is an Art*. New York, NY: Doubleday.

Dewe, P.J. O'Driscoll, M.P. and Cooper, C. 2010. *Coping with work stress: A review and critique*. Canada: John Wiley and Sons.

Ellis, C.L. 2014. From hiring process to retention: The relationship among accurate job previews, position fit, teacher satisfaction, and retention. Hunstville: Sam Houston State University.

Frear, S. 2007. Comprehensive onboarding, traction to engagement in 90 days. Washington, DC: Human Capital Institute.

Grandey, A.A. 2003. When "The Show Must Go On": Surface Acting and Deep Acting as Determinants of Emotional Exhaustion and Peer-Rated Service Delivery. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46:86–96.

Hsieh, T. 2010. Delivering Happiness: A Path to Profits, Passion, and Purpose. New York: Business Plus.

Husserl, E. 1931. *Ideas: General introduction to pure phenomenology*. New York: McMillan. https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1932-00544-000 Date of access: 26 May 2022.

Iddagoda, Y. & Opatha, H. 2020. Relationships and Mediating Effects of Employee Engagement: An Empirical Study of Managerial Employees of Sri Lankan Listed Companies. New York: SAGE Open, 10(2):1-22.

Jaisinghani, J. & Patel, S. 2013. Training new-hire medical information specialists in the pharmaceutical industry: A benchmarking survey. *Therapeutic Innovation and Regulatory Science*, 47(3):356–362.

Kahn, W. 1990. Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 33(4):692-724.

Klein, H.J., Polin, B. & Leigh Sutton, K. 2015. Specific onboarding practices for the socialization of new employees. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 23(3):263-283.

Koch, H., Gonzalez, E. & Leidner, D. 2012. Bridging the work/social divide: The emotional response to organizational social networking sites. *European Journal of Information Systems*, 21(6):699-717.

Kouzes, J. & Posner, B. 2012. The leadership challenge: How to make extraordinary things happen. Atlanta, GA: Better World Books.

Laurano, M. 2012. *Onboarding: The missing link to productivity*. Scotland: Aberdeen Group.

Laurano, M., 2015. *The True Cost of a Bad Hire.* Florida: Brandon Hall Group.

Leana, C.R. & Van Buren, H.J., 1999. Organizational social capital and employment practices. *Academy of management review*, 24(3):538-555.

Lynch, K. & Buckner-Hayden, G. 2010. Reducing the new employee learning curve to improve productivity. *Journal of Healthcare Risk Management*, 29(3):22-28.

Macnaughton, S. & Medinsky, M. 2015. Staff training, onboarding, and professional development using a learning management system. *Partnership*, 10(2).

Mason, M. 2010. Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 11(3).

Meyer, A.M. & Bartels, L.K., 2017. The impact of onboarding levels on perceived utility, organizational commitment, organizational support, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Psychology*, 17(5):10-27.

Miglianico, M., Dubreuil, P., Bakker, P., Miquelon, P., Bakker, A.B. & Martin-Krumm, C. 2020. Strength Use in the Workplace: A Literature Review. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 21.

Miles, M.B. & H.A.M. 1994. Qualitative data analysis: A sourcebook of new methods. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Moustakas, C.E. 1994. *Phenomenological research methods*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

O'Brien, J. 2013. Employee onboarding: An analysis of best practice in employee onboarding and their implementation in the financial services industry in Ireland. (Doctoral dissertation.)

O'Reilly, C.A. & Chatman, J. 1986. Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The effects of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3):492–499.

Parker, S.K., Johnson, A., Collins, C. & Nguyen, H. 2013. Making the most of structural 51 support: Moderating influence of employees' clarity and negative affect. *Academy of Management Journal*, 56(3):867-892.

Savitt, M. 2012. Welcome! *Training Magazine*, 49(2):34-37.

Schneidermeyer, P. 2010. *Salesforce CIO: Onboarding new staff a high priority*. https://www.cio.com/article/282699/relationship-building-networking-why-onboarding-at-salesforce-com-makes-for-better-hires.html Date of access: 7 May 2022.

Self, J.T. & Dewald, B. 2011. Why do employees stay? A qualitative exploration of employee tenure. *International Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Administration*, 12(1):60-72.

Sheehan, S. 2014. A conceptual framework for understanding transcendental phenomenology through the lived experiences of biblical leaders. *Emerging leadership journeys,* 7(1):10-20.

Stevens, J., Dawson, M. & McDaniel, L. 2013. New employee orientation in small organizations in the Houston, Texas metropolitan region. *Journal of Knowledge and Human Resource Management*, 5(12):1-39.

Sutton, G. & Griffin, M.A., 2004. Integrating expectations, experiences, and psychological contract violations: A longitudinal study of new professionals. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77(4):493-514.

The Boston Consulting Group and World Federation of People Management Associations. 2012. *From capability to profitability: Realizing the value of people management, BCG*. https://docplayer.net/3671124-From-capability-to-profitability-realizing-the-value-of-people-management.html Date of access: 2 Jun. 2022.

Thomas, J. 2013. Onboarding For Success: A Midstream Evaluation of Strategic Onboarding at Portland State University. *Engineering and Technology Management Student Projects* (429).

Vernon, A., 2012. New Hire Onboarding; Common Mistakes to Avoid. *T+D Magazine*, 66(9):32.

Winterman, M. & Bucy, R. 2019. Welcome aboard: A program for improving the new hire experience for academic librarians*. Library Leadership and Management*, 33(4).

Wynhurst Group, 2007. *Onboarding*. Chicago, IL.

Yüksel, P. & Yıldırım, S. 2015. Theoretical frameworks, methods, and procedures for conducting phenomenological studies in educational settings. *Turkish online journal of qualitative inquiry,* 6(1):1-20.

Chapter 8

Aina, A. & Atin, T. 2020. The impact of implementing talent management practices on sustainable organizational performance. *Sustainability*, 12:1–21.

Ball, S.J. 1990. Politics and Policy-making in education. London: Routledge.

Ball, S.J. 1993. What is policy? Texts, trajectories and toolboxes. *Discourse: Studies in the cultural politics of education*, 13(2): 10–17.

Ball, S.J. 2003. The teacher's soul and the terrors of performativity. *Journal of education policy*, 18(2):215-228.

Ball, S.J. 2010. New voices, new knowledge and the new politics of education research: The gathering of a perfect storm? European educational research journal, 9(2):124-137.

Ball, S.J. 2012. Performativity, Commodification and Commitment: An I-Spy Guide to the Neoliberal University. *British journal of educational Studies*, 60(1):17-28.

Ball, S.J. 2015. What is policy? 21 years later: Reflections on the possibilities of policy research. *Discourse: studies in the cultural politics of education*, 36(3):306–313.

Barrios, L.M., Prowse, A. & Vargas, V.R. 2020. Sustainable development and women's leadership: A participatory exploration of capabilities in Colombian Caribbean fisher communities. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2020.121277 Date of access: 10 Jun. 2022.

Bridges, D. 1997. Philosophy and educational research: A reconsideration of epistemological boundaries. *Cambridge journal of education*, 27(2):177-189.

Brighouse, H. 2014. Response: Education, justice, ideal theory, and non-ideal theory. In Moses, M.S. (Ed.), *Philosophy of education*, pp. 15-20. Colorado, IL: Philosophy of Education Society.

Burbules, N.C. & Berk, R. 1999. Critical thinking and critical pedagogy: Relations, differences, and limits. In Popkewitz,T.S. & Fendler, L. (Eds.), *Critical theories in education: Changing terrains of knowledge and politics*, pp. 45-65. New York: Routledge.

Burns, J.M. 1978. *Leadership.* New York: Harper & Row.

Caldwell, C. & Anderson, V. 2018. Transformative philosophy and why it matters – A new moral perspective. In Caldwell, C. & Anderson, V. (Eds.), *Trust, trustworthiness and stewardship*, pp. 1-22. Nova Science Publishers.

Caldwell, C., Hooper, H. & Atwijuka, S. 2018. Transformative Philosophy – A leadership approach to achieving excellence. *Open journal of human resource management*, 1(1):53-56.

Carswell, M.A. 2021. Developing the leadership capacity of others: Theory to practice. *Journal of School Administration Research and Development*, 6(1):52–59.

Chandrasekar, A. & Zhao, S. 2020. Creating a dynamic and sustainable talent ecosystem. http://cclinnovation.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/03/creating-dynamic-sustainable-talent-ecosystem-ccl-white-paper.pdf Date of access: 18 Jun. 2022.

Collay, M. 2006. Discerning professional identity and becoming bold, socially responsible teacher-leaders. *Educational leadership and administration: Teaching and program development*, 18:131–146.

Cosenza, M.N. 2015. Defining teacher leadership: Affirming the teacher leader model standards. *Issues in teacher education*, 24(2):79–99.

Cover, R. 2012. Performing and undoing identity online: Social networking, identity theories and the incompatibility of online profiles and friendship regimes. *Convergence*, 18:177-193.

Covey, S.R. 2004. The 8th habit: From effectiveness to greatness. New York: Free Press.

De Klerk, E.D. & Smith, N.J.P. 2021. Transformative intervention strategies for teacher leaders during the pandemic and beyond. *International journal of learning, teaching and educational research*, 20(9):52–69.

De Klerk, E.D. & Smith, N.J.P. 2022. Teachers' perceptions about leadership: Towards an innovative collaborative teacher leadership development framework for schools. *International Journal of learning, teaching and educational research*, 21(2):1–17.

De Klerk, E.D. 2014. *Teacher autonomy and professionalism: A policy archaeology perspective*. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University. (PhD dissertation).

De Vos, A., De Hauw, S. & Van de Heijden, B.I.J.M. 2011. Competency development and career success: The mediating role of employability. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 79:438–447.

Drago-Severson, E. & Blum-DeStefano, J. 2018. Leading change together: Developing educator capacity within school and systems. ASCD.

Eatough, E. 2021. *Talent development is your secret weapon. Here's why*. https://www/netterup.com/blog/talent-development Date of access: 28 Jun. 2022.

Egbuta, O.U. 2019. Leadership succession practices and employees' career development in the Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation. *Journal of WEI business and economics*. https://doi.org/10.36739/jweibe.2019.0002 Date of access: 11 Jun. 2022.

Formenti, L. & West, L. 2018. Transforming perspectives in lifelong learning and adult education. A dialogue. Switzerland: Palgrave McMillan.

Foucault, M. 1977. End of the monarchy of sex. In: Lotringer, S. (Ed.), *Foucault live: collected interviews, 1961-1984.* New York: Semiotext(e). pp. 214-225.

Foucault, M. 1980. *The History of Sexuality, Vol. 1*. New York: Vintage.

Foucault, M. 1985. *The use of pleasure: The history of sexuality (Vol 2)*. Robert Hurley (trans.). New York: Random House.

Foucault, M. 1988. *Technologies of the Self*. Amherst: University of Massachusetts Press.

Gagné, F. 2004. Transforming gifts into talents: The DMGT as a developmental theory. *High ability studies*, 15(2):119–147.

Garavan, T.N., Carbery, R. & Rock, A. 2012. Mapping talent development: Definition, scope and architecture. *European journal of training and development*, 36(1): 5–24.

Garvey, B., Stokes, P. & Megginson, D. 2017. *Coaching and mentoring: Theory and practice.* 3rd ed. Los Angeles: Sage.

Grant, C. 2008. We did not put our pieces together: Exploring a professional development initiative through a distributed leadership lens. *Journal of education*, 44:85–107.

Hall, D.T., Yip, J. & Doiron, K. 2018. Protean careers at work: Self-direction and values orientation in psychological success. *Annual review of organizational psychology and organizational behaviour,* 5(1):129–156.

Harris, A. & Jones, M. 2019. Teacher leadership and educational change. *School Leadership & Management,* 39(2), 123–126.

Harris, A. & Jones, M. 2020. COVID 19 – school leadership in disruptive times. *School leadership & management*, 40(4):243-247.

Helterbran, V.R. 2010. Teacher leadership: Overcoming "I am just a teacher syndrome". *Education*, 131(2):363–371.

Hirschi, A. & Koen, J. 2021. Contemporary career orientations and career self-management: A review and integration. *Journal of vocational behaviour,* 126:103505. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jvb.2020.103505 Date of access: 14 Jun. 2022.

Hooper, H. & Caldwell, C. 2018. A Transformative Philosophy: Insights to Excellence. In: Caldwell, C. & Anderson, V. (Eds.), *Human Resource Management: A Transformative Approach.* Hauppage, NY: NOVA Publications, Chapter Three. pp. 1-12.

Howie, P. & Bagnall, R. 2013. A beautiful metaphor: Transformative learning theory. *International Journal of lifelong education*, 32(6):816-836.

Hussain, S. & Khan, S.A. 2022. Self-efficacy of teachers: A review of the literature. *Jamshedpur research review*, 10(1):110–116.

Isa, A., Ibrahim, H.I., Jaaffar, A.H. & Baharin, N.L. 2018. Talent management practices, perceived organizational support and employee retention: Evidence from Malaysian government-linked companies. *Global business and management research*, 10(3):688–696.

Jooss, S., McDonnell, A., Burbach, R. & Vaiman, V. 2019. Conceptualising talent in multinational hotel corporations. *International Journal of contemporary hospitality management*, 31(10):3879–3898.

Kim, K.T. 2010. Panoptic accountability: Supervisory leaders and normalizing or resisting professionals. *Journal of educational policy*, 7(1):67-90.

Kipnis, A.B. 2011. Subjectification and education for quality in China. *Economy and society*, 40(2): 289-306.

Klein, J.T. 2021. Building capacity for transformative learning: Lessons from cross-disciplinary and cross-sector education and research. *Environment, Development and Sustainability*. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10668-021-01802-5 Date of access: 15 Jun. 2022.

Lieberman, A. &. Miller, L. 2004. *Teacher leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Lieberman, A. 2015. Teachers at the forefront: Learning to lead. In N. Bond (Ed.), *The power of teacher leaders: Their roles, influence, and impact*. New York and London: Routledge. pp, 18-28.

Lowery-Moore, H., Latimer, R.M. & Villate, V.M. 2018. The Essence of Teacher Leadership: A Phenomenological Inquiry of Professional Growth. *International journal of teacher leadership,* 7(1):1-16.

Lyotard, J. 1984. *The postmodern condition: A report on knowledge*. Bennington, B. & Massumi, B. (Trans). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Makoelle, T.M. & Makhalemele, T. 2020. Teacher leadership in South African schools. *International Journal of management in education*, 14(3):293-310.

Manasseh, C. 2019. *Plato, Nietzche and the genius of Malcolm Young. Gifted songwriter and guitarist*. At: https://www.grin.com/document/703444 Date of access: 27 Jun. 2022.

Mangion-Thornley, K. 2021. Coaching in the context of talent management: An ambivalent practice. *International journal of evidence based coaching and mentoring,* S(15):4-19.

Masale, R., Barkhuizen, E.N. & Schutte, N.E. 2021. Exploring the determinants of an organisational talent culture for a Botswanan local government institution. *Acta Commercii*, 21(1):a892. https://doi.org/10.4102/ac.v21i1.892 Date of access: 21 Jun. 2022.

Masionis, A. 2022. *Talent development: Definition, importance, and strategies*. At: https://www.achievers.com/blog/talent-development/ on 31/01/2023

Matta, C. 2021. Philosophical Paradigms in Qualitative Research Methods Education: What is their Pedagogical Role? *Scandinavian journal of educational research*, 2021:1-14.

McCauley, C.D. & Palus, C.J. 2020. Developing the theory and practice of leadership development: A relational view. *The leadership quarterly*, 32(5): 10145. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2020.101456 Date of access: 15 Jun. 2022.

McCormack, D. 2019. Transforming perspectives in lifelong learning and adult education. *International journal of lifelong education*, 38(5):584-587.

McDonnell, A., Collings, D.G., Mellahi, K. & Schuler, R.S. 2017. Talent management: A systematic review and future prospects. *European journal of international management*, 11(1): 86–128.

McGregor, S.L.T. 2019. *Understanding and evaluating research: A critical guide*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications, Inc.

McLaughlin, T.H. 2000. Philosophy and educational policy: Possibilities, tensions and tasks. *Journal of education policy*, 15(4):441-457.

Meyers, M.C. & Van Woerkom, M. 2014. The influence of underlying philosophies on talent management: Theory, implications for practice, and research agenda. *Journal of world business*, 49:192–203.

Meyers, M.C., Van Woerkom, M., Paauwe, J. & Dries, N. 2020. HR managers' talent philosophies: Prevalence and relationships with perceived talent management practices. *The international journal of human resource management*, 31(4):562–588.

Mezirow, J. 1990. How critical reflection triggers transformative learning. In: J. Mezirow (Ed.), *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. pp. 1-20.

Mezirow, J. 1991. *Transformative dimensions of adult learning*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Mezirow, J. 1998. Transformative learning and social action: A response to Inglis. *Adult education quarterly*, 49(1):70–72.

Mezirow, J. 2000. Learning to think like an adult: Core concepts of transformation theory. In: J. Mezirow & Associates (Eds.), *Learning as transformation*, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. pp. 3–34.

Mezirow, J. 2015. Transformative learning: Theory to practice. At: https://www.ecolas.eu/eng/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/Mezirow-Transformative-Learning.pdf Date of access: 23 Jun. 2022.Mezirow, J. 2009. Transformative learning theory. In: J. Mezirow & E.W. Taylor (Eds.), *Transformative learning in practise: Insights from community, workplace, and higher education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass. pp. 19-32.

Miller, P.A. 2012. Hadrian's Practice of Freedom: Yourcenar, Beauvoir, and Foucault. *EuGeStA*, 2(2012):263–286.

Natanasabapathy, P. & Maathuis-Smith, S. 2019 Philosophy of being and becoming: A transformative learning approach using threshold concepts. *Educational philosophy and theory*, 51(4):369-379.

Newman, M. 2012. Calling transformative learning into question: Some mutinous thoughts. *Adult education quarterly*, 62:36-55.

Newstead, T., Dawkins, S., Macklin, R. & Martin, A. 2019. We don't need more leaders – We need more good leaders. Advancing a virtues-based approach to leader(ship) development. *The leadership quarterly*, 32(5): 1–11.

Oksenberg Rorty, A. 1998. The ruling history of education. In: A. Oksenberg Rorty (Ed.), *Philosophers on education. New historical perspectives*. London: Routledge. pp. 1-13.

Olssen, M., Codd, J. & O'Neill. A. 2004. *Education policy: Globalization, citizenship and democracy*. London: Sage Publications.

Papadimos, T.J., Manos, J.E. & Murray, S.J. 2013. An extrapolation of Foucault's technologies of the #self to effect positive transformation in the intensivist as teacher and mentor. *Philosophy, ethics, and humanities in #medicine*, 8(7):1–7.

Rasmussen, A. & Lingard. B. 2018. Excellence in education policies: Catering to the needs of gifted and talented or those of self-interest? *European educational research journal*, 17(6):877-897.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. *South African Schools Act*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 2006. The national policy framework for teacher education and development in South Africa. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 2018. *Teacher professional development masterplan 2017–2022*. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Republic of South Africa. 2022. Skills development guidelines for employees in the basic education sector. Pretoria: Government Printer.

Rob, C.M. 2020. Talent dispositionalism. *Synthese*, 198:8085–8102.

Robescu, D.F., Fatol, D., Pascu, D. & Draghici, A. 2021. *A study on leadership competencies.* http://aspeckt.unitbv.ro/jspui/bitstream/123456789/2611/1/023%20-%20A%20study%20on%20leadership%20competencies.pd Date of access: 18 Jun. 2022.

Saurombe, M.D., Barkhuizen, E.N. & Schutte, N.E. 2017. Management perceptions of a higher educational brand for the attraction of talented academic staff. *South African journal of human resource management / Suid-Afrikaanse Tydskrif vir Menslikehulpbronbestuur,* 15(0):a831. https://doi.org/10.4102/sajhrm.v15i0.831 Date of access: 15 Jun. 2002.

Scheffer, I. 1991. In praise of the cognitive emotions and other essays in the philosophy of education. New York and London: Routledge.

Schultz, T.W. 1960. Capital formation by education. *Journal of political economy*, 68(6):571-583.

Scullion, H., Collings, D.G. & Caligiuri, P. 2010. Global talent management. *Journal of World Business*, 45(2):105–108.

Shields, C.M. & Hesbol, K.A. 2020. Transformative leadership approaches to inclusion, equity, and social justice. *Journal of school leadership*, 30(1):3–22.

Shields, C.M. 2011. Introduction to transformative leadership: An introduction. In C.M. Shields (Ed.), *Transformative leadership: A reader*. New York, USA: Peter Lang. pp. 1–17.

Siambi, J.K. 2022. Leadership succession planning and organization transition: A review of literature. *International journal of managerial studies and research. The Indian Journal of Musculoskeletal Radiology*, 10(3):16-30.

Sinar, E., Wellins, R.S., Canwell, A.L., Ray, R.L., Neal, S., Abel, A.L. & Cotton, T. 2018. Global leadership forecast 2018. *25 Research insights to fuel your people strategy.* At: https://media.ddiworld.com/research/global-leadership-forecast-2018_au-nz-report_ddi_tr.pdf Date of access: 18 Jun. 2022.

Spooner, V.S. & John, V.M. 2020. Transformative learning in a context of deep division: The importance of learning about self for leadership. *South African journal of higher #education*, 34(6):275–293.

Taylor, E.W. 2008. Transformative learning theory. *New directions for adult and continuing education*, 119:5-15.

United Nations. 2015. *Sustainable development goals.* At: http://www.un.org/sustainabledevelopment/sustainable-development-goals/ on 03/07/2022

Van der Vyver, C.P., Fuller, M. & Khumalo, J. 2021. Teacher Leadership in the South African Context: Areas, Attributes and Cultural Responsiveness. *Research in educational management and leadership,* 6(1):127-162.

Wallgren, T. 2006. Transformative philosophy: Socrates, Wittgenstein, and the democratic spirit of philosophy. Maryland: Lexington Books.

Walls, J. 2022. Performativity and caring in education: Toward an ethic of reimagination. *Journal of school leadership*, 32(3):289-314.

Working Knowledge. 2022. *Want to build better leaders? Focus on mindset, skills, knowledge*. At: https://hbswk.hbs.edu/item/want-to-build-better-leaders-focus-on-mindset-skills-knowledge Date of access: 7 Jul. 2022.

Yacek, D., Rödel, S.S. & Karcher, M. 2020. Transformative education: Philosophical, psychological, and pedagogical dimensions. *Education Theory,* 70(5):529–537.

York-Barr, J., & Duke, K. 2004. What do we know about teacher leadership? Findings from two decades of scholarship. *Review of Educational Research*, 74(3):255-346.

Zahorsky, D. 2010. *Fighting employee turnover costs: Reduce employee turnover*. http://sbinformation.about.com/od/hiringfiring/a/reduceturnover.htm Date of access: 19 Jun. 2022.

Chapter 9

Ariely, D. 2010. *The upside of irrationality*. New York: HarperCollins.

Baggini, J. 2020. *The godless gospel*. London: Granta Books.

Baijnath, N. 2017. Ethical leadership in higher education in the era of complexity. In: D. Singh & C. Stückelberger (eds.), *Ethics in higher education*. Geneve: Globethics. pp. 187-206.

Bazalgette, P. 2017. *The empathy instinct*. London: John Murray.

Bible. 1902. Life Application Study Bible, New International Version. Wheaton Ill.: Tyndale House Publishers.

Bower, C. 2005. *Open minds, closed minds, and Christianity*. Valyland: Aardvark Press.

Corruption Watch South Africa. 2022. *What is corruption: Our definition of corruption*. https://www.corruptionwatch.org.za/learn-about-corruption/what-is-corruption/our-definition-of-corruption/ Date of access: 14 Jun. 2022.

Dill, J. 2012. The global education of global citizens. *Global society*, 49:541-546.

Donovan, P. 1986. Do different religions share moral common ground? *Religious Studies*, 22(3/4):367-375.

Frame, J.M. 2008. *The doctrine of the Christian life*. Phillipsburg: P & R Publishing.

Geisler, N.L. 2010. *Christian ethics*. Grand Rapids: Baker Academic.

Grayling, A.C. 2019. *The history of philosophy*. London: Random House.

Grayling, A.C. 2021. *The frontiers of knowledge*. London: Viking Books.

Hornby, A.S. (ed.). 2015. *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Koonce, J. 2018. Critical race theory and caring as channels for transcending borders between an African-American professor and her Latina/o students. *International Journal of Multicultural Education*, 20(2):1010-116.

Kopp, B. & Mandl, H. 2018. Analysing values in schools in Germany. In: Carmo, M. (ed.), *Education applications and developments III*. Lisbon: Science Press. pp. 123-132.

Krsteski, N.G.H. 2017. Corruption in South Africa: Genesis and outlook. *Journal of process management – New technologies, international*, 5(4):49-54.

Kubow, P.K. 2011. The creative spirit and comparative education. In: Schneller, P. & Wolhuter, C. (eds.), *Navigating the C's. An introduction to comparative education*. Potchefstroom: Keurkopié. pp. 155-168

Lahti, D.C. & Weinstein, B.S. 2005. The better angels of our nature: Group stability and the evolution of moral tension. *Evolution and human behavior*, 26:47-63.

Liautaud, S. 2021. *The power of ethics*. London: Simon & Schuster.

Lloyd, B. 2021. How do governments add value to society? Or what are governments for? *Academia letter. Article 1208*. https://doi.org/10.20935/AL1208 Date of access: 9 Jun. 2022.

Manyaka R.K. & Nkuna N.W. 2014. The phenomenon of corruption in the South African public sector: Challenges and opportunities. *Mediterranean journal of social sciences,* 5(27):1572-1580.

Mitchell, B. 2013. *Ethics and moral reasoning*. Wheaton: Crossway.

Nguyen, Q.T.N. 2018. Values education at classroom level in Vietnam: The insider view. In: M. Carmo (ed.), *Education applications and developments III.* Lisbon: InSciencePress. pp. 12-23.

Nolan, A. 2009. The spiritual life of the intellectual. In: W. Gumede & L. Dikeni (eds.), *The poverty of ideas. South African democracy and the retreat of the intellectuals.* Auckland Park: Jacana. pp. 46-54.

Paley, C. 2021. *Beyond bad*. London: Coronet.

Pinker, S. 2019. *Enlightenment now*. Penguin/Random House.

Pinker, S. 2021. *Rationality.* London: Allan Lane.

Plotnitsky, A. 2006. Chaosmologies: Quantum field theory, chaos and thought in Deleuze and Guattari's 'What is philosophy?'. *Paragraph,* 29(2):40-56.

Potgieter, F.J. 2015. Do ethics and morals really represent the best possible blueprints for the good life? Reflections on a possible pedagogy of discernment. *Kasmera,* 43(1):186-208.

Procter, P. (ed.). 2002. *Cambridge international dictionary of English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. *The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*. Act 94 of 1996.

Risk and Compliance Portal. 2020. *South Africa corruption report*. https://www.ganintegrity.com/portal/country-profiles/south-africa/ Date of access: 14 Jun. 2022.

Sacks, J. 2011. *The great partnership*. London: Hodder & Stoughton.

Sacks, J. 2021. *Morality*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Schnelle, U. 2020. *Theology of the New Testame*nt. Grand Rapids: Baker Academic.

Simpson, D.P. (ed.). 1968. Cassell's new Latin-English English-Latin dictionary. London: Cassell.

Sinclair, J.M. (ed.). 1999. *Collins concise dictionary*. Glasgow: HarperCollins Publishers.

Stoker, H. G. 1967. *Oorsprong en rigting*. Cape Town: Tafelberg.

Stornaiuolo, A. & Nicholls, T.P. 2019. Cosmopolitanism and education. *Oxford Research Encyclopedia of Education.* https://doi.org/10.1093/acrefore/9780190264093.013.252 Date of access: 19 Jun. 2022.

Strauss, D.F.M. 2009. Social space: Philosophical reflections. *South African journal of higher education,* 4:760-792.

Thompson, M. 2018. *Ethics for life*. London: John Murray Learning.

Van Rensburg, K.A.J. 2012. Om 'n mens te wees van integriteit. *Die kerkblad*, 115(3256):10-11.

Vigil, J.M. 2008. *Theology of religious pluralism*. Vienna: Lit Verlag.

Vorster, J.M. 2017. *Ethical perspectives on human rights*. Potchefstroom: Theological Publications.

Chapter 10

Al-Kibsi, G., Woetzel, J., Isherwood, T., Khan, J., Mischke, J. & Noura, H. 2015. *Saudi Arabia beyond oil: the investment and productivity transformation.* McKinsey Global Institute, New York: NY.

Arokiasamy, A. & Tat, H. 2020. Exploring the influence of transformational leadership on work engagement and workplace spirituality of academic employees in the private higher education institutions in Malaysia. *Management Science Letters,* 10(4):855-864.

Bagul, D.B. 2021. Talent management: employee retention strategies. *Vidyabharati International Interdisciplinary Research Journal,* 13(1):298-301.

Bal, P.M. & Izak, M. 2021. Paradigms of flexibility: a systematic review of research on workplace flexibility. *European Management Review,* 18(1):37-50.

Buheji, M. & Buheji, A. 2020. Characteristics of problem-based learning in post-COVID-19 workplace. *Human Resource Management Research*, 10(2):33-39.

Cooper, D.R. & Schindler, P.S. 2008. Business research methods. *10th international edition*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Damer, L. 2020. Successful talent management strategies business leaders use to improve succession planning. Minneapolis: Walden University. (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation)

De Boeck, G., Meyers, M.C. & Dries, N. 2018. Employee reactions to talent management: Assumptions versus evidence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 39(2):199-213.

Etikan, I., Abubakar, S. Rukayya, M. & Alkassim, S. 2016. Comparison of convenience sampling and purposive sampling. *American Journal of Theoretical and Applied Statistics*, 5(1):1-4.

Fatol, D., Robescu, D., Farkas, Z. & Draghici, A. 2020. *Talent Management – Present and Future*. Conference proceedings of the Management, Knowledge and Learning International Conference conducted by MakeLearn and TIIM, 20 – 22 May 2020. Bangkok: ToKnowPress.

Gadi, P.D. & Kee, D.M.H. 2020. Workplace bullying, human resource management practices, and turnover intention: the mediating effect of work engagement: evidence of Nigeria. *American Journal of Business*, 36(1):62-83.

Hancock, B. & Schaninger, B. 2020. *HR says talent is crucial for performance – and the pandemic proves it*. McKinsey Global Institute, New York: NY.

Herrera, J. & de las Heras-Rosas, C. 2020. Corporate social responsibility and human resource management: *Towards sustainable business organisations. Sustainability,* 12(3):841.

Indradevi, R. 2020. Workplace spirituality: Successful mantra for modern organisation. *Journal of Critical Reviews*, 7(6): 437-440.

Ippolito, D., Constantinescu, C. & Rusu, C.A. 2020. Enhancement of human-centered workplace design and optimisation with Exoskeleton technology. *Procedia CIRP*, 91:243-248.

Katsaros, K.K. 2022. Exploring the inclusive leadership and employee change participation relationship: the role of workplace belongingness and meaning-making. *Baltic Journal of Management*, 17(2):158-173.

Kravariti, F. & Johnston, K. 2020. Talent management a critical literature review and research agenda for public sector human resource management. *Public Management Review*, 22(1):75-95.

Lagrosen, S. & Lagrosen, Y. 2022. Workplace stress and health–the connection to quality management. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 33(1-2):113-126.

Li Qi, V. & Jia Qi, C. 2021. *Talent Management Practices and Employee Engagement: A Study in Malaysian GLCs.* https://oer.ums.edu.my/handle/oer_source_files/1507 Date of access: 10 Jul. 2022.

Lund, S., Madgavkar, A., Manyika, J. & Smit, S. 2020. *What's next for remote work: An analysis of 2,000 tasks, 800 jobs, and nine countries*. McKinsey Global Institute, New York: NY.

Mahajan, V. 2020. Exploring talent management strategies adopted by organisations. *Journal of Exclusive Management Science*, 9(9):1-11.

Mariotti, I. & Akhavan, M. 2020. Exploring proximities in coworking spaces: evidence from Italy. *European spatial research and policy*, 27(1):37-52.

Mey, M.R., Poisat, P. & Stindt, C. 2021. The influence of leadership behaviours on talent retention: An empirical study. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19:a1504.

Nwanisobi, B.C. & Christopher, I.C. 2020. Talent management: a conceptual framework with practical approach. *International Journal of Recent Research in Commerce, Economics and Management*, 7(4):1-10.

Rathee, R. & Rajain, P. 2020. Workplace spirituality: A comparative study of various models. Jindal Journal of Business Research, 9(1):27-40.

Reidhead, C. 2020. Impact of organisational culture on employee satisfaction: A case of Hilton hotel, United Kingdom. *Journal of Economics and Business*, 3(1):432-437.

Saatçi, B., Rädle, R., Rintel, S., O'Hara, K. & Nylandsted Klokmose, C. 2019, September. Hybrid meetings in the modern workplace: stories of success and failure. In: *International Conference on Collaboration and Technology*. Springer, Cham. pp. 45-61.

Sajeevanie, T.L. 2020. Importance of selfmanagement and future research thoughts: A critical review perspective. *International Journal of Creative Research Thoughts*, 8(7):4122-27.

Shet, S.V. 2020. Strategic talent management – contemporary issues in international context. *Human resource development international*, 23(1):98-102.

Sikder, S. & Wijesuriya, D.D. 2021. Literature Review: Talent Management. *Journal of contemporary development & management studies*, 9:80-87.

Singh, R.P. 2021. Talent management literature review. *Feedforward Journal of Human Resource*, 1(1):43-48.

Tamunomiebi, M.D. & John-Eke, E.C. 2020. Workplace Diversity: Emerging Issues in Contemporary. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 10(2):255-265.

Xie, J.L., Elangovan, A.R., Hu, J. & Hrabluik, C. 2019. Charting new terrain in work design: A study of hybrid work characteristics. *Applied Psychology*, 68(3): 479-512.

Zardasht, P., Omed, S. & Taha, S. 2020. Importance of HRM policies on employee job satisfaction. *Black Sea Journal of Management and Marketing*, 1(1): 49-57.

Zimmer, M.P., Baiyere, A. & Salmela, H. 2020. *Digital Workplace Transformation: The Importance of Deinstitutionalising the Taken for Granted*. Conference proceedings of the 28th European Conference on Information Systems (ECIS), Marrakesh, Morocco, 15 – 17 June 2020. Association for Information Systems.