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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TALENT RISK MANAGEMENT TOOL FOR ACADEMICS IN A SELECTED SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION INSTITUTION

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Thesis submitted for the degree Philosophiae Doctor in Labour Relations Management at the North-West University

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DECLARATION

I, Deborah Madge Mokgojwa, declare that the thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Philosophaie Doctorae in labour relations titled ***The development of a talent risk management tool for academics in South African education institutions*** has not previously been submitted by me for the degree at this or any other institutions. I further declare that this is my own work and that all material used herein is acknowledged.

The referencing and the editorial style as prescribed by the Publication Manual (6^{th} edition) of the American Psychological Association (APA) were followed in this thesis.

This thesis is submitted in the format of five research articles.

D.M MOKGOJWA

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Signature

30 November 2018

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Date

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my wonderful and awesome husband, Katlego Mokgojwa, who walked with me on this journey, and to my dearest little son, Kutlwano Mokgojwa, who always makes me smile and understanding when I have to work. To my beautiful daughter, Reneilwe Mokgojwa, welcome to the world my princess, you are such a blessing. I also dedicate this study to my best friends and brothers, Oageng Madimabe and Lucas Madimabe, who always cheer me up and lift my mood. Lastly, I dedicate the study to my number one supporters, my fabulous parents, Mr and Mrs Madimabe. Thank you for the encouragement that all things are possible with God by my side.

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NOBLE MINDS ARE HERE WITH US

BY MRS NKUKENG MADIMABE (MOTHER)

They may be ordinary people
But are people with purpose and will
They might be ordinary people
But they are a force to reckon with
Pillars of wisdom and knowledge
With talents that are treasured
Talents that may be overlooked
Lodged in them unleashed
Should we look too far?

To appreciate the creation of my Maker
Should we go on searching?
When evidence is there for all to see
Never should they bury God's given talent
Nor should they be denied ground to flourish
Rather let them have it multiplied
For more to them shall be given
Oh! Noble minds are here with us
Surely, they are not just ordinary people

ABSTRACT

The talent risk management of academic staff at South African higher education institutions is becoming vital as many top qualified scholars are leaving. This results in a vacuum that is very difficult to fill as higher education institutions are currently not an employer of choice for especially younger scholars. A great deal of attention has been devoted to understand the reasons of the high turnover, such as poor compensation, student unrest, ongoing political involvement from the government, a lack of funding, poor infrastructure and unrealistic performance expectations. As a result of these factors, academics are experiencing various challenges in the pursuit of the "new modern academic career," while the resources to support them remain scarce. The need therefore exists to explore the factors that constrain the career environment of talent academic staff and develop a talent risk management tool that can assist in the proactive detection and mitigation of academic risks.

This research followed both a qualitative and quantitative research approach. The data for the qualitative part of the research were collected by using semi-structured interviews with ten managers of a selected South African higher education institution. The data for the quantitative research were collected from academic staff (N=225) from a selected South African higher education institution by using the newly developed talent risk management questionnaire. The qualitative data were analysed using content analysis by means of SPSS for descriptive statistics (i.e. means, frequencies, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis) and factor analyses.

The results of the literature review for this study showed that there is still a great deal of confusion relating to the definition of the field of talent management. The researcher highlights the need for higher education institutions to define talent for their context, as well as the expectations for high performing individuals. The clarification of the concepts and theory for talent management is vital as it has implications for the effective implementation of talent management in higher education. Poorly applied talent management practices result in significant risks for higher education institutions, as academic staff are likely to leave their jobs.

The findings of the study highlighted prominent workplace risks that affect the ability of higher education institutions to create a talent culture in which academic staff can thrive. The five themes that were identified included management support, strategic direction, work environment, physical environment and diversity practices. The participants in particular highlighted risks relating to a lack of management support and strategic direction for talent management. Additional risks such as lack of physical infrastructure and unsafe work environments also came to the fore.

The findings of the interviews further showed five prominent occupational talent risks, namely career development, talent attraction, compensation, performance management, and talent retention practices. The findings showed an overreliance from management on career development opportunities as a method to attract and retain talented academics. Although the variety of career development opportunities are commended, the reality is that academic staff is still not compensated fairly in comparison with their counterparts in the industry. The findings also revealed that higher education should revisit its employer brand to attract and retain talented academics.

Based on the interviews, the research developed a talent culture risk management tool and an occupational talent risk management tool to assess the talent management risks that academics are exposed to. Both measures resulted in a five-factor structure for talent culture risks (i.e. strategic direction, management support, work environment, physical infrastructure, diversity management) and occupational talent risks (i.e. career development, talent attraction, compensation, performance management, talent retention strategies). Acceptable reliabilities were obtained for both measures. The results therefore support the qualitative findings of the interviews. The results further pointed out risks relating to poor compensation and the work environment. Two thirds of the academics in this study considered quitting their jobs.

This research made an original contribution by exploring an area in the field of talent management that was yet to be researched in the higher educational context, namely talent risk management. This research presented a talent risk management tool that can assist higher educational management to detect talent risks in advance. Higher education management is encouraged to develop talent management policies and practices that will assist in the effective talent attraction and retention of scarce academic skills.

Keywords: occupational talent risks, retention, talent, talent culture risks, talent risk management

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INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The talent risk management (TRM) of academic staff at South African public universities is becoming essential as these institutions are struggling to attract and retain top talent (Njanjobea, 2016; Pienaar & Bester, 2016). Estimates show that at least 6 000 new academics are required to replace retiring academics over the next five years (DHET, 2015). There is some evidence to suggest that higher education institutions are not attractive hires due to poor compensation, student unrest, political agendas, discrimination, a lack of infrastructure and a lack of government funding (see Bigirimana, Sibanda & Masengu, 2016; Bozalek & Boughey, 2014; Kissoonduth, 2017; Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018; Postma, 2016; Salau, 2017; Zulu, 2016, August 18). Moreover, the continuous changing nature of academic institutions without a clear strategic direction and vaguely defined performance indicators for a "modern academic" career is escalating the turnover intentions of top talents (Graham, 2015; Seyama & Smith, 2015)

Limited research currently exists on the talent management (TM) of academic staff at South African higher education institutions (Erasmus, Naidoo & Jourbert, 2017; Lesenyeho, 2017; Mabaso, 2016; Nagel, 2012; Njanjobea, 2016; Roodt, 2013; Saurombe, 2015; 2017; Theron, Barkhuizen & Du Plessis, 2014). The available research clearly points to TM challenges in higher educational workplaces that pose a significant threat to the career success of talented academic staff. Academics are the main foundation for the competitive advantage and it is therefore important for the heads of schools, deans and human resource managers to provide new and current academics with adequate training and professional development (Baron, Clake, Turner & Pass, 2010). TM can definitely provide staff members with job security as it has a positive and substantial influence on employee attitudinal results and organisational success in the form of employee work engagement, turnover avoidance, and value addition. The risk of poor management practices and situational factors related to working in higher education institutions can in most cases result in academics complaining of poor quality service, high turnover, absenteeism and stress and all these factors contribute to labour disputes (Annakis, Dass & Isa, 2014).

Against this background, this research aimed to explore the TM risks of academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution and to develop an academic TRM tool that can be used to detect the workplace and occupational hazards that constrain the careers of academics and the sustainability of higher education.

1.2 BACKGROUND

1.2.1 UNDERSTANDING RISK MANAGEMENT

The term risk management was coined after World War II when it was associated with market insurances that were used to protect individuals and companies from various losses and damages associated with accidents (Harrington & Niehaus, 2003). Risk management can be defined as a set of methods for the identification, measurement and the management of business risks to guard the business against any losses that may occur during the exercise of its business. It is also about reducing the uncertainty associated with the achievement of objectives (Verbano & Crema, 2015).

Risk management is about analytically dealing with problems that create uncertainty by identifying, evaluating and monitoring potential threats. It is a process that should be undertaken whenever managers make important decisions. These managers have to depend on particular skills, experience and risk-oriented individuals (Parker & Mobey, 2004). According to Kaiser and Robinson (2000), risk management involves three basic phases: a) risk identification and assessment; b) risk response strategies; and c) reducing the severity of the risk through an operational plan. Risk management adds value to an organisation by enhancing participants' experiences, providing good stewardship of assets, forestall problems, including any legal actions. Lastly, it encourages professional practices (Kaiser & Robinson, 2000).

There are many ways for companies to achieve the objectives of risk management. This process is more complex than expected. Meeting the various component parts of a set standard will put organisations in a position to account for their compliance with what needs to be done. The standard represents best practice against which organisations can analyse themselves (Martin, 2009).

1.2.2 THE INTEGRATION OF TALENT RISK MANAGEMENT

Although not much research has been done on TRM, organisations are competing for top talent on an unparalleled scale. The topic of TM and talent-related risk frequently ranks in the top three of C-suite (top management) concerns for many organisations, especially in South Africa. In today's unpredictable, fast-paced, skills-strapped economy, talent risk management has earned a permanent slot on board and executive agendas (McShane, Nair & Rustambekov, 2011). What is even less recognised is the fact that talent and risk, in many ways, are not separate issues at all and they should be treated as a single topic. They are both closely connected in ways that can greatly influence an organisation's capability to create and protect enterprise value.

The problem with TM is that many organisations put effort into attracting employees to their business, but spend little time on retention and development. TM should be implemented at universities because it helps the organisation to achieve strategic objectives such as building a high performance-learning atmosphere and it adds value to the academic brand (Annakis et al., 2014). A TRM study by KPMG (2013) showed that managing and retaining the right people is already seen as a serious challenge by almost one in four senior executives. Talent risk management is also predicted to increase as globalisation, multi-generational workforces and competitive pressures take hold across different sectors and industries.

In risk assessment and planning, it is essential to look at all levels of risks, whether on a universal basis or certain operational risks. It is not possible to identify all risks threatening an organisation. Nevertheless, there should be an ongoing analysis (Dornberger, Oberlehner & Zadrazil, 2014). With risk, identification and analysis all identified risks are valued for their likelihood and impact on an organisation. Once this process has been completed, it is possible for an organisation to develop sufficient risk response strategies. Lastly, all identified risks should be monitored constantly to react as soon as possible if there are changes in likelihood (Moeller, 2011).

For the purpose of this study, four research problems were identified related to TRM for academic staff. A brief discussion of each research problem is presented below.

1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEMS

1.3.1 RESEARCH PROBLEM 1: CONCEPTUAL VAGUENESS IN THE FIELD OF TALENT MANAGEMENT

The first research problem relates to the conceptual vagueness of talent and TM. Despite the proliferation of research on TM worldwide, the conceptualisation of "talent" in the context of the workplace is yet to be clarified (Dries, 2013). A recent study by Lubinda and Barkhuizen (2017) shows that management and HR practitioners view talent as a concept reserved for celebrities only and it is yet to be introduced in the workplace. The lack of a clear definition of talent and high potential individuals has a negative spill over effect on the effective implementation of TM practices according to Lubinda and Burkhuizen's study. The lack of conceptual clarification of talent and a theoretical foundation for this concept (van Zyl, Mathafena & Ras, 2017) further complicates the methodology used for the detection of talent in the workplace and the TM practices implemented to accommodate these individuals.

Currently there are two methodologies for the detection of talent in the workplace: inclusivity and exclusivity. Swailes and Downs (2014) refer to exclusive talent strategies as those focusing on the personal and career development of the minority of employees for as long as they are in the talent pool. The definition of inclusive talent is more complicated. Previous researchers view inclusive TM as an approach where all employees are viewed as talents whoC can contribute to the core business of an organisation (Iles, Preece & Chuai, 2010; Swailes and Downs (2014) contest this notion and advocate that an inclusive approach to talent is merely traditional human resource management. Moreover, these authors advocate that talented employees can only exist in relation to others in the workplace and that the vast majority of employees cannot be considered talented. Erasmus, Naidoo and Joubert (2017) in their study among management in a large open and distance South African higher education institution criticise the use of an inclusivity approach to TM. Poorly applied TM practices causes risks for higher educational competiveness and sustainability over the long term as academics are likely to leave for greener pastures (Lesenyeho, 2017; Theron et al., 2014).

1.3.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM TWO: TALENT CULTURE RISKS

According to Cappelli (2008), TM's entire core mission and objective is to reduce the risk of not having the right talent as much as possible. In addition, there is the constant need to address the scale of risks inherent to any employer-employee relationship. Aspects such as poor performance, fraud, and members of staff's health and safety, just to name a few, are some of the risks that affect academics in higher education institutions. All of these matters have to be well thought out to manage talent and risk effectively (Lyons & Bandura, 2013).

Much has been written about the changing environment of higher education institutions in South Africa. The need for a conducive organisational culture to facilitate TM is well documented. Kontoghiorghes (2015) found that talent attraction and retention depends very much on the extent to which the organisation is perceived to have a change-, quality-, and technology-driven culture, and characterised by support for creativity, open communications, effective knowledge management, and the core values of respect and integrity. Sarmadi, Nouri, Zandi and Lavasani (2017) emphasise the need for an open organisational culture that will allow academic staff to exchange viewpoints, experiences and opinions. Such a culture also allows staff to express their ideas without the fear of being laid off. Deselle et al. (2017) show that academics prefer an emphasis on collegial support and shared responsibility for culture, governance, decision-making and outcomes for a desirable institutional cultural instead of emphasising rewards and competitiveness.

Consequently, great emphases is placed on the ability of leaders to establish a talent culture, as this determines the nature and prevalence of human capital (HC) risks such as the retention of academic staff members (Lesenyeho, 2017; Theron et al. 2014). A study by Oehley (2007) shows that managers can only manage talent effectively if they adopt the appropriate talent mind-set coupled with competencies such as the ability to attract and recruit talent, building and maintaining healthy relationships, providing meaningful and challenging work, remunerating and rewarding fairly and managing work-life balance.

The effective roll-out of TM is hampered by among others things a lack of strategic direction from the newly created modern university. According to Farooq, Othman, Nordin and Ibrahim (2016) universities seems to lag behind the industry when it comes to the implementation of TM strategies and practices. A study by Arnolds, Stofile and Lillah (2013) shows that academic and support staff experienced that a merged higher education institution did not achieve the merger goals and objectives set by the South African government. In this study, the perceived success of a merger was an important indicator of staff's commitment to their organisation and their intention to perform on the job.

The work environment of academic staff consistently emerged as a TM risk in higher education institutions. Bigirimana, Sibanda and Masengu (2016) found that unfavourable working conditions led to academic staff leaving universities in Africa at the earliest opportunity. Furthermore, the desegregation and changes in educational systems and institutions brought great challenges for educators, such as an increase in the heterogeneity of the student population, decolonisation of curricula and new educational legislation (Meier & Hartell, 2010). In particular, a lack of classroom infrastructure and overcrowded classes also create challenges for academics as they attempt to deliver subject content effectively. It also influences student achievement (Bakasa, 2011). Kasula (2015) adds that university management should prioritise the development of a favourable work environment to facilitate effective and efficient institutions.

1.3.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM THREE: OCCUPATIONAL TALENT RISKS

The third research problem relates to the occupational talent risks of academic staff. The available research shows that the attraction of quality academic staff to state universities remains a challenge (Yousaf, 2010). Onah and Anikwe (2016) found that the brain drain, the gender gap, unattractive salary packages and a lack of adequate training are factors hampering academic talent attraction. Changes in higher education require academic staff to consistently reinvent themselves to remain attractive hires. A new trend is the concept of dispositional employability where academics take responsibility for managing their own careers by being proactive, optimistic, motivated, resilient and open to change (Barkhuizen, Schutte &

Lesenyeho, 2018; Roodt, 2013). According to Callaghan (2015), academics need clear milestones to progress in their careers.

When referring to recognition, rewards and compensation, many studies have shown that these factors have negative implications for turnover, attraction and retention (Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen & Schutte, 2018a; Saurombe, Barkhuizen & Schutte, 2017a; Yousaf, 2010). Current trends show that higher education institutions are struggling to attract younger employees to replace a soon retiring workforce (DHET, 2015). Mabaso and Dlamini (2018) are of the opinion that higher education needs a novel reward system to attract and retain employees.

Challenges relating to the performance management of academic staff have also been documented. Graham (2015) found that academic workload and performance management are not aligned on operational level, which undermines the effectiveness of performance evaluation. Seyama and Smith (2015) further highlights that the performance management system is a business-orientated practice and not in line with the nature and objectives of higher education institutions. Türk (2016) advocates for a detailed performance management system that can enable academic staff members to achieve higher results during times of restructuring and change at universities.

Being able to present a TM programme in a higher education setting is not a very easy task. A number of staff members responsible for running TM programmes admit that many academics are hesitant to participate. They view such initiatives as a disturbance of their research activities, potentially discriminatory, troublesome, and a concept that belongs in the business world rather than the field of higher education (Davies, 2011). Many writers have therefore concluded that academics are unwilling to take on more senior management and leadership roles. As a result of this unwillingness, talent and succession management programmes should become an integral part of organisations.

1.3.4 RESEARCH PROBLEM FOUR: AN ASSESSMENT OF TALENT RISKS

Empirically validated TM tools are virtually non-existent. Oehley (2007) developed a TM competency 360° evaluation questionnaire to identify the TM competencies required from leaders. The questionnaire showed an acceptable fit and validity for leadership competencies such as TM mind-set, ability to attract and recruit talent, ability to build and maintain relationships, providing meaning and challenging work, remunerating and rewarding fairly and managing work-life balance.

Farooq et al. (2016) developed a measurement model to assess TM practices in Ugandan universities. This measurement found support and reliability for TM constructs such as talent identification, talent development, talent culture and talent retention. Vnoučková (2016) developed a questionnaire and found support for key TM factors such as alignment with strategy, internal consistency, cultural embeddedness, management involvement and employer branding through differentiation.

Theron, Barkhuizen and Du Plessis (2014) developed a talent retention diagnostic tool to determine the causes of academic turnover intentions. Theron et al. (2014) included management support, compensation and satisfaction with institutional practices as main predictors of academic voluntary turnover. In addition, this measure also assesses the prevalence of turnover intentions as well as other reasons for academic staff turnover. The measure has been validated and adapted in various other South African studies and contexts (Khan, 2018; Kwaeng, 2017; Lesenyeho, 2017). Currently no validated instrument exists to detect the talent culture risks in higher education institutions.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main research question for this study is:

What are the dimensions of a TRM tool for academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution?

In an effort to answer the main research question, the research aims to answer the following four sub-questions:

- How can the field of TM and related concepts best be conceptualised?
- What talent culture risks are associated with academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution?
- What are the occupational talent risks that are associated with academic staff at South African higher education institutions?
- What is the factor structure and reliability of a newly developed TRM tool for academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution?

1.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

The present research study makes a contribution at the theoretical, methodological, and practical levels.

1.5.1 THEORETICAL CONTRIBUTION

Currently a great deal of vagueness exists regarding the conceptualisation of talent and TM. This problem is further exacerbated by the fact that the field of TM lacks a sound theoretical foundation (Theron, Barkhuizen & Du Plessis, 2014). This research makes an important empirical contribution towards defining the concepts relating to the field of TM with specific reference to TRM. Moreover, this study aids in determining the theoretical building blocks of both talent culture risk management and occupational TM. The researcher is of the opinion that a clarification of TRM and its theoretical underpinnings can assist higher education management to develop and implement TM policies and strategies more effectively in higher education institutions.

1.5.2 METHODOLOGICAL CONTRIBUTION

Research to date shows a considerable lack of empirically validated assessments to measure TM in the workplace. The research came across two existing measures that have been subjected to rigorous empirical testing, namely the 360° TM tool of Oehly (2007) and the talent retention diagnostic tool of Theron et al. (2014). Based on the increased emphasis on TM and the challenges relating to its effective implementation in the workplace and the adverse impact of poor TM practices on academic staff, the researcher deemed it necessary to develop a TRM tool that assess talent risks on both organisational level and individual level. This research provides an empirically validated TRM tool that higher education management can use to detect and mitigate risks affecting talented academic staff.

1.5.3 PRACTICAL CONTRIBUTION

The research envisages various practical contributions. First, the research provides much needed knowledge and clarification on TRM for both management and academic staff to gain a deeper understanding of the workplace and occupational talent risks that threaten a successful academic career and sustainable higher education institutions. Second, new knowledge creation on talent risks management can also assist higher education management and human resource practitioners with a sound platform to develop and implement strategic TM plans that will guide a successful academic career from start to finish.

Third, this research presents a TRM tool that higher education institutions can use to detect organisational and individual talent risks. The TRM tool can be used as a period measure to assist management to detect talent risks more proactivity and take corrective measures to mitigate or eradicate the adverse consequences of talent risks. The detection of talent risks will also assist higher education management to develop healthy work environments that allow for innovation, creativity and ultimately enhances the service delivery and performance of higher education institutions through its talented staff members.

1.6 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The research objectives are formulated as one general objective that results in a number of specific objectives.

1.6.1 GENERAL OBJECTIVE

To determine the dimensions of a TRM tool for academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution.

1.6.1.1 SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES

The specific objectives are:

- To conceptualise the field of TM and related concepts;
- To determine the talent culture risks associated with academic staff at a selected South African higher education institutions;
- To determine the occupational talent risks associated with academic staff at South African higher education institutions;
- To determine the factor structure and reliability of a newly developed TRM tool for academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution.

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

1.7.1 RESEARCH APPROACH

This research followed a qualitative research approach to achieve the set research objectives. A qualitative research design empowers participants by making their voices heard as active participants in the research (Creswell, 2014). This research falls within the phenomenological research paradigm. Phenomenological research focuses on the meanings of human experiences in situations as they spontaneously occur in the course of daily life. These experiences could be emotions, relationships, or an entity such as a programme, an organisation, or a culture (see Lin, 2013). A case study research strategy was followed using a selected South African higher education institution as a case at one point in time. Case study methodology allows a researcher to investigate a phenomenon such as talent culture risk factors in a real-life context (Yin, 2012).

The quantitative research design assisted the researcher in obtaining multiple responses from a larger sample to validate a TRM measure. The research was cross-sectional in nature as data were collected at one point in time and ideally suited for relationship testing between variables (Field, 2018).

The research partially followed the (DeVellis, 2016) scale development process. This method proved to be useful in developing new measurements within the South African context. A description of the scale development processes is presented below.

Table 1-1: DeVellis Scale Development Process

Description of scale development
Step 1: Application in present study **Step 1a: Application of a theoretical basis to develop the items** **Identification of the parameters of HRM theory to be included in the measurement scale to informed the conceptual framework for the study.**
Step 2: Item generation **Item generation was based on theoretical relationships between constructs gleaned from an extensive literature review and document analyses. Statements were formulated rather than questions.**
Step 3: Determining the scale and measurement format **Developing the format of items, using statements in a Likert-type response format (DeVellis, 1991). Additionally, checklist-style questions and open-ended questions were included.**
Step 4: Conducting an item analysis to eliminate inadequate items **An expert panel of 15 subject matter experts reviewed the scale and were provided with construct definitions and asked to rate items in terms of adequacy, relevance, conciseness, and potentially confusing wording.**
Step 5: Selecting validation items that can be administered to developmental sample **This research did not include social desirability scales. The scale does use repetition of items that measure the same construct in different sub-scales to determine if similar or different responses were provided.**
Step 6: Designing and conducting a developmental study **Administering of HR professional competency diagnostic items and validation items to a sample of 150 to 300 HR practitioners and managers (N=189) at different levels within corporate institutions in South Africa.**
Step 7: Evaluating the items **As advised by DeVellis (1991, p. 82-85), item-scale correlations, item variance, item means, and coefficient alphas were included when appropriate.**
Step 7a: Determining construct validity of the measure **This included conducting exploratory factor analysis. At a later stage, confirmatory factor analysis would be conducted, but that would require a larger sample.**
Step 7b: Determining the convergent validity of the measure **Convergent validity could not be determined in the current study.**
Step 7c: Determining the divergent validity of the measure **This entails determining whether method effects are influencing the scale findings, which may also require a criterion-related study and a larger sample than the present sample.**
Step 7d: Assessing the reliability of the scale

Description of scale development
This entailed determining internal consistency reliabilities. Test-retest reliabilities could not be considered as the respondents remained anonymous. Some items would be expected to change over time, such as intention to quit or satisfaction. The alternative is to administer the scale to another sample, which would enable multiple measures of reliability to be compared.
Step 8: Optimising scale length **Due to the nature of the scale (a diagnostic tool that can be used regularly) the scale had to be short enough to avoid respondent fatigue. Therefore, considerable attention was given to optimising scale length.**

Source: DeVellis (2016)

1.7.2 RESEARCH METHOD

The literature review represents an interactive development between the researcher and previous research studies in which the researcher creates and refines applicable concepts to apply them to the study (Troyka & Hesse, 2018). The literature review in this study covers published information in the field of TM and risk management. The theoretical conceptualisation of these two concepts was used to develop a tool that can be implemented by academics across South African universities. Relevant journals, books and case studies were consulted. Although not much has been done on the concept of talent risk management, the available sources were consulted.

The sample for the qualitative study consisted of 10 managers from different levels of a selected South African higher education institution. The demographic characteristics of the participants are reported in Table 1-2 below. In this sample 6 participants were males, while 4 were females. Out the 10 participants, 3 were from top management, 5 from middle management and 2, were from lower management level. An equal number of white and black managers participated in this study. The participants were primarily aged 50 years and older and had been employed for more than 20 years at the current institution.

Table 1-2: Demographic characteristics of the participants

	Gender	Race	Qualification	Job Level	Age Group	Years working at the current institution
P1	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	30 years
P2	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	21 years
P3	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	6-10 years
P4	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P5	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	16-20 years
P6	Female	African	Doctoral degree	Lower Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P7	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	6-10 years
P8	Male	White	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P9	Male	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	40-49 Years	6-10 years
P10	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Lower Management	50 years and above	11-15 years

The target population for the quantitative study was academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution. A total of 320 questionnaires were distributed, of which 220 were returned and used for analyses. This represented a 68, 8% response rate. Most of the respondents in the sample were male (56, 8%), aged between 30 and 49 years (51, 1%) and Black. Most of the participants were in possession of a master's degree (42, 9%), employed at a lecturer level (40, 9%), had between 1 and 10 years of work experience at a higher education and had been employed between 0 to four years in their current position (34, 5%).

1.8 DATA COLLECTION

The data in this study were collected through semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews are in-depth interviews where respondents have to respond to open-ended questions that are they conducted once only (Jamshed, 2014). According to Digicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006), semi-structured interviews are generally organised around a set of predetermined open-ended questions that allow for other questions that emerge from the conversation between the researchers and the respondent.

Data saturation was reached in this part of the study. There is enough information to replicate the study and the ability to obtain additional new information has been and furthermore coding is no longer feasible when reading through the interview responses. Rich and thick data descriptions were obtained through the qualitative data collection method. From the process of data collection, trustworthiness was ensured at all times through consent forms being read and agreed upon. As a result, this process was coupled with an appropriate research study design that has the best opportunity to answer the research question.

A talent management risk questionnaire was developed based on the themes that were identified during the initial interviews with management from the higher education institution. The questionnaire consists of two parts: a talent culture risk measure and an occupational talent risk measure. The talent culture risk measure consists of 30 items and measures five talent risk factors: institutional strategy, management support, physical infrastructure, diversity practices and work environment.

The occupational talent risk measure consists of 32 items and measures five factors: talent attraction, compensation, career development, performance management and talent retention. The responses for both questionnaire are collected on a six-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (1) to Strongly Agree (6). The questionnaire was distributed to subject matter experts prior to its distribution to ensure face and content validity. The questionnaire was verified with subject matter experts to test for the accuracy of items and ensure the face validity before distribution.

1.8.1 RECORDING OF DATA

To support this method of data collection, i.e. semi-structured, in-depth interviews, audio-recordings and transcriptions were used and deemed to be appropriate. In addition, manual notes (during the interview) were made based on all conversations and observations by the researcher. These notes were typed and stored directly after each interview and discussion session. The data for the surveys were captured on an Excel spreadsheet and converted into SPSS. The data will be kept for a period of ten years.

1.8.2 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

Permission to execute the research was obtained from the relevant higher education authorities. The purpose of the research was explained to all the participants. The participation was voluntary and all participants signed an informed consent form. The research was subjected to ethical approval prior to its execution. Obtaining informed consent implies all possible or adequate information on the goal of the research; the expected duration of the participant's involvement and the procedures, that would be followed during the investigation. The newly developed TRM tool was distributed to the participants in both hard and electronic copy.

1.9 DATA ANALYSES

Theme (content) analyses were applied to analyse and interpret the data. According to Thyme, Wiberg, Lundberg and Graneham (2013), qualitative data analyses start with a process of organising the data that have been collected. Thereafter, the data were systematically analysed to identify the themes and sub-themes. Cresswell (2014) maintains that the analyses process should be a reflexive, cautious process as it affects the quality, validity and reliability of the whole research project. In line with Houghton, Casey, Shaw and Murphy (2013), the quality and rigour of this research were assured by prolonged engagement and persistent observation, peer debriefing, member checking, an audit trial, reflexivity and thick descriptions. The findings of this research are reported in table format. The themes and sub-themes extracted from the interviews are substantiated by direct quotes.

Data analyses were carried out with the aid of SPSS software (SPSS, 2017). Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis were used. Exploratory factor analysis was applied to determine the factor structure of the questionnaire. Cronbach Alphas were used to determine the reliability of the measuring instrument and its items. A cut-off point of 0.7 was used as a guideline for acceptable reliabilities (Field, 2018).

1.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research ethics involves requirements on daily work, the protection of the dignity of subjects and the publication of the information in the research. It is considered unethical in every discipline for a researcher to collect information without the knowledge of the participants and their expressed willingness and consent (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2009). Respondents are therefore made aware of the type of information needed, why the information is needed, what purpose it will serve and how they should participate in the study.

In conducting interviews, ethical issues are one of the main concerns. Confidentiality must be guaranteed. Participants should also be assured that the collection of information would not harm or damage their integrity in any way (Gray, 2014). The researcher has the responsibility to respect the rights, needs, values, and desires of the participants when collecting data (Creswell, 2014).

Obtaining informed consent from participants enables the participant to make informed and voluntary decisions. This decision is largely based on the explanation of all relevant information given during the interview. The researcher has to ensure anonymity and confidentiality and manage information in a confidential manner. Privacy creates a safe setting for the participants where they are able to share their experiences and the meanings ascribed to them (Swanepoel & de Beer, 2006).

According to Patton (2012), the following ethical considerations should be adhered to in a qualitative study:

- **Explain purpose:** The researcher must explain the purpose of the inquiry to the participant just before the interview takes place.
- **Promises and reciprocity:** The researcher should state what the participant would gain from the data.
- **Risk assessment:** The researcher must consider in what ways the interview will put the participant at risk in terms of stress, legal liabilities, ostracism or political repercussion.
- **Confidentiality:** The researcher should reflects on the degree to which promises of confidentiality can be met. Confidentiality means that the researcher will not reveal the information given during the interview. Anonymity should be maintained.
- **Informed consent:** The researcher will have to determine what kind of consent is necessary, if any.
- **Data access and ownership:** The researcher should evaluate who has the right to access data and for what purpose.
- **Mental health:** The researcher might have to consider how interviewers and interviewees' mental health may be affected by conducting the interview.
- **Advice:** During the research process, it is advisable for the researcher to appoint an adviser on ethical issues.
- **Data collection boundaries:** It is up to the researcher to determine how hard to push for data, what lengths will be used in trying to gain access to data needed.

1.11 CHAPTER DIVISION

The chapters of this thesis are presented as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction to the study

Chapter 2: Article 1: Attraction of early career academics to South African HEIs

Chapter 3: Article 2: Development of early career academics in South African HEIs

Chapter 4: Article 3: Retention of early career academics in South African HEIs

Chapter 5: Article 4: Antecedents and consequences of TM for early career academics

Chapter 6: Conclusion, limitations, and recommendations

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CHAPTER 2:LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The main objective of this chapter is to draw upon the literature on the integration of the main concepts, which make up this study namely: talent management and risk management. This chapter will also seek to establish other concepts that have come close to talent risk management. This study attempts to look at TM and the risks which are involved within universities. Lastly, it attempts to determine how the outcomes can be adopted and used as a single term in South African universities.

It should be noted firstly that there is a much larger recognition of the variety of terms which have been used, the increasing number of attempts to identify what goes wrong or could go wrong in an organisation, and the interaction of risks currently facing organisations. In this chapter, the aim is to conceptualise the term TRM. Therefore in order to do that, it is important to first look at existing concepts that come close to TRM. The first major concept used to describe risks in organisations was Financial Risk Management. This concept was most used during the 1980s.

The knowledge and ability that each employee holds since this period of Financial Risk Management has become increasingly valuable for organisations, particularly knowledge-based organisations who rely heavily on their employees' talent to gain a competitive advantage in the market (Dionne, 2013). It has, however, not been researched as much as it should have been because many organisations do not monitor knowledge-loss, use knowledge management systems, or calculate other human-related risks. This issue raised the question whether organisational risks should be addressed by means of organisational risk management systems so as to constantly keep those risks under investigation (Elahi, 2013).

The study of risk management first started just after the events of World War II. For many years, the concept of risk management was associated with the use of market insurance to protect individuals and organisations from various losses linked to accidents. Other forms of risk management surfaced during the 1950s. During this period, market insurance came to be perceived as a costly and incomplete form of protection against pure risk (Klein, 2013).

In 1990, the term enterprise risk management (ERM) was then introduced to describe the risks that organisations may face. Organisations have long experienced various parts of what at that time came to be called ERM and later human capital risk management (HCRM). All these new concepts and terms focused on the ability of an organisation to identify and prioritise risks, with either foresight or following a catastrophe. This had long been a standard management activity for most organisations (Dvorak, 2010).

When looking at enterprise risk, the main objective is treating risks by means of transfer. This could be through insurance or other financial products. Very little focus is put on the employees, it is rather viewed as organisational risks. This approach was common practice, especially when trying to come up with a contingency planning process and crisis management. Today there are many opinions on what risk management for an organisation actually involves, how this risk management should be implemented and what it can achieve (Kranhold, Kathryn, & White, 2015).

Since then, there has been an evolution of the term ERM. A new concept called HC risk is currently being used (Hagigi & Sivakumar, 2009). According to Beyer (2015), HC risk could be defined as a human resource asset which is used to achieve a business's strategic and operational goals. HCRM implies that an organisation considers the following realities:

- HC is a tangible asset
- HC yields tangible and intangible results
- HC can generate a positive or negative rate of return
- HCRM can create a sustainable competitive advantage

In this century of competing for a talented workforce, the practice of investing in HC has shown an increase in a lifetime income from one organisation to another (Cole & McCullough, 2012). However, such investments may involve substantial risks. Like any other type of investment, investment in HC involves risk, at least to some extent. As a result, because of the increased interest in talent, some authors refer to HC as talent management (Watson, 2012). The attraction, development and retention of HC are challenging in many organisations, but especially in the insurance industries. HC risk has also intensified recently due to a combination of demographic, social, commercial and market-specific factors. In addition, there is the risk of HC obsolescence (Deloitte, 2010).

Figure 2–1 gives an idea of the conceptualisation of talent risk management by offering an illustration of the process that led up to the current understanding.

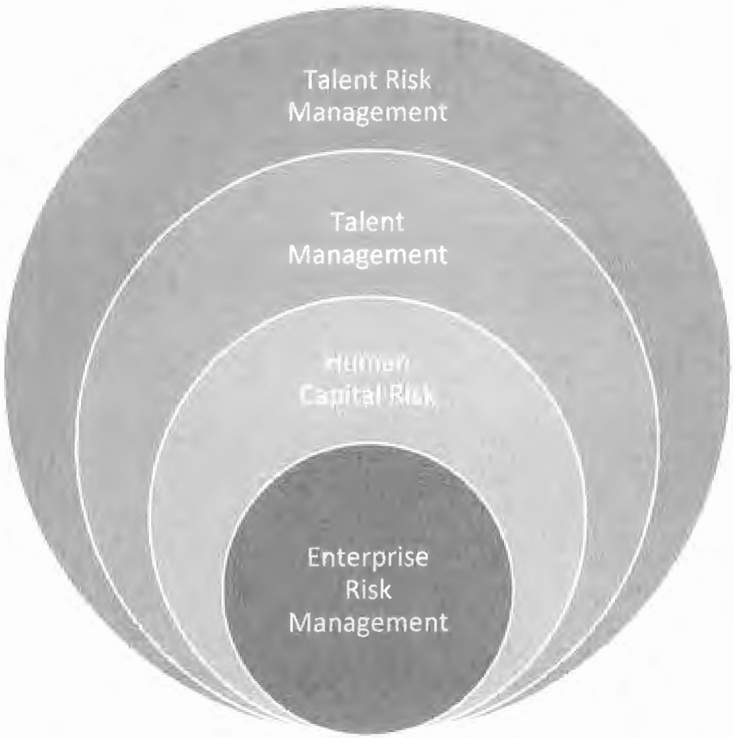

Figure 2-1: Process of conceptualising talent risk management

2.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.2.1 ENTERPRISE RISK MANAGEMENT DEFINED

ERM can be defined as "… a process effected by an entity's board of directors, management and other personnel, applied in strategy setting and across the enterprise, designed to identify potential events that may affect the entity, and manage risk to be within its risk appetite, to provide reasonable assurance regarding the achievement of entity objectives" (Mikes, 2008). ERM is the process, through which an establishment in any type of industry measures, controls, exploits, invests, and observers any risks from all sources for the purpose of increasing the company's short- and long-term value to its investors (Weiss & Qiu, 2014).

ERM is sometimes defined as a way of aggregating, managing and reporting on all types of the risks facing an organisation. It is a way of consolidating the information within the individual risk silos. While there are many different definitions of ERM, many organisations have settled on the definition outlined in the Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission's (COSO) *Enterprise Risk Management Integrated Framework*, published in 2004 (Watson, 2012).

According to COSO (2004), ERM is defined as a procedure that is intended to recognise the potential events that may affect the organisation, to manage risk that are within the organisation's risk appetite, and lastly, to provide reasonable assurance with regard to the achievement of the organisation's objectives.

2.2.2 BACKGROUND OF ENTERPRISE RISK MANAGEMENT

The term risk management has been in existence since 1960. The main principle of risk management is to recognise loss exposures, measure loss exposures, evaluate the different methods for handling risks, select a method and lastly to monitor the results (Althaus, 2015). Risk management has been in existence since the formation of higher learning institutions. However, historically there has been little consistency across sectors regarding the implementation of fundamental risk, emerging risk, or other risk management by way of organisational policies and procedures (Walker, William & Thomas, 2016).

During the 1970s, new risk elements emerged. These risks included foreign exchange risk, which became a significant factor from Bretton Woods's agreement in 1972 onwards, and commodity price risks identified as a result of the oil price fluctuations of the 1970s. This was then followed by the equity risk, which resulted from the development of option markets in 1973. Lastly, interest rate risk, which stemmed from the U.S. Federal Reserve Board policy shift in 1979. In the 1980s, the term financial risk management was introduced as a result of the shift. This concept deals with financial risks such as foreign exchange risk, interest rate risk, equity risk and commodity price risk (Arcy, 2007).

This financial risk management became widely used in organisations. However as time passed by, it presented some irregularities. In 1990, it became clear that there was a failure to manage derivatives appropriately. The theory had certain financial model failures, improper accounting for derivatives, and lastly operational risk failures. As a result of the irregularities, research was then conducted on what term can replace the financial risk management and at this point, the concept ERM emerged (Althaus, 2015).

ERM is an evolving field in the study of organisations. Since 1990, ERM has been implemented in various degrees, especially at financial services firms such as banks and insurers, as well as at organisations that focus on the manufacturing of goods and services (Hiemstra, 2008). This concept has rarely been applied at HEIs. While having an ERM process for an organisation is not a guarantee for success, a solid risk culture and a well-communicated process can provide a competitive advantage that benefits companies as they enable the institution to make better strategic decisions (Rudolph, 2009).

ERM has been considered an established best practice for recognising organisational risk especially in the corporate sector, according to Schwartz (2012), since 2006, the primary focus of universities has been on creating an ERM platform which should be directed towards building a concrete foundation through the formation of oversight structures. Every university needs to have a risk assessment toolkit and a common language for risk categorisation and discussion (Johnson, 2012).

ERM is not just managing the downside of risk. It runs more along the lines of risk-return trade-offs that are used to incorporate portfolio theory, combining risk reduction (insuring, traditional risk management) with investing for expected gain. Lastly, it is about the need for a consistent approach, for addressing both aspects of financial decision-making (Reuvid, 2008). ERM was therefore born as a result of the financial services industry and was an extension and expansion of the classical financing approach to risk. However, herein lies a probable source of weakness for ERM as it offers a limited perspective (Ciborra, 2010).

In recent years, various external factors have fuelled an amplified corporate attention in organisational risk management. Industries, government institutions, regulatory bodies and stakeholders have started to examine enterprises' risk-management policies and procedures. With the increasing number of industries globally, boards of directors and managers are obliged to analyse and report on the competence of risk management processes in the organisations that they administer (Spedding & Rose, 2008).

It is also very important to note that the ERM foundation has been strengthened for many years now. Especially with an organisations' consensus on the identification of top risks. This means that a functional risk register should be completed with risk oversight responsibility and new tools and metrics that can be used to support effective planning and risk mitigation. (Abraham, 2013).

It should be noted that the key risks tend to be unique to each industry and, as a result, the type of risk management required at these organisations are different and they have tended to focus less on issues relating to staffing, operations, and organisational strategy. This situation may need to change in the current environment. This is due to the fact that existing ERM programmes in different organisations are mature and fully implemented programmes that should demonstrate organisational success (Nagumo & Barnaby, 2016).

As mentioned earlier, very little application of ERM has focused on HEI. However, ERM is quickly becoming predominant in institutions of higher education. It is mostly used to help management with the quest of decentralising the institutions to form a common language with their staff members. This process will contribute towards identifying, discussing, and mitigating risks that are capable of affecting the university (Courbage, Rey-Fournier, & Treich, 2013).

This process then means that it will enable management to identify risk managers in order to deal with risks while providing reasonable assurance to the academics to achieving organisational objectives. The University of Washington has been actively involved in developing a rather comprehensive ERM programme since 2006 (Top 10 Strategic Issues for Boards 2013-2014, 2013). They have made frequent improvements in the identification of top risks and there have been recent developments in both theoretical and analytical tools. The ERM programme that they have created has laid the necessary groundwork to begin synchronising strategic alignments and integrations across the entire university (Dennen & Dretler, 2012).

The application of ERM has been based on a collection of theories. There is therefore no specific consistency or agreement regarding the underlying theoretical foundation regarding ERM (Aebi, Sabato, & Schmid, 2012). When looking at ERM, some organisations focus on the relationship between corporate governance, while others focus on traditional risk management activities and motives of corporate governance (Pegach & Warr, 2011).

To help assist with the implementation of the ERM process, COSO developed the ERM integrated framework (2004), also known as the COSO Cube. The model comprises of three-dimensional matrix in the form of a cube. This cube reflects the relationships between four objectives, seven components and four different organisational levels.

According to COSO, (2004) ERM became popular towards the end of the 20th century. It has brought about a great improvement for those organisations who have implemented the strategies within the organisation. It is a concept that was mostly seen as a widened scope for managing risks, embracing a wider range of operational worries, strategic and also stakeholder concerns. It was initially established in the private sectors, now it has been adopted by public organisations as well. Unfortunately, ERM has serious irregularities and flaws (Bickmore, 2014).

According to Grose (2016), the following are the five flaws which are inherent to ERM:

- **ERM lacks the framework it brags about:** ERM has no distinct procedure which guarantees complete management of risks. Instead, it is constituted of "bits and pieces." It regularly focuses less on historic and obvious organisational risks. As a result, it tends to ignore the everyday and routine of risk management. The term "enterprise" also turns out to be indefinable rather than straightforward. Lastly, ERM in one institution may not even resemble ERM in another.
- **ERM is reactive instead of proactive:** ERM does not have a recognised and validated ERM procedure for predicting and also for identifying any risks prior to experiencing their related losses. This insufficiency forces ERM to be reactive instead of proactive. This then means anticipating a loss before employing counter measures. Reactionary management of risks in an organisation is constantly rather inefficient and impulsive, as well as very costly. The other sad point is that by ERM being reactive, it consequently means that each damage is a lot more costly than it would have been if it had been predicted and controlled.
- **ERM discards the wisdom of insiders:** Traditionally, risk management was seen as a profitable measure for a business. This was mainly because it was performed by brokers on behalf of the insured individual. Nonetheless, risks in this case were not really managed. But instead, they were financed. It follows that the earliest employees and participants in ERM came from the fiscal end of the risk management spectrum, rather than the control end. So as a result, their effect and earmarks cannot in anyway be denied.
- **ERM does not calculate mitigation costs:** As a general rule, ERM is supposed to measure risks in only two dimensions, namely severity and likelihood. It is therefore very clear that this short-sighted attitude almost assurances that management will not be a part of addressing the recognised risks. The risk may be allocated to a list or a group of related

risks or be categorised within a specific zone of interest. Ignoring mitigation cost guarantees an overlooked risk.

- **ERM fails to rank risks:** Managers merely cannot deal with risks until that particular risk joins the real world of economics.

These flaws now bring us to the concept known as Human Capital Risk Management. In Human Capital Risk, the focus now shifts from risks related to financial sectors, insurance and banks.

2.2.3 HUMAN CAPITAL RISK MANAGEMENT DEFINED

The term HC can is traced back to the early period of 1960s. This is a period when Schultz (1961) suggested that HC entails the "knowledge, skills and also the abilities of the people who are employed within a company." Shultz's definition of the term HC is however limited in that it does not consider the concept of "value" and the significance of "investment" in HC. In 1981, Schultz however revamped this definition. He defined HC as: "...all human abilities to be either innate or acquired. Attributes ... which are valuable and can be augmented by appropriate investment will be human capital" (Schultz, 1961).

Today, descriptions of HC risks included that of Thomas, Smith and Diez, (2013), who define this concept as the "all those individuals, their work performance and their potential within the organisation." The presence of the term "potential" is very significant when looking at HC, this is due to the fact that it indicates that the workers can be able to advance their skills and abilities over time.

Emerging rigidities within the HC risk literature have been identified. The definitions of HC risk have been largely fixated on the specific level of HC, that is, the understanding, the skills and lastly, the capabilities of individuals (Aras, Aybars, & Kutlu, 2010). These definitions also make mention to the different backgrounds of HC, such as employee inspiration, growth and lastly employee well-being.

The results of HC are also to a large extent used to refer to the job performance and throughput of employees, rather than the firm-level outcomes of having the finest practice or competitive advantage (Bapna, Langer, Mehra, Gopal, & Gupta, 2013). This is affiliated to the observation that there is an increasing consensus in both academia and the industry that HC has a key role to play in the strategic alignment of the organisation and its outcomes (Edmans, 2012).

HC risk is mostly broadly defined as the workforce's ability to achieve strategic business objectives. Despite the fact that this broad definition of HC risk is easily understood, the ability for a manager to appropriately manage and mitigate risk within any organisation's desired risk profile is a matter that requires a far more comprehensive analysis. In order for this process to be effective, one must identify key variables in risk determination and then link and measure these variables against business drivers to enable and facilitate management action (Hartog, 2011).

2.2.4 BACKGROUND TO HUMAN CAPITAL RISK MANAGEMENT

The 21st century has unmistakably witnessed the biggest evolution from the era of production economy to the knowledge economy. There has no doubt been a paradigm shift in the way in which "assets" are regarded within different organisations. Traditionally, there has been a long-held belief that an organisation's physical assets is the main contributor that has paved the way for economic success. It is indeed also worth noticing that investing in HC increases the lifetime income of the company. It should however be remembered that these investments may to some extent involve substantial risks (Brown, Kapteyn, Luttmer, & Mitchell, 2011). For years no, the HC attraction and retention have created some challenges mainly in the insurance industry. This is due to the fact that there has been a relating effect of demographic, social, economic and market-specific factors which in addition, have meant that HC has become an obsolescence risk (Ashmead, 2012).

Regarding HC, it can be maintained that the concept embodies the foundational level of investment capital (IC). HC not only plays an important part in the advancement and creation of new philosophies and knowledge; it also simplifies social capital and the sharing of new knowledge and philosophies over internal relationships (Han et al., 2014). HC also stabilises a firm's structural and innovation capital, this then means that it creates a new and a rather unique knowledge (Mahoney & Kor 2015).

It is important to not only align HC strategies with core business strategies, but also to frequently review them to ensure that they achieve a long-term sustainability and have the ability to address areas that need further development and improvement (Crook, Todd, Combs, Woehr, & Ketchen Jr, 2011). HC theories propose that individuals and the society have the ability to produce economic benefits by investing in their talented people. Therefore, as a result, high levels of HC will increase people's productivity (Kallamu & Saat, 2014).

The current issues with HC is the fact that unlike organisational capital owned by the business (that is, patents, databases, and so on); HC can in reality simply walk out the door and never return (Coff & Raffie 2015). One can therefore start to notice the reason why adequate administration and measurement of HC in the organisation is of paramount importance and why the risks which are related to HC are with no doubt becoming a key strategic issue within organisations today (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007, Thomas et al 2013, Ployhart, Nyberg, Reilly and Maltarich, 2014). Moreover, there is a huge and increasing indication, which has demonstrated that there is a rather positive connection which exists between the development of HC and risk management, which is both at an individual and also organisational level (Crocker & Eckardt 2014).

It is very important to remember that it is the organisation's relationship to its employees that gives the it *de facto* control rights over its employees' HC (Ployhart, 2015). This type of relationship represents the productive asset that are commonly referred to as the "HC of the firm." The liability side of this relationship is the inherent promise of the organisation to make sure that they retain valuable employees in bad times (Bolton, Chen, & Wang, 2011).

Therefore, they must assume a certain portion of the risk from fluctuations in the value of its employees' HC.

Thus, the organisation is exposed to HC risk, although it does not legally own any HC (Chen, Kacperczyk, & Ortiz-Molina, 2010). The HC risk the organisation bears depends on how costly it is to replace that particular employee. The cost of replacing an employee can be due to the loss of firm-specific HC, or due to explicit firing or hiring costs. A need to manage HC risk therefore arises (Berk, Stanton & Zechner, 2010).

2.3 ENTERPRISE RISK MANAGEMENT AND HUMAN CAPITAL IN HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

Universities most often manage risks with a siloed, transactional method. While this approach may ease the matter at hand, it does very little to recognise strategic and reputational risks that can influence an institution's ability to meet its missions and goals. ERM offered institutions a method for integrating risk into the strategic decisions of senior management and board members. It also gave these individuals better positioning regarding the university to accomplish its objectives (Lundquist, 2015).

Shockingly for numerous universities, the reality of an extending risk profile comes at the same moment that institutions are incapable to integrate the aftermath of a critical risk disappointment. These educational institutions have been attempting to adapt with a debilitating balance sheet caused by an abating net educational cost development, declining government allotments and drooping venture returns (Gordon, Loeb, & Tseng, 2009).

Until recently, numerous studies have indicated that higher education is associated with a much higher income. These institutions also have very little information about the types of risks which are related to investments in HC. Education is considered to be a risky investment (Mazza, van Ophem, & Hartog, 2011) because the variance in earnings generally coincides with the level of education. However, on the other hand, the unemployment rate in South Africa is inversely connected with the level of education, which indicates that education is also an insurance against uncertain job prospects. The risks involved in HC investments can therefore be measured at numerous frequencies (Brown, Fang, & Gomes, 2012).

It has become prevalent that many institutions are currently hyper-focused on implementing effective training programmes regarding HC and risk management and processes, especially during the process of merges. However, management must keep in mind that training should not be the only activity-taking place (Buehler, Freeman & Hulme, 2008). Effective HC management demands headfirst thinking and thorough strategic planning, especially about how external stakeholders can engage their human resources to make a difference in driving the institution forward (Berk, Stanton, & Zechner, 2010).

University boards are under an immense pressure and this causes the universities to set out on institutional risk management and administration with a prolonged recurrences. Impressions of being under-engaged and uneducated around key institutional risks have only compounded the need that boards feel for action (Bredart, 2014). As such, university risk management has become to be the "point of the spear" for coordinated dialogs with university administrators and key "business model" risks (Gurthridge, Komm, & Lawson, 2008). Also, there's a broadening chance profile that stems from expanded operational complexity and entrepreneurial exercises attempted in interest of fabulousness, stature, and income. This has constrained universities to the hazard drawing board (Shank & Smith, 2009).

As a result, universities are incapable to integrate the budgetary blow of a risk disappointment. Additionally, goodwill saves among universities funding communities are wearing thin as questions proceed to emerge regarding the importance of higher education and whether universities are compelling specialists of open assets. These questions have diminished the capacity of higher institutions to assimilate the reputational blow of a risk failure tool (Tian, Haleblian, & Rajagopalan, 2011).

The downfall of universities' inflated risk registers is caused by their vague, over-reaching, and undistinguishable strategic plans. Private sector organisations have well-defined, concise strategic plans. These plans are utilised to establish a clear parameter and boundaries around risk identification discussions. They make sure that they guarantee that the finite list of strategic objectives will result in a fixed list of risks (Wulf & Singh, 2011).

The need of brief strategic targets subsequently forces universities to require a bottom-up approach where risk committee individuals are inquired, about "What keeps you up at night?" This is a broad question that is modelled to a broad risk committee and for some reason traps universities in the vicious cycle of risk identification and assessment, leaving little room for progress on risk treatment (Smith, 2011).

For most of the 20th century, risk management regulation at universities has focused mainly on financial risks, with little attention devoted to operational, compliance and strategic risks. ERM is a concept that brings the various areas of risk under one umbrella. This then creates a comprehensive framework that enables university managers to assess potential risks across the organisation (Fiserv White Paper, 2016).

The value of having ERM for the university is the fact that managers are able to have a comprehensive approach to risk management. This is important for two reasons. First, risk is cumulative. A university that exhibits one or two weaknesses in its operational metrics, even critically important metrics, is likely to survive if the problems are diagnosed and addressed early. Secondly, ERM is significant because it helps management comprehend the true potential threat to the organisation (Reuvid, 2015).

For many universities, investment in ERM comes as a direct result of experiencing one or more avoidable significant business failures. Numerous factors have also contributed to the development of ERM (Hull, 2014). In recent advances, universities have to invest in a computing power system that can provide the tools which are necessary to perform refined risk analysis for hazards, financial risks, operational risks and strategic risks (Ackerman, 2013).

It is also important that these institutions have available databases of financial, operational and strategic risks and other evidence that permits users to inspect historical information to regulate trends, correlations and other associations among variables that are essential to ERM (Davenport & Bradley, 2008).

2.4 RISKS RELATING TO APPLICATION OF TALENT MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

Managing risk is a growing concern for organisational managers who face legislative changes, financial constraints, increasing litigation and a more demanding external scrutiny (Popescu & Dascalu, 2011). Risk is almost anything that impedes or limits the ability of an establishment to attain its mission and organisational goals. Risk management is a process of being able to think systematically about all possible risks (Paladino, 2008). These risks have to be identified before they happen so that procedures can be set up that will avoid the risk, or minimise its impact, or cope with its impact. It fundamentally involves setting up a process where you can identify the risk and set up an appropriate strategy to control or deal with it (Association of Insurance and Risk Managers, 2010).

Risk management is an advancing administration discipline has gone from quality to quality within the last few decades. Different higher institutions have begun to offer short scholarly courses in overseeing risks. Companies have too set out on utilising risk supervisors to guarantee that risk management gets the consideration that it deserves (Nikolic & Ruzic-Dimitrijevic, 2012).

According to The Institute of Risk Management (2012), risk management could be an overwhelming portion of any organisation's key administration. It is the practice of thoroughly tending to the risks involved in an organisation's exercises with the most objective of accomplishing a maintained advantage inside each activity and over the portfolio of all other organisational activities. It ought to be recalled that the main focus of good risk management is the capacity to recognise and treat these dangers. The objective is to add maximum justifiable value to all the activities of the organisation (Nikolic & Ruzic-Dimitrijevic, 2009).

Nowadays risk management as a concept has been hoisted to board level with numerous companies utilising chief risk officers (CROs) to oversee and manage risks at the most noteworthy level within the organisation. It is in this way not shocking that cultured risk administration strategy has been created (The Institute of Risk Management, 2012). Risk management has through the years managed to create the foremost fundamental approach to directing organisations towards overseeing risks in a compelling and oversimplified way. In this way, risk management can be seen as a connected science (Meyer & Abbott, 2014).

For the purpose of this literature review, five crucial risks have been identified in the effort of conceptualising talent risk management, and they are the following:

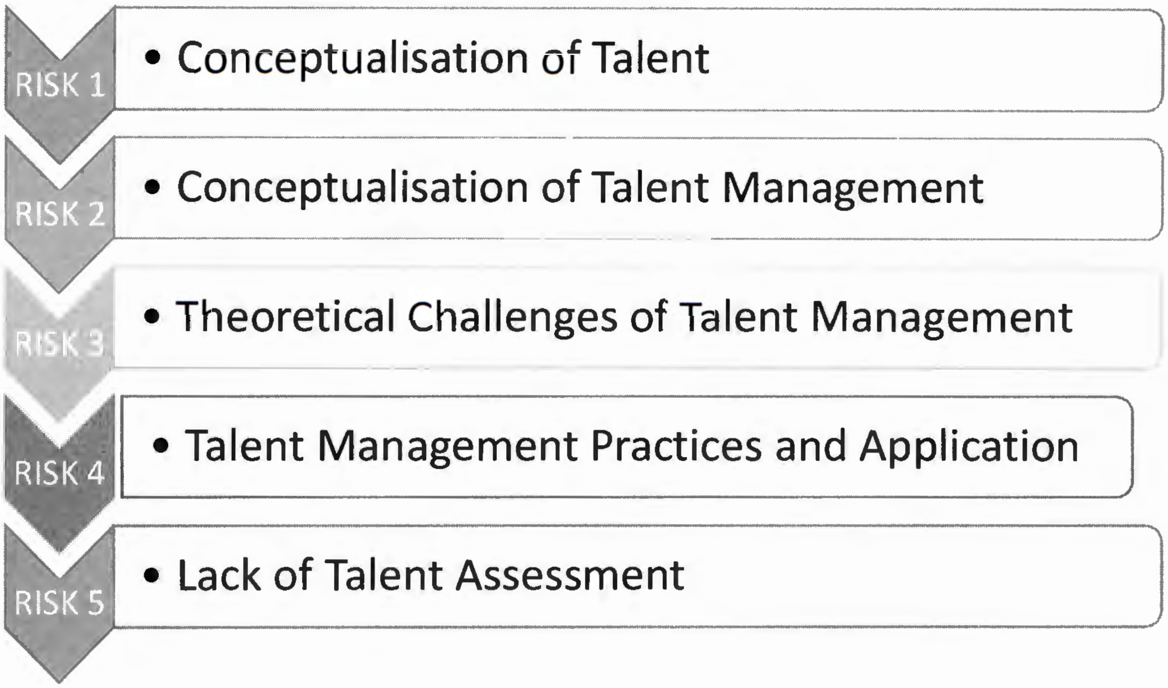

Figure 2-2: Risks relating to talent risk management

2.4.1 RISK 1: CONCEPTUALISATION OF TALENT

The terms talent and TM have seldom been as imperative to the victory of organisations as they are nowadays. Nowadays, the workforce is more multi- generational, more different and more engaged. Talent experts currently work in a much more energetic and ever-changing environment and this requires a more skilful planning of talent techniques, particularly in a case where the organisation needs to expand the potential of its workforce (Wilson, 2012).

That's why for all organisations, the attraction, advancement, and retention of talent is a fundamental driver of victory. The conviction is that organisational objectives can be improved by viable TM (Vaiman, Scullion, & Collings, 2012). For numerous organisations, the terms talent and TM are popular on the corporate agenda. There is a great business case for a vital approach and CEOs and human resources executives to respect talent and TM as a need for the organisation (Turner & Kalman, 2014).

Organisations therefore require a clear definition of what is meant by talent and TM. They have to outline the motives for prioritising talent as a critical business issue and for seeking talented individuals. They have to gain insight into the benefits that a strong talent focus can have for the organisation. This requires 21st century TM, which is different to TM in the 20th century (Macfarlane, Duberley, Fewtrell, & Powell, 2012).

When defining talent, it appears that the term can also mean whatever a business leader or a specific author wants the term to mean, since everyone has their own idea of what the construct does and does not encompass (Ulrich, 2011). In truth, various diverse definitions of talent can be found within the scholastic writing on human resource management (HRM). In expansion, HR writing contains an incredible number of organisationally particular definitions of talent. It should be remembered however that these definitions are incredibly influenced by the sort of industry related field (Tansley, 2011).

The continuous perplexity about the definition of talent within the world of work has for a few years presently being preventing the foundation and creation of broadly acknowledged TM hypotheses and practices, hence slowing down academic progression. It is evident that TM is the method through which an organisations identifies, attracts, manages, develops and engages individuals in order to meet their current and future business needs (Erickson, Schwartz, & Ensell, 2012).

Currently, there is some disagreement on the term talent. This term has created emotive responses from normally rational people (Johns & Gratton, 2013). It is also very clear that an organisation could fall foul of legislature, or could complicate, de-motivate and at worst lose its employees because of a lack of clearness regarding what the organisation means when it refers to the term talent (Samuel & Chipunza, 2013).

One outlook is based on the notion that there is talent in each individual, and as a result, any approach should therefore try and realise that fact. An additional assumption is that an organisation should be able to identify its best talent and influence their capabilities (McGee, 2008). Both these are equally effective approaches. In addition, there are certain key competencies that an organisation might require to achieve a sustainable competitive advantage for the organisation (World Economic Forum, 2010).

There's unquestionably a need for authors to make a definition of precisely what is implied by the term talent and to motivate organisations wide buy-in to the definition (Huber, 2010). Once these things are put in place, there will be more noteworthy clarity with respect to where resources ought to be coordinated to maximise the potential of skilled, talented individuals. Be that as it may, there's a wide collection of definitions from which organisations have to select (Geyer, 2013).

According to Luscombe, Lewis, and Biggs (2013), talent can be characterised as utilising the classic "performance or potential" compatibility that's a feature of, among other things, the talent network, which comprises of those people who can make a contribution to hierarchical execution. This distinction can be either through their immediate contribution or, within the longer term, by being able to demonstrate the most noteworthy levels of potential. This could be seen as the core definition of talent.

Another definition of talent proposes that talent is defined by the aptitudes and commitment of a person and how that person relates to the accomplishment of the organisation's targets. Whereas these may appear to be a system inside which it'll be a clear matter to characterise talent, the reality can be diverse. The interesting encounters of each association will too impact how talent is defined (Turner, 2012).

McKinsey and Company (2009) provide additional evidence of the inconsistency of opinions about talent definition in the continuation to the ground-breaking "War for Talent" investigation of the late 20th century. Each definition has consequences for emphasis, resource allocation and management (McKinsey & Company, 2009). Their definition of talent is as follows:

- The first definition of talent is that everybody who is in the organisation must be viewed as "talent." This opportunity provides for "leverage of the full potential of the workforce," with an advantage of inclusivity and no judgement.

- The second definition is that "talent incorporates all the representatives who are on different distinctive career tracks and levels." In this definition, TM is managed with by a process of portioning the workforce additionally focusing on each section with an assortment of strategies and practices.
- The third definition proposes that talent is top management, people with high potential and specialists at all levels. Early distinguishing proof of talent may be a characteristic of this approach. This may be at that point be seen as an "exclusive approach."
- The fourth and final definition is more inclusive and it refers to all those individuals with great potential as part of their talent programme, regardless of where they sit in the organisation and at what level.
-

According to Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries, and González-Cruz (2013), an expanding number of authors attribute the ambiguity fundamental to the TM build to the insufficient operationalisation of the underlying construct of the term talent. Very shockingly, TM researchers are once in a while precise regarding what precisely they mean by talent, this may likely be due to the reality that there are broadly held certain speculations around what talent is. In truth, in numerous articles and books about TM, defining talent is taken for granted and it is hence not characterised expressly (Althaus, 2015). The table underneath outlines a few of the definitions that have been distinguished by distinctive creators.

Table 2-1: Definitions of talent

Source	Definition of talent
Gagné (2000)	"Superior mastery of systematically developed abilities or skills"
Williams (2000)	"Describe those people who do one or other of the following: regularly demonstrate exceptional ability and achievement, either over a range of activities and situations, or within a specialised and narrow field of expertise; consistently indicate high competence in areas of activity that strongly suggest transferable, comparable ability in situations where they have yet to be tested and proved to be highly effective, i.e. potential."
Buckingham and Vosburgh (2001)	"Talent should refer to a person's recurring patterns of thought, feeling, or behaviour that can be productively applied."
Jericó (2001)	"The implemented capacity of a committed professional or group of professionals that achieve superior results in a particular environment and organisation."
Michaels et al. (2001)	"The sum of a person's abilities. His or her intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgment, attitude, character and drive. It also includes his or her ability to learn and grow."
Lewis and Heckman (2006)	"It is essentially a euphemism for 'people'."
Tansley, Harris, Stewart, and Turner (2006)	"Talent can be considered as a complex amalgam of employees' skills, knowledge, cognitive ability and potential. Employees' values and work preferences are also of major importance."
Stahl et al. (2007)	"A select group of employees, those that rank at the top in terms of capability and performance rather than the entire workforce."
Tansley et al. (2007)	"Talent consists of those individuals who can make a difference to organisational performance, either through their immediate contribution or in the longer term by demonstrating the highest levels of potential."
Ulrich (2007)	"Talent equals competence (able to do the job) times commitment (willing to do the job) times contribution (finding meaning and purpose in their work)."
Cheese, Thomas, and Craig (2008)	"Essentially, talent means the total of all the experience, knowledge, skills, and behaviours that a person has and brings to work."
González-Cruz, Martínez-Fuentes & Pardo-del-Val, (2009)	"A set of competencies that, being developed and applied, allow the person to perform a certain role in an excellent way."

Source	Definition of talent
Silzer and Dowell (2010)	"In some cases, 'the talent' might refer to the entire employee population."
Silzer and Dowell (2010)	"In groups talent can refer to a pool of employees who are exceptional in their skills and abilities either in a specific technical area (such as software graphics skills) or a competency (such a consumer marketing talent), or a more general area (such as general managers or high-potential talent). And in some cases, 'the talent' might refer to the entire employee population."
Silzer and Dowell (2010)	"An individual's skills and abilities (talents) and what the person is capable of doing or contributing to the organisation."
Bethke-Langenegger (2012)	"We understand talent to be one of those workers who ensures the competitiveness and future of a company (as specialist or leader) through his organisational/job specific qualification and knowledge, his social and methodical competencies, and his characteristic attributes such as eagerness to learn or achievement orientedness."
Ulrich and Smallwood (2012)	"Talent refers to competence (knowledge, skills and values required for todays' and tomorrows' job; right skills, right place, right job, right time), commitment (willing to do the job), contribution (finding meaning and purpose in their job)."

2.4.2 RISK 2: CONCEPTUALISATION OF TALENT MANAGEMENT

The documented roots of TM can be found back to as far back as 1865 (Simonton, 2011). It is, however, significant to note that the term TM applied mainly to the world of arts or entertainment, sports literature, and early teachings. The interest in TM in the commercial context however grew in the 1990s with the ground-breaking study titled "The War for Talent" by McKinsey (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001).

TM is by far a new concept. It has in fact been called HC management, employee relationship management and workforce management, among others. It is also increasingly becoming rather complex to recognise the precise meaning of TM (Cappelli, 2008). This is due to the fact that there is a confusion of definitions and terms and the many different assumptions of different writers who write about TM. The terms "TM", "talent strategy", "succession management", and "human resource planning" are often used interchangeably (Kerr-Phillips & Thomas, 2009).

As of late, TM has earned the title of being a well-known subject in both scholastic and practitioner-oriented writing. For a profound understanding of the concept of TM, in any case, a clear definition of talent is of crucial significance (Dries, 2013; Tansley, 2011). Typically due to the truth that the definition of talent has suggestions for the TM practices that are executed. The larger part of researchers within the field of TM take the talent construct for granted and don't define an explicit definition of talent (Gallardo-Gallardo, et al. 2013).

The definition of talent, top talent, critical talent, and TM poses a problem for many scholars. It seems that different scholars have their own ideas of what the word TM describes or captures. Broadly speaking, talent refers to the skills or capabilities that allow an individual to perform a specific task (Vance, 2008). The concept of TM is to a large extent determined by the definition of talent itself, in other words who in an organisation would be regarded as talent. It takes into consideration the employees who are engaged in various development programmes, or even those employees who are only considered as the organisation's potential participants (Parry & Urwin, 2009).

In order to trace the definition of TM, the table below presents definitions from different authors to illustrate how our understanding has changed over the years.

Table 2-2: Definition of Talent Management

Author and period	Definition
(Jackson & Schuler, 1990)	"...ensure the right person is in the right job at the right time."
(Rothwell, 1994)	"A deliberate and systematic effort by an organisation to ensure leadership continuity in key positions and encourage individual advancement."
(Michaels et al., 2001)	"The sum of a person's abilities – his or her intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgment, attitude, character, and drive. It also includes his or her ability to learn and grow."
(Pascal, 2004)	"...managing the supply, demand, and flow of talent through the human capital engine."
Lewis and Heckman (2006)	"...defines talent management as identifying mission-critical values, competencies and talents needed in the current and future workforce; clarifying the methods that will be used to recruit, hire, develop, manage and retain a high performing workforce."
Brewster et al (2010)	"It is about attracting talent through to talent retention."

Author and period	Definition
Meyers and van Woerkom (2014)	"A holistic process that involves the 5Vs (volume, velocity, variety, value, and veracity) in terms of collection, analysis, use, and interpretation of data for various functional divisions, with a view to gaining actionable insights, creating business value, and establishing competitive advantages."

According to Lockwood (2015), defining TM can be grouped into three groups. The table below is an illustration of the groups.

Table 2-3: Additional definitions of talent management

Group 1	Definition
	Talent management is a concept that centers on the concept of talent pools. Talent management as a set of procedures that are designed for the reason of ensuring that there's an adequate stream of skilled and competent representatives who are competent of supporting desires of the association (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). The talent management procedures in this group are supported with the clear purpose of recruiting, developing and also retaining talented staff in order to build up a big enough pool of talent in order to fill current and future vacancies (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). This is regularly similar to the developments of succession planning or personnel management, which emphases on guaranteeing that the development of people through their respective positions is due to organisational difficulties, construction needs, staff turnover, organisational growth or organisational cutbacks (Cohn, Khurana, & Reeves, 2008).
Group 2	**Definition**
	This definition of talent management centres on talent in general. This strategy requires the separation of representatives into distinctive categories concurring to their value (level of talent) within the organisation. It is recommended that gifted workers ought to be overseen concurring to their execution levels. Hence, profoundly competent workers are hunted, hired and differentially remunerated in order to retain their talents (Buckingham, & Vosburgh, 2001; Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin & Michaels, 1998).
Group 3	**Definition**
	This group defines talent management as a set of human resource practices or functions, such as recruitment, selection, development and performance appraisal (Byham, 2011). In order to include the organisational goals and strategies, Gurthridge, Komm and Lawson (2008), defines talent management as "the implementation of integrated strategies or systems, which are designed to enhance workplace productivity by developing an improved procedures for attracting, developing, retaining and utilising individuals with the required skills and ability to meet current and future business needs."

All three of these groups of talent management definitions encourage the practice of various human resource procedures and line management duties associated with organisational strategies and goals to improve organisational success. The diagram below provides a summary of the attributes appear most frequently in definitions:

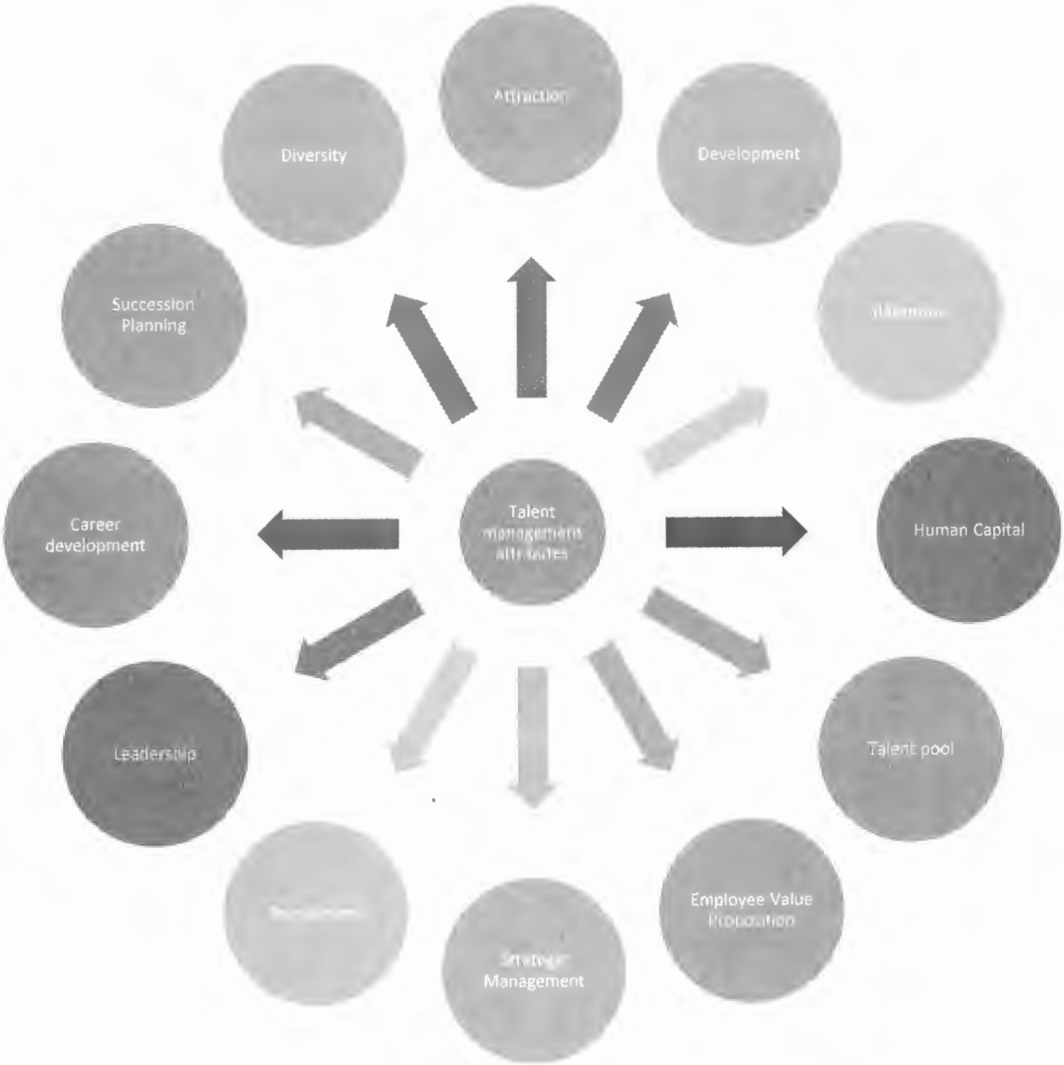

Figure 2-3: Attributes related to the definition of talent management

2.4.3 RISK 3: THEORETICAL CHALLENGES OF TALENT MANAGEMENT

The need of theoretical establishments and the conceptual improvement of the TM writing can be ascribed to the truth that most of the writing in this field is specialist- or consultancy based. This moreover accounts for the literature's focus on practices (the "how") instead of on "who" ought to be considered talented and "why" (Ulrich, Younger, Brockbank & Ulrich, 2013).

An expanding number of authors (e.g., Garrow & Hirsh, 2008; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Reilly, 2008; Tansley et al., 2007) attribute the unclearness of TM theory to the inadequate clarity on the term talent. The term "TM" is already well set up within the ordinary dialect of management as a science and as a viable form of action. All things considered, it must be clearly underlined that it has no shortage of critics (Parry & Urwin, 2009). These faultfinders underline that within the setting of talent, of which imagination ought to be the substance, management is really a direct opposite, particularly in terms of its conventional presentation. They indicate the risk of inconstancy in TM approaches and this is greatly influenced by the lack of theory available (Murphy, 2009). The subsequent suggestion by some authors is that the term "TM" should be substituted with "talent development." They feel that talent development would be easier to define and conceptualise and the term means to create a suitable environment for talent identification, improvement, and exploitation (Moczydłowska, 2014).

In spite of the fact that over 7 000 journals have showed up on TM to date, for the most part within the field HR professional writings, the subject is still not taken "as genuinely as it should" within the scholarly writing, as illustrated by the Reilly (2008). There shows up to be a colossal irregularity in how professionals and scholastics see TM. Another reason for the inadequate literature regarding TM is that few experimental articles around TM can be found within the scholarly writing. Those studies that have been distributed are ordinarily case studies, surveys or interview studies in which HR directors are inquired to characterise their organisation's TM practices and their fundamental rationale. The foremost often-cited articles on TM tend to extract from a HC or resource-based see (RBV) (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Iles, 2013).

According to Dries (2013), it ought to be noted that TM takes a phenomenon-driven approach to its audit of the writing. Instead of withdrawing from the universal thought that there's not much theory accessible about TM, Dries further declares that numerous perspectives points of view of TM can in truth be found in literature streams from outside the HRM domain, most strikingly in psychology literature. Meyers, van Woerkom, and Dries (2013) survey the literature on gifted children, individual qualities, meta-competencies, employee potential, and skilled performance with the idea of contributing to a substantiated answer to the question "Can talent be developed, and in the event that so, to what extent?"

Boudreau (2013) states that the most challenge we appear to confront as TM researchers is to take the scholarly "road less travelled" and to work back from what Dries states towards a more hypothetical system (or, most likely, a set of theoretical frameworks). This will permit future writers to plan, conduct, and distribute top-tier scholarly work. From all of the over, it can be concluded that TM, at least as an area scholastic inquiry, is however yet to reach the status of a developed field.

2.4.4 RISK 4: TALENT MANAGEMENT PRACTICES AND APPLICATION

Currently there is no consensus on the use of TM practices in South African workplaces. The most prominent TM practices that could be identified include labour force planning, talent acquisition, talent recruitment and retention, performance management, talent commitment and talent development.

2.4.4.1 WORKFORCE PLANNING

Talent strategy is a procedure related to the organisationl strategy, and it is important for workforce planning, which includes talent strategy and business alignment. Organisations must ensure that they define their talent sectors, identify critical roles and analyse organisational skill shortages (Veldtman, 2010). HR leaders must therefore consider their talent needs for the next 12 to 24 months, and use the information to drive succession planning, recruitment strategies and also learning plans. The organisation will therefore get into the solutions phase of TM practices (Sermeus et al., 2011).

2.4.4.2 TALENT ACQUISITION

Talent acquisition entails filling the critical roles of employees. It is done once the organisation had identified the necessary talent. Once this has been done, the organisation is able to come up with a plan to address the critical roles and highly specialised roles in the workforce. It will have a continuous flow of employees to fill in critical roles, which ensures that operations run smoothly (Sharda, 2012).

2.4.4.3 TALENT RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

Organisations cannot afford to look at recruitment in isolation from the other TM practices. There is a need for more integration in order to deliver and add value to organisations (Farndale, Scullion & Sparrow, 2010). The approaches through which organisations are able to source talent have also changed considerably with the introduction of technology (web) (Cosack, Guthridge & Lawson, 2010). This recruitment style has been facilitated by a multitude of advanced search tools and has created connections between employers and possible candidates at a phenomenal rate (Scullion & Collings, 2011).

2.4.4.4 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Employees that experience job satisfaction tend to be more productive than dissatisfied employees. When an employee gets satisfaction from doing their job, they are willing to do their best when it comes to work because the rewards of doing that job are worth it. Performance management involves managing employee or employee efforts based on measured performance outcomes (DeNisi & Pritchard, 2009).

2.4.4.5 TALENT COMMITMENT

Talent commitment involves the processes included in distinguishing work profiles and measuring an employee's commitment and purposeful to remain within the organisation. It captures critical information and ought to be created and overseen for all critical roles. The biggest area of the TM framework incorporates those processes that specifically touch the workers at different stages of the business cycle, such as selecting, evaluating, developing and rewarding. These practices moreover impact on the commitment of an employee (Erasmus, Swanepoel, Schenk & Van Wyk, 2009).

2.4.4.6 TALENT DEVELOPMENT

Talent development is a critically important practice. Here the organisation provides learning and development programmes to employees at all levels of the organisation. This area addresses the organisation's need for a constant supply of talent. It focuses on the establishment of talent in the organisation by expecting it, identifying it, and rewarding it (Du Plessis, 2010). An organisation can create and ignite talent by providing opportunities for self-actualisation (Galagan, 2008).

Similar to investing in training and development workshops, organisations should also focus their resources, especially when growing new and existing talent. Managing talent development provides insight and rather valuable information on workforce skills, emerging performers and other valuable measurable aspects. An important aspect of the development of talent is to enable career self-management and beneficial work changes (Lawler as cited in Nagel, 2012).

The above-mentioned practices reveal that TM focuses on the development of an individual. The practices are meant to encourage and develop the employees to obtain a higher performance level. However, this is not the case in most South African organisations (Al Ariss, Cascio, & Paauwe, 2014). In spite of a great deal of exploration on TM over the past years,there is still a substantial gap between what actually happens in theory and what happens in practice. This perspective assumes that organisations should be able to enhance the potential and performance of employees using structures of human resource practices that are associated with their TM strategy, but there is very little evidence that this is happening (Cappelli, 2012).

Research in strategic business has noted that there are significant differences among managers. This has a predominantly large impact on a company's performance (Mollick, 2012). Supervisors in South African organisations have small information around TM. They are not mindful of the truth that applying TM practices can successfully leads to either a diminished worker turnover or improved individual results such as a psychological contract, work engagement, vigour, work fulfilment and motivation (Barkhuizen, 2014a). It is no mystery that as soon as the proper individuals are chosen, they have to be arranged within the right positions. As a result, sound TM practices, for example talent development, rewards and performance management, can be kept up through continuous management commitment (Barkhuizen, 2014b).

Most organisations focus on TM processes rather than practices, and what is more alarming is the fact that there is a tendency for institutions to copy each other (Farndale, Pai, Sparrow, & Scullion, 2014). There is a risk of an isomorphism of what has been promoted as "best practice" TM in company policy or practitioner terms due to a lack of adequate academic insight. Simple imitating is unlikely to deliver intended strategies as "what passes as best practice in TM likely is not" (Iles, Chuai, & Preece, 2010) and even established global firms are challenged with replicating process across geographies (Morris et al., 2009).

2.4.5 RISK 5: LACK OF TALENT ASSESSMENT

Good talent management depend heavily on the capacity to measure success. The challenge to identify talent has become an HR's wake-up call. Enterprises often realise too late that the best employees was right under their noses all along. This is due to a lack of talent assessments (Rayton, 2008). One of the main features of an assessment is the use of recreations as a method of assessing managerial and employee talents, especially in an organisation setting. Such exercises simulate the type of managerial work to which the participant would be exposed at a higher level, thus allowing their performance to be observed under quasi-realistic conditions (Magau & Roodt, 2010).

In order for organisations to remain competitive, it is essential for these organisations to evaluate their talent management processes frequently. Managers must constantly review the internal and external factors that impact on the attraction and retention of their talented employees. It is essential to be able to assess the level of TM against competitors' compensation and benefits, recruiting practices and training and development programmes (*Talent Management Learner Manual*, 2004).

Recent research calls for measurement tools for TM (Collings, 2014). These measurements will further develop the literature and suggest values that can be implemented in organisations (Sparrow & Makram, 2015), which could be measured as evidence of system effectiveness (Björkman, Ehrnrooth, Mäkelä, Smale, & Sumelius, 2013). Recently, a study conducted by Theron, Barkhuizen, and Du Plessis (2014), has successfully created a measuring tool for retention of academics. The research indicates that the novel talent retention diagnostic tool is valid also very reliable as a measure to regulate the factors that contribute to the retention of academics in South African HEIs.

It can therefore be concluded that an organisation establishes processes to measure and manage employees. Talent requires assessment tools to establish the talent mind-set (Du Plessis, 2010). Ulrich (2011) also states that if people are not measured, they will never know how well they do and therefore there is no accountability (Nagel, 2012). Both the behaviours of individuals and the outcomes of their actions require measurement.

2.5 CONCEPTUALISATION OF TALENT RISK MANAGEMENT

Talent management today is coined as one of the most exciting topics in the field of management; the same can be also be said about risk management. One of fascinating features of risk management is the company's ability to attract and retain the most talented individuals (Ciborra, 2010). In many organisations, employee commitment and trustworthiness has never been more important than in today's context where the "war for talent" is raging and skilled employees have a larger choice of employment, both locally and globally. This is recurring trend that has had a particularly negative result on the retention of professionals and managerial employees (Saratoga Institute, 2015).

Managers are increasingly becoming aware of the many risks that appear when the employees are not managed well. Management has been limited in their capacity to address HC risks. Therefore, as a result, there is a lack of data and information, particularly metrics that measure the effectiveness of TM and risk management programmes and their impact on the business. Every organisation should look into applying risk methodology for the management of their HC (Dewhurst, Pettigrew, & Srinivasan, 2012).

From the above-mentioned literature, it can be concluded that in many companies, TM accounts for at least half of the operating costs needed to attract, develop and retain the best. While many companies in South Africa have made it their mission to identify, assess, prioritise and also treat company-wide risks through ERM, most of these companies overlook TM risk altogether. Most companies focus on a constricted range of issues, such as succession planning and the leadership pipeline (Dindire & Dugan, 2013).

So far we have seen the evolution of risk management from ERM to HCRM, with and the main focus initially being on the financial risks of organisations. TRM is all about managing both the upside and downside of the company's financial, legal, operational, security and strategic risks. The objective of having TRM in organisations is to maximise resources while minimising the risk exposure to leverage vital assets (Fallaw & Dawson, 2012). If all these aspects are recognised, then the most competitive companies will have the best strategies and approaches for attracting, hiring, managing, developing and retaining their top performing talent (Airmic, 2010).

The development a TRM tool can benefit many organisations. There is no doubt that South Africa has become a worldwide competitive country. The World Competitiveness Report (Institute for Management Development (IMD), 2018) lists South Africa in the 53rd position a standing of the competitiveness of 55 nations. A critical element of competitiveness in every organisation is having individuals with the appropriate skills that complement a range of occupations and professions, as well as the necessary skills to drive leadership in South African organisations. The Project Management Institute (2018) also notes that those organisations that are determined to become competitive have to rely on talented and dedicated employees.

South Africa is burdened by one great challenge when it comes to the retention of its talent, namely emigration. In 1977, the country went through a period of losing talented employees just after the Soweto riots. The second loss of talent happened in 1986 (during the State of Emergency); and lastly in 1994 (after the introduction of the African National Congress (ANC) government) (Sacht, 2010). As a result of the trend set by all these events and current affairs, the country has witnessed an intense increase in the emigration of South Africans to countries such as Australia, New Zealand and the United Kingdom over the last ten years (Statistics South Africa, 2017).

The South African Board for People Practices (SABPP), (2012) has found in its annual human resource survey that 32% of South African organisations do not concern themselves with this occurrence at all. However, they found that 46% did indicate the matter of talent retention as a major concern due to lack of risk management.

Many managers who apply TM in their organisations have indicated that there is clearly a great problem with "attracting and retaining" the talent needed to compete both locally and globally (SABPP, 2012). It is therefore important to remember that not all companies are capable of attracting and retaining the most talented workforce made up of suitable individuals with the ability to provide a sustainable competitive advantage. Talent is, therefore, a resource that is treasured, rare, and hard to imitate (Hatum, 2010, 2013).

It is also evident that the market for talent is far from being an effective one. Talent is not publicly traded, nor listed. It does, however, tend to be hidden and rather difficult to find. This situates talent risk as a concept that in years to come will have to be considered a fascinating risk to manage in the corporate world (Althaus, 2015). While attraction and retention are both critical to a firm's success, universities have to address the probability that talented academics may leave the organisation and they have to acknowledge the gravity of the problem caused by this defection (Quinn, 2012).

The top management at higher learning institutions tend to assume that talented academics will stay in the organisation forever. When they leave, sometimes unexpectedly and without warning, they find out the hard way that talent risk should have been taken seriously. The person who leaves often take with them important knowledge that might no longer be accessible to the company (Hatum & Preve, 2014).

2.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter set out to explain and conceptualise ERM, HRC, talent and TM. The chapter highlighted that there are no uniform definitions of the terms talent and TM. These terms should be defined within the organisation's context. TM is part of corporate South Africa and indeed the world. It is inseparable from our knowledge-based economy and will increasingly affect how we do and lead business.

Authors and experts are increasingly making a case for broadening the definition of talent so that it does not focus only on the elite top 5–15% percent of the organisation. There are compelling arguments for redefining the "war for talent" as the "wealth of talent." It makes sense in emerging economies to look at talent broadly and inclusively, as well as to maximise potential at all levels.

Creating a risk culture is very important. From the first contact that an organisation has with potential recruits, through the induction process, development, progression and even departure from the business, employees' experiences will impact the risk culture of the business. There is much that can be done throughout the TM "life cycle" to help organisations shape and promote a more positive risk culture. It is also important to consider the impact each of those aspects has in shaping people's understanding and attitudes.

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CHAPTER 3: ARTICLE 2

EXPLORING INSTITUTIONAL TALENT CULTURE RISKS ASSOCIATED WITH ACADEMIC STAFF: A MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

Orientation: The current South African higher educational landscape imposes significant demands on academic staff members. Not only are academics confronted with rapid increases in student numbers and larger classes, but they also have to deal with budget cuts that limit their ability to deliver quality research outputs. Consequently, higher education institutions are at risk of losing key talented staff should these demanding work conditions prevail.

Research purpose: The main objective of this research was to explore the risks associated with the current academic talent management culture and practice of higher education institutions.

Motivation for the study: Despite some inroads into the field and practice of business risk management, its application in the academic context is scarce. The continuous changes and challenges within higher education make the risk management of academic staff a necessity.

Research approach, design, and method: A qualitative research approach was followed with data collected from ten higher education managers from a selected South African higher education institution.

Main findings: The findings showed that the higher education institution should pay attention to five main risks relating to the institutional culture of managing academic talent. These risks include institutional strategy, management support, physical infrastructure, diversity practices and work environment. The findings in particular highlight a lack of institutional strategy, physical infrastructure risks relating to unsafe work environment and racial tension.

Practical/managerial implications: Higher education institutions should develop a clear institutional strategy with realistic performance goals for staff. Management and HR practitioners should develop risk management policies and plans to retain key and competent staff members.

Contribution/Value-add: This research paper provides valuable insight into the human capital risks that higher education management should attend to if they are to manage academic talent effectively.

Keywords: academic staff; diversity; management support; physical infrastructure; talent risk management;

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The transformation of the South African higher educational landscape poses significant physical and psychological risks for academic staff members. Rapid changes in the functioning of higher education institutions (HEIs) resulted in increased teaching, research and student supervision workloads for academic staff (Van StraatenTheron & Dodd, 2011), budget cuts with a lack of financial support (Wood & Deprez, 2012) and unacceptably high student-lecturer ratios (Keet, 2015). Moreover, the #FeesMustFall campaign and student unrest damaged the physical infrastructure of several South African HEIs, disrupted classes and created unsafe work environments for many staff members (Pilane, 2016). The current "decolonisation" initiatives in higher education further increase workloads as academics need to rethink, reframe and reconstruct curricula (Heleta, 2016). Consequently, resistance to change and conflicting ideologies are imminent and this creates further stressful work environments (Kelly, 2017).

The main objective of this research was to determine management perspectives on the institutional talent culture risks for academic staff at a selected higher education institution. Meyer, Roodt and Robbins (2011) identify the following risks for talented employees in the workplace: a mismatch between talent and the workplace; a lack of talent attraction and retention practices; poor performance management; inadequate training and development practices for performance improvement and a deconstructive company culture. Coetzee and Lubbe (2013) caution that many institutions of higher learning do not have risk strategies to safeguard its core mission of teaching-learning and community service during times of transformation. Bubka and Coderre (2015) maintain that HEIs should develop and implement a comprehensive risk management plan that can serve as a roadmap to identify and manage talent risks.

3.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

3.2.1 ACADEMIC TALENT CULTURE

According to Sarmadi, Nouri, Zandi, and Lavasani (2017), academic culture receives meaning from the interaction between education groups within the university community. Sarmadi et al. (2017) further emphasise the need for an open organisational culture that will allow academic staff to exchange viewpoints, experiences and opinions and allows staff to express their ideas without the fear of being laid off. Likewise, Cucu-Ciuhan and Guită-Alexandru (2014) point out those academics prefer a supporting type of organisational culture as opposed to a culture that is driven by power. Gül (2008) indicates that managers should inform all academics about the decisions and the situation in higher education to create an atmosphere of mutual trust. In a similar vein, a study by Deselle et al. (2017) showed that academics preferred an emphasis on collegial support and shared responsibility for culture, governance, decision-making and outcomes for a desirable institutional cultural instead of emphasising rewards and competitiveness. Chipunza and Malo (2017) found that positive academic perceptions with organisational cultural dimensions, such as co-worker relations, supervision support, the work itself and available advancement opportunities, enhanced their satisfaction.

The link between organisational culture and TM has been reported. Kontoghiorghes (2015) found that talent attraction and retention depends greatly on the extent to which the organisation is perceived to have a change-, quality-, and technology-driven culture, and is characterised by support for creativity, open communication, effective knowledge management, and the core values of respect and integrity. Some studies also highlight the obstacles of poor organisational culture in the roll-out of TM strategies. Cutajar (2012) found that the organisational culture of the organisation in that study was not built on a clear set of values, which according to Bahizi (2012) is critical for the implementation of TM. Cutajar (2012) further found that organisations lack return on investment measures to determine the return on investment of talent development initiatives. According to Barkhuizen and Schutte (2017), return on investment has become one of the most important tools to assess the effectiveness of TM initiatives in the workplace. Another core finding of Cutajar (2012) shows that there is no integration of HR practices in the talent structure of the organisation and consequently no alignment with the business strategy. TM is believed to be one of the core professional competencies of HR professionals (Schutte, 2015).

According to Barkhuizen and Schutte (2016), higher education institutions should be more creative in managing high performing academic staff in low performing work environments. The latter study clearly highlights the need for less bureaucratic management structures, user-friendly administrative systems and advanced technological practices to reduce administrative paperwork. In addition, academics need the freedom and flexibility to be creative and innovative in their workspace. Research has highlighted the positive connection between academic freedom, flexible work environment and improved academic performance. Huang, Zhang, and Li (2017) provide a comprehensive list of factors that can assist with the introduction of TM and higher education and the effective management of talent risks: introduction planning; establishing comprehensive personnel evaluation standards; implementing contract management; strengthening performance appraisal; perfecting the mechanism of TM; establishing a comprehensive preventive measure of the risk of introducing talents into colleges.

The article now provides a brief outline of the institutional talent culture factors that can be potential risks for academic staff.

3.2.2 MANAGEMENT SUPPORT

Leadership at higher education institutions has been exposed to various changes over the past two decades. According to De Boer and Goedgebuure (2009), academic management practices have evolved from traditional collegial ideas to more business-like, market driven principles. Floyd (2012) summarises the extensive change in the role of higher education management as follows: vice-chancellors at HEIs have become more like chief executives; a senior management has emerged consisting of both senior academic and administrative staff, while department heads are increasingly being seen as managers rather than academic leaders.

Normore and Brooks (2014) continue to highlight the multiple roles of higher education leaders, which include budgeting, campus governance, staff matters, faculty hiring and evaluation, monitoring of standards, promoting racial and gender balance, and encouraging continued personal and professional growth. The structural changes in public higher education systems have changed the way in which academic work is managed and favour enhanced management control with great demands on academic staff (Arntzen, 2016). Chipunza and

Gwarinda (2010) found that academic staff felt that higher educational management did not recognise innovation and risk-taking during mergers in South Africa. The ability of leaders to establish a talent culture will determine the nature and prevalence of HC risks such as the retention of academic staff members (Lesenyeho, 2017; Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis, 2014).

3.2.3 INSTITUTIONAL STRATEGIES

Radical post-apartheid transformation initiatives require from HEIs to revisit institutional policies and the involvement of the broader university community (Milutinović & Nikolić, 2014). Although a great deal of attention has been devoted to increasing access for students to higher education, the successful implementation of such a plan is questionable. According to Lewin and Mawoyo (2014), the graduation rates in South Africa's public university system are low compared to systems elsewhere. A study by Arnolds, Stofile and Lillah (2013) shows that academic and support staff was of the opinion that a merged higher education institution did not achieve the merger goals and objectives as set by the South African government. In this study, the perceived success of a merger was an important indicator of the staff's commitment to their organisation and their intention to perform on the job. Bosire (2017) highlights the importance of strong and visible leadership and ongoing consulting with staff during the strategic planning process.

3.2.4 WORK ENVIRONMENT

According to Guest (2007), people consider a "good workplace" as a place with low levels of stress, appreciation by management and a non-threatening work environment. Soon after the 1994 transformations, organisational researchers started paying attention to the quality of the work environment at universities and its impact on the well-being of the academics (Schulz, 2013). A study by Theron et al. (2014) showed that the institutional culture (i.e. sound human resource management practices; diversity management; clear institutional strategies) and the availability of research funding played an important role in academic staff's intentions to leave their jobs. According to Schulze (2008), the quality of the research outputs of academic staff can be enhanced by providing financial resources for research projects and financial support for external collaborations (i.e. travel to professional meetings, conferences or visiting scholars).

3.2.5 PHYSICAL WORK ENVIRONMENT

Vischer (2007) indicates that there is mounting evidence that the physical work environment affects both job performance and job satisfaction. The lack of technological infrastructure furthermore hinders academics significantly from delivering the required quality education in an increasing digital society. Makgato (2014) maintains that higher education institutions have to produce teachers with proper pedagogy in teaching and learning technology to enhance the learning experience of learners. A lack of classroom infrastructure and overcrowded classes also create challenges for academics with delivering subject content effectively and influencing student achievement (Bakasa, 2011). Clearly, a lack of infrastructure and the physical work environment has a negative spill-over effect on the broader society. A study by Strauss (2012) showed that talented teachers in rural areas considered quitting their jobs because of poor working conditions and a lack of resources.

3.2.6 DIVERSITY PRACTICES

South African higher education institutions have been exposed to complex and highly contested organisational transformation processes since the end of apartheid (Kamsteeg, 2016). The desegregation and changes in educational systems and institutions brought great challenges for educators, including an increase in the heterogeneity of the student population, decolonisation of curricula and new educational legislations (see Meier & Hartell, 2009). Consequently, traditional academic cultures and relationships are challenged with the new social dynamics in higher education systems and increasing diversity and differentiation within and between institutions (Lumadi, 2011). Multiple diversities in a country such as age, gender, race, religion, disability, linguistic orientation can among other things affect diversity management in higher education (Cross, 2004; Vermeulen, 2011). As mentioned by Naidoo (2015), diversity can either be a threat, or a promise, or a problem and a possibility.

3.3 RESEARCH METHOD

3.3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This research followed a qualitative research approach to achieve the set research objectives. A qualitative research design empowers participants by making their voices heard as active participants in the research (Creswell, 2014). This research falls within the phenomenological research paradigm. Phenomenological research focuses on the meanings of human experiences in situations as they spontaneously occur in the course of daily life and can be an emotion, relationship, or an entity such as a programme, an organisation, or a culture (see Lin, 2013). A case study research strategy was followed using a selected South African higher education institution as a case at one point in time. Case study methodology allows researchers to investigate a phenomenon such as talent culture risk factors in a real-life context (Yin, 2012).

3.3.2 APPROACHING PARTICIPANTS AND ESTABLISHING RESEARCH ROLES

Permission to execute the research was obtained from the relevant higher education institution's authorities. The purpose of the research was explained to all the participants. The participation was voluntary and all participants signed an informed consent form. The research was subjected to ethics approval before commencement. Obtaining informed consent includes sharing all possible information on the goal of the research; the expected duration of the participants' involvement and the procedures to be followed during the investigation.

3.4 SAMPLING

The sample for the qualitative study consisted of 10 managers from different levels of a selected South African higher education institution. The demographic characteristics of the participants are reported in Table 3-1 below. In this sample 6 participants were males, while 4 were females. Out the 10 participants, 3 were from top management, 5 from middle management and 2, were from lower management level. An equal number of white and black managers participated in this study. The participants were primarily aged 50 years and older and had been employed for more than 20 years at the current institution.

Table 3-1: Demographic characteristics of the participants

	Gender	Race	Qualification	Job Level	Age Group	Years working at the current institution
P1	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	30 years
P2	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	21 years
P3	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	6-10 years
P4	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P5	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	16–20 years
P6	Female	African	Doctoral degree	Lower Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P7	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	6–10 years
P8	Male	White	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P9	Male	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	40–49 Years	6–10 years
P10	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Lower Management	50 years and above	11–15 years

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

The data in this study were collected through semi-structured interviews. Semi-structured interviews are in-depth interviews where respondents have to respond to open-ended questions and such interviews are usually conducted once only (Jamshed, 2014). According to Digicco-Bloom and Crabtree (2006), semi-structured interviews are generally organised around a set of predetermined open-ended questions that allow for other questions that emerge from the conversation between the researchers and the respondent.

3.6 DATA ANALYSES

Theme (content) analyses were applied to analyse and interpret the data. According to Thyme, Wiberg, Lundberg, and Graneham (2013), qualitative data analyses start with a process of organising the data that have been collected. After organisation, the data were systematically analysed to identify the themes and sub-themes. Cresswell (2014) maintains that the analysis process should be a reflexive, cautious process as it affects the quality, validity and reliability of the whole research project. In line with Houghton, Casey, Shaw, and Murphy (2013), the quality and rigour of this research were assured by prolonged engagement and persistent observation, peer debriefing, member checking, audit trial, reflexivity and thick descriptions. The findings of this research are reported in table format. The themes and sub-themes extracted from the interviews are substantiated by direct quotes.

3.7 FINDINGS

The results of the theme analyses are reported in Table 2 below. Five themes were identified, namely Management support (mentioned 22 times); Physical environment (mentioned 13 times); Institutional strategy (mentioned 13 times); Work environment (mentioned 12 times) and Diversity (mentioned 6 times). A brief discussion of the themes and sub-themes is presented below.

Table 3-2: Themes and sub-themes relating to talent culture risk management

Theme	Sub-themes	Frequency	Frequency Total
Management support	Job security	9	22
	Conference opportunities and publications	7	
	Research development	6	
Physical environment	Safety and security	8	13
	Accommodation	5	
Institutional strategy	Institutional transformation	7	13
	New institutional strategy	6	
Work environment	Student unrest	10	12

	Administrative support	2	
Diversity management	Racial tension	3	6
	Equality	3	

Theme 1: Management support

The participants were of the opinion that academics stay with the institution mainly for the opportunity to develop their research areas. There is, however, a large risk when it comes to employing talented staff. The risk emerges with having to provide job security to retain that person in transformation situations.

Sub-theme: Job security

Job security was the most mentioned sub-theme among the responses of the participants. In the interviews, the management highlighted job security as one of the highest risks in the retention of academics. The responses were the following:

> *"You might get people leaving because they're not sure as to what the restructuring could bring for them you know; it's a job security issue at the end of the day. So we've got to always be conscious that we do provide the necessary job security so that we don't lose staff like that, unless if staff members are not honest, you know?"* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

This was supported by Participant 2, who stated that:

> *"Job security is also very important. Nobody would want to leave their comfortable job and get into a situation where you're not too sure whether your job will be there tomorrow or not, things like that are what I believe to be important"* (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

Sub-theme: Conference opportunities and publications

At universities, management often pride themselves in the degree to which they create conference opportunities. Most of the participants were of the opinion that academics are greatly motivated by the fact that they have the opportunity to present one paper per year at an international conference with the institution fully paying for the expenses. The managers who identified the importance of conference opportunities stated the following:

> *"I just sign and I say go because I know that they bring in a lot of money when they publish so it's worth my while. There's actually quite a lot of money available for academics. I think sometimes it's difficult for staff to know the process of how to get it and sometimes it's quite a long and complicated process with lots of forms that can be quite intimidating. I think we could possibly provide a lot more help with that so that the only thing the academic staff member would have to do is to sort out their academic content and someone else could help to fill in forms because there is money"* (Participant 4, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Another participant added:

> *"Like I do conferences and then I will get people phoning me saying don't you have a position for me because I hear that it is going well there. So, I think that is the culture that has been created by empowering people. I think that is something specifically on this campus, but especially on the faculty.* (Participant 7, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Sub-theme: Research development

The participants also highlighted institutional support for research development. Comments by participants include the following:

> *"The support that we provide makes us distinguishable. We are creating an environment that is conducive to research and that environment really talks about our funding towards it. Our budget is cute towards subsidising research projects and post-doctoral fellows. So that's why you really end up with a competitive advantage"* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Participant 10, however, made a very interesting comment by stating that:

> *"They (top management), have a teaching award given to deserving academics. They also have research awards. They should also have*

smaller awards for staff that cannot reach the level of PhD or those who have presented at conferences" (Participant 10, Lower level management, PhD, Female, White).

Theme 2: Physical Infrastructure

The participants highlighted two central themes related to the physical infrastructure, namely safety and security and the availability of proper accommodation.

Sub-theme: Safety and security

Safety and security is one the most sensitive issues in the work environment. The views on this sub-theme were heavily influenced by the student unrest that put management in a position where they had to ensure that the staff are well taken care of and that their safety remains a priority. Risks emerged in the absence of appropriate security mechanisms:

> *"We don't have effective policies like you'd find in other universities in the States, where they have panic buttons everywhere and there are police on campus patrolling everywhere to make sure that staff and students are safe, we don't have that here. So if you think about the walls that have been built around and think that that will keep you safe, it will not keep anybody safe.* (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

And

> *...we observe health and safety measures with respect to the laboratories, buildings, and then from time to time we ensure that the academic staff is safe but then the disruptions on campus is something that we don't have enough control over, yet"* (Participant 3, Male, Top Management, Professor, African).

Sub-theme: Accommodation

The topic of accommodation surfaced when management was asked about how they deal with new employees and how they accommodate them at the university and outside. Some of the comments included the following:

> *"It is very risky because this area is not a civilised place and it is difficult to attract people from the cities to come here. Housing is very expensive. So it is very difficult to attract people and say come and stay here. You look at the town and the place it's so dirty and the Municipality is not doing their job and they strike a lot"* (Participant 9, Male, Middle management, PhD, White).

Theme 3: Institutional strategy

The participants highlighted two aspects that could create potential risks for the effective execution of the institutional strategy. These include institutional transformation and the new institutional strategy.

Sub-theme: Institutional transformation

The main aim of this part of the interview was to determine the views of management with regard to the process of merging of the three campuses of the selected university at the time the study was conducted. The interviewer asked about the effects, the organisational structure and how management was planning to implement the new institutional strategy. The responses were as follows:

> *"You see the different campus thing, it's going to be difficult to have one kind of uniform way of working and doing things, but then we can strive for that which means that the environment may dictate certain variances here and there, but also other things that are at a strategic level, it's almost like a number of senior people are retiring and will be leaving with the rich history and traditions of the university, those are the people that we might be losing. But also there has been quite a lot of change within the leadership of the institution, I think most of the people that are in leadership now have not spent more than 4 years in that sphere"* (Participant 3, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

As far as the new institutional strategy is concerned, the participants had the following comments:

> *"As far as I'm concerned in terms of the new institutional strategy, that's no strategy at all. It has actually alienated the other campuses like us from*

the bigger picture which is the university because the way things have been done has been at the expense of this campus. When I looked at the strategy itself, the so-called transformation strategy, there's nothing transformed about that strategy and I don't see how it's going to help us transform the institution." (Participant 6, Middle management, Professor, Female, African).

Another participant mentioned that:

> *"For the past year, of course, we've been going through a transformation process and through a new strategy and even for this year. I will be watching that with interest because whenever an institution goes through a change period, change in itself is not comfortable. People start to feel threatened. You might get people leaving because they're not sure as to what the restructuring could bring for them you know; it's a job security issue at the end of the day"* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Theme 4: Work environment

The work environment is the second theme that participants felt strongly about due to the student unrest and their lack of safety at the time of the interviews.

Sub-theme: Student unrest

The events of the #FeesMustFall campaign during which students protested for increase access to tertiary education made it clear that South African HEIs should urgently revisit the needs of students to avoid student unrest. The participants who felt strongly about the issue stated that:

> *"We also have a risk in terms of attracting good students. That is also a university right situation. But we do have students that will say that but there hasn't been trouble in the other two campus so I am leaving, that's not good. We cannot control that so I think that student unrest is a huge risk"* (Participant 10, Lower level management, PhD, Female, White).

And:

"We also have a problem of political influences and the student unrest on the campus and that also influences the funds that we get from private companies. Those guys will not be willing to help us if we are involved with such things" (Participant 9, Male, Middle management, PhD, White).

Sub-theme: Administrative support

With regard to administrative support, managers felt that most staff members are not satisfied with the amount of paperwork that comes with the execution of teaching and learning duties. They also indicated that academics are sometimes even discouraged from attending conferences due to the amount of paperwork that has to be done before and after the conference. Some participants stated that:

> *"Some of the challenges I think are just the actual administration of things. As I said, if you've got to fill in 101 forms before you get money, then you'll think well, it's too much effort, I won't do it. So, it needs to be made easier for academics, not too much red tape. There are a lot of things like when we fill in forms and send them from here and they get stuck at the Institutional office, or the management comes back and says no, do it a different way and we say, but we've always done it this way."* (Participant 4, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

And also:

> *"Some academics get frustrated with administrative issues when it comes to purchasing things or getting things. Salaries are a major risk because, for example, the government offer better salaries that we cannot match. So it is very difficult for us to retain people"* (Participant 9, Male, Middle management, PhD, White).

Theme 5: Diversity

The participants highlighted two factors that affect the effective management of a diverse workforce in a newly merged institution, namely racial tension and inequity. The views of the participants regarding racial tension stem from the merger to which the higher education institution was exposed. Management was concerned about how the three different campuses, which are geographically removed and vastly different in terms of their cultures, will function as one. These are some of their views:

Participant 1 stated that:

> *"At the moment, we are looking for a unitary institution we are looking at the issues of the same culture across the university. There is a bit of a risk when you start to talk about diversity. This is because people look at that as the same as you start talking about affirmative action. Diversity is important and so that becomes a racial issue...so you need to be very careful in terms of how you handle the issue. It is important to get people to embrace and understand the value of diversity without necessarily saying that we have to raise black authority"* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Some of the views regarding equity are the following:

> *"Then the other challenge is also that for anything that needs to be implemented, you need all of us to agree therefore it takes time to actually implement things across the system. Also the willingness of people to actually embrace issues of equity and then also having diverse individuals within their staff are part of the challenges that would be encountered"* (Participant 3, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

This was supported by Participant 1, who stated:

> *"The backgrounds of our staff members are so diverse and it's always a problem in terms of how do I really address them in a way that I'd say is equitable, you know. Others come from historically advantages campuses, others from advantaged campus backgrounds. The university needs to be an environment where they can grow culturally."* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

3.8 DISCUSSION

The main objective of this research was to determine the talent culture risks for academic staff from a management point of view. Five factors were identified that could pose potential risks for talented academic staff: Management support, Physical infrastructure, Institutional strategy, Work environment and Diversity management. The participants in this study were of the opinion that the institution provided sufficient opportunities for career development for staff in terms of conference attendance, furthering qualifications, research grants, and teaching awards.

In line with Lesenyeho (2017) and Theron et al. (2014), higher education management can reduce HC risks and retain academic staff members by establishing a talent culture in which talented staff can flourish and perform. Unfortunately, the restructuring of the higher education institution threatens the job security of individuals, and this is not always within the control of higher education management. In contrast with the findings of Chipunza and Gwarinda (2010), the participants in this study recognised the potential risks associated with mergers.

The physical infrastructure of the higher education institution emerged as a risk in this study. Some participants alluded to the fact that they did not have adequate safety and security mechanisms in place during student riots. The findings echoed the warning of Pilane (2016, January 16) that academic staff members were unsafe and unable to perform their work (see Vischer, 2007). Academics may come to the conclusion that HEIs are not "good workplaces" (see Guest, 2007). Poor work environments undermine the ability of academic staff members to produce quality work (see Schulze, 2008) and enhance their turnover intentions (Theron et al., 2014).

The participants highlighted concerns regarding the institutional strategy. It was evident from the responses that the higher education institution lacks a clear institutional strategy after the merger. The results are in line with the study of Arnolds, Stofile, and Lillah (2013) that pointed out the inability of higher education institutions to achieve the transformational and merger goals set by the South African government. In the absence of a clear strategic vision and direction, it is not surprising that the participants perceived a lack of diversity management initiatives to instil a unitary culture for the higher education institution.

Moreover, the participants were of the opinion that the backgrounds of staff members in the merged institution are so diverse that it would be difficult to reach equality. As indicated by previous researchers (Cross, 2004; Vermeulen, 2011), multiple diversities in a country affect the implementation of diversity management in higher education. Naidoo (2015) points out that higher educational management should make a decision on whether to view diversity as a threat or as a possibility.

The research described in this article makes important theoretical and practical contributions. From a theoretical point of view, the research contributed new knowledge on talent culture risks for academic staff at higher education institutions. From a practical perspective, the research highlights the important role of higher education management in mitigating TM risks for academic staff. Management and leaders are the custodians of an enabling talent culture. This requires of higher education management to develop a clear and visible strategy for higher education institutions that could drive the institutions' success through their talented academics.

The research also had some limitations. First, the study was limited to one selected higher education institution. The findings of this study can therefore not be generalised to other settings. Furthermore, the sample was limited to management only. Future research can benefit from expanding the sample to academic staff members, support staff and students to get a general view of the HC risks that affect the entire higher education institution.

In conclusion, this research emphasises the importance of detecting the talent culture risks for academic staff at South African higher education institutions. Quality academic staff is critical for the sustainability and competitiveness of any higher education institution. No higher education institution can afford to lose key and competent staff because of poor infrastructure, a lack of strategic direction or practices that promote inequality. Higher education managers are therefore encouraged to develop appropriate strategies to minimise academic staff exposure to institutional risks.

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CHAPTER 4: ARTICLE 3

EXPLORING THE OCCUPATIONAL RISKS ASSOCIATED WITH ACADEMIC STAFF MEMBERS

ABSTRACT

Orientation: Continuous changes at South African higher education institutions have resulted in a significant disruption of the traditional academic career. In an effort to adapt to the new modern "academic" career, academics are often silent workaholics without any clear role expectations, performance indicators and strategic direction. Consequently, the pursuit of a successful career path has become a significant obstacle for academics, which in turn increases their inclination to quit their jobs.

Research purpose: This research aimed to explore the occupational talent risks associated with academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution.

Motivation for the study: Ongoing career obstacles for academic staff have adverse implications for individual and institutional success and sustainability.

Research approach, design, and method: A qualitative research approach was followed with data collected from ten higher education managers at a selected South African higher education institution.

Main findings: The research revealed five main occupational talent risks for academic staff: Career development, Talent attraction, Compensation, Performance management and Talent retention strategies.

Practical/managerial implications: The findings of this research requires from higher education management to implement talent management risk strategies to mitigate the career obstacles experienced by academic staff.

Contribution/Value-add: This study is original and provides useful information on the type of occupational talent risks that South African higher education institutions have to address if they are to management their talent effectively.

Keywords: Talent attraction, Compensation, Career development, Performance management and Talent retention, Development of a talent risk tool.

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The important role of higher education in the development of any country cannot be underestimated. According to Pouris and Inglesi-Lotz (2014), universities contribute to social and economic development by creating HC, building knowledge through research, the dissemination of knowledge by interacting with the users of knowledge and the maintenance of knowledge. However, estimates shows that by 2020 there may be as much as a 13% scarcity of highly skilled and university-educated workers worldwide (Dewhurst, Hancock, & Ellsworth, 2013). In South Africa, the shortage of skills is apparent because of declining levels of quality education and the mobility of knowledge workers, which leads to immigration (Wöcke & Heymann, 2012).

The challenge arguably presented to institutions of higher learning is to attract and retain suitable academics that can meet the changing needs of modern academia. It is no secret that ongoing changes in the South African higher education system present significant career obstacles to academics, such as work overload due to the increase in student numbers, pressure to publish, and accommodating community work (Heleta, 2016; Motala, 2017, Rawat & Meena, 2014). Roodt (2013) found that the job demands of academic staff significantly exceeded the available resources. Numerous studies to date have shown that escalating job demands (i.e. work overload) without corresponding job resources (i.e. management support, collegial support) increase the likelihood of stress, burnout, physical and psychological ill health (Barkhuizen, Rothmann, & van de Vijver, 2014; Zábrodská et al., 2014). Academic staff tend to become silent workaholics who eventually collapse at work (Bodovski, 2018).

Against this background, there is a clear need to explore the occupational talent risks for academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution. Although a great deal of research has been devoted to understanding business risks in organisations, empirical inquiries into HC risks still remain a neglected practice, let alone TRM. Stefánsdóttir (2017) recognises the need to explore HR risk management research in knowledge-based organisations to mitigate the risks that could occur when knowledge assets and workers such as academics leave. To the best of the author's knowledge, no research currently exists on the occupational talent risks of academic staff. For the purposes of this research, the author defines occupational talent risks as any work-related risks that pose a significant threat to the career success of academics and their ability to perform optimally. In what follows, the researcher presents a brief overview of the possible occupational talent risks as derived from the available literature.

4.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

4.2.1 TALENT ATTRACTION

A qualified, capable workforce is critical for all professions, including universities. Most academics recognise that the superiority of their resources, services, and value margins is largely an outcome of the quality of their employees. As a result, they recognise the importance of recruiting skilled individuals and devoting tremendous time, effort, and financial resources to employing the right people (Staines, 2013). To contribute to this effort, many educational institutions develop their own human resource management style to focus on attracting, recruiting, and hiring top candidates (Jyotsna & Srivastava, 2008).

The art of being able to match the roles and responsibilities of an academic position at an institution of higher education with a potential candidate is a rather complicated task, especially considering the rapidly ever-changing priorities of the academic environment. For that reason, universities should apply talent acquisition strategies that focus on finding individuals that best fit the organisational culture rather than a particular position (Bhatangar, 2007; Pallavi & Jyotsna, 2008).

To attract qualified people to academia, it is important to make this career opportunity an exciting and feasible option, even at entry level (Jooste & Petzer, 2009). Kgosana (2010) states that universities are not attracting young Blacks to academia. The reason may be that when compared to other countries, South Africa has a lower than average entry-level salary for academic staff (Du Plessis, 2011).

Saurombe (2017) developed a talent value proposition that focuses on the development of a compelling organisational brand that will not only attract prospective talent to higher education institutions, but also assist current employees to identify with their institutions. In her study (Saurombe, 2017), she found that an higher educational brand should focus on factors such as reputation and image, organisational culture and identity, strategic vision, corporate social responsibility, and a work and surrounding environment that would attract and engage talented scholars. A study by Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen, and Schutte (2018a) showed that early career academics place particular emphasis on aspects such as career development and opportunities to make a contribution, employer branding and prestige, job security, flexible working hours (work–life balance), intellectual stimulation, innovation, opportunity to apply skills and autonomy in their choices to join higher education institutions as a preferred employer.

4.2.2 TALENT RETENTION

Employee retention is a process through which employees are encouraged to remain with the organisation for a maximum period of time (James & Mathew, 2012). It is viewed as a strategic opportunity for many organisations to maintain a competitive workforce. Retention is improved when employees are offered compensation and benefits, have a supportive work culture, can develop and advance and balance work and life activities (Ongori, 2007).

Research on voluntary turnover intentions paints a bleak picture as far as the retention of academic staff at South African higher education institutions is concerned. A study by Barkhuizen, Schutte, and Nagel (2017) found that almost half of the academics sampled from seven South African higher education institutions considered quitting their jobs. The results were further confirmed by Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen, and Schutte (2018b) in that 49% of the early career academics in their study considered quitting their jobs.

Theron, Barkhuizen, and Du Plessis (2014) developed a talent retention diagnostic tool to detect the trends and causes of academic staff turnover at South African higher education institution. In this study, it was evident that support from management as well satisfaction with compensation and benefits were key drives of the voluntary turnover intentions of academic staff members. Barkhuizen et al. (2017) found that the mediocre application of TM practices such as talent acquisition, talent deployment and talent development and poor compensation and executive support were the main contributors to academic staff turnover intentions at selected South African higher education institutions. In addition, Lesenyeho et al. (2018b) found that satisfaction with the institutional practices of a higher education institution (i.e. research funding opportunities, sound human resource management practices and institutional strategies) are vital for the retention of early career academics in merged South African HEIs.

The shortage of early career academics entering higher education position poses significant challenges for succession. A report by the Department of Higher Education and Training (2015) shows that more than 2 500 academic staff members will retire within the next three to five years from South African public HEIs. The report further highlights that at least 6 000 new academics are needed by 2020 to replace the staff who retire and to cater for the rapid increased in students (Nkoana & Dichaba, 2017). Badat (2010) affirms that most of the academics at South African universities who are deemed to be highly qualified, experienced and productive researchers and who are experts in their fields of work, are older workers above the age of 50.

This is a concern. After 1994, the retirement age for academic employees was reduced at most South African universities from 65 to 60. Action to retain knowledge in academe is needed if universities are to serve humanity in the wake of an ageing workforce (Lom 2012). MacGregor (2008) maintains that academics are knowledge assets who can leverage critical knowledge. According to Hira (2011), those who leave higher education take away the knowledge, skills and experience gained over their career life span. The loss of critical knowledge requires of organisations to constantly reinvent the wheel (Nelson & McCann, 2010).

4.2.3 COMPENSATION AND BENEFITS

Compensation and rewards continue to be burning issues for many academic staff members globally. Research studies found that adequate compensation is important for the organisational attraction (Saurombe, 2017), commitment (Lesenyeho, 2017), organisational satisfaction (Barkhuizen et al., 2017), job satisfaction (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018) and retention (Theron et al., 2014) of academic staff members. A report by Higher Education South Africa (2011) showed that early career academics earned comparably less than their counterparts in the profession did. These results have been confirmed by Lesenyeho (2017), who found that early career academics were of the opinion that their salary is not market related. Consequently, academic staff is more inclined to leave their jobs for better monetary rewards outside of higher education. In the same study, academics were concerned about the poor medical aid benefits offered by some higher education institutions (Lesenyeho, 2017).

Mabaso and Dlamini (2018) are of the opinion that the higher education sector needs novel reward systems to attract and retain employees. Tűrk (2008) found that a pay-for-performance system guarantees highly motivated staff. In Saurombe's (2017) study, higher education management believed that benefits for academic staff such as study leave for career development purposes and funding from the faculty for conference attendance are important to retain talented staff. Saltmarsh and Randell-Moon (2015) mention the increase in university work–life balance policies to assist academic workers with managing of the competing demands of work, family and community obligations more effectively. However, Saltmarsh and Randell-Moon (2015) also point out the risks associated with such practices when academic staff members start to use them for their own benefit. Theron et al. (2014) found that access to research funding plays an important role in the retention of academic staff.

4.2.4 CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Academic careers have been exposed to various changes over the past two decades, such as massification, a changing student population, an overabundance of national policies and structures, and new information and communication technologies. This leaves many academics unprepared for the new world of work (Bozalek & Boughey, 2014). In the pursuit of "high and contemporary" skills, academics have to negotiate new expectations and identities for the terms "academic staff development" or "professional" (Boughey & McKenna, 2011). Studies on rank progression in academia have become more focused on understanding the paths of early career academics from doctoral studies into junior ranks in academia and supporting their succeeding transition over time (Waaijer, 2015).

The major issue that is often overlooked in higher education is the fact that, when an academic is appointed to a management position, it is often assumed that management skills will simply emerge as the individual takes on such roles and responsibilities (Broger, 2011). However, many academics need some sort of semi-formal training to prepare them for their increasingly complex roles. Many academics have no formal teacher training, and they lack development opportunities in management or leadership prior to taking on academic management roles (Pilbeam 2009).

Research by Barkhuizen, Lesenyeho and Schutte (2018a) found that the career development of early career academics depends on the opportunity to apply acquired skills to the job, to have input on decisions that affect their careers, and role clarity. In the same study, early career academics displayed a high level of proactivity towards their career, showed career resilience, motivation and optimism and were open to changes that could advance their careers. According to Adekola (2012), organisations that focus on the development of employee skills will ensure that their talented employees will change jobs and careers within the organisation, rather than leaving and seeking employment elsewhere. Training and development opportunities are therefore beneficial to both employees and organisations.

4.2.5 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

Continuous changes in the nature and scope of the higher educational landscape forces institutions of higher learning to redefine its critical success factors and performance indicators. For a long time the organisational performance of higher education institutions was measured based on the achievement of teaching and research objectives (Silzerl, & Dowell, 2010). The large influx of a diverse student population, political imperatives such as decolonisation of curricula and ongoing digitalisation requires academic staff to develop more innovative and creative methods of knowledge sharing in classrooms (Council on Higher Education, 2016; Heleta, 2016; Motala, 2017).

In addition to heavy teaching loads, academics find themselves in a "publish or perish" mindset at tertiary institutions (Rawat & Meena, 2014). However, significant cuts in government budgets and as well as funding from the National Research Foundation are forcing academics to become "capitalists" and generate their own funding for research (Badat, 2010; Bozzoli, 2017; Harley, 2017). More recently, community engagement was also added as a core business of South African higher education institutions in addition to teaching and research (Nkoana & Dichaba, 2017). Nkoana and Dichaba (2017) state that university community engagement still lacks a conceptual and analytical framework, which may harm university-community relations.

Changes in the core business of higher education institutions call for a redesign of the traditional academic career. There are now challenging performance expectations and innovative targets (Campbell & Carayannis, 2016). The government paid little attention to past approaches to performance management in higher education in South Africa, resulting in a laissez-fair approach to academic performance evaluations. Performance evaluation was based on trust, independence of thought and scholarship, academic freedom and collegiality (McAleese, 2013). Consequently, the introduction and implementation of performance management systems in academic institutions and the perceived erosion of academic freedom often result in tension between academics and their managers (Maimela, 2015).

Shahzad, Mumtaz, Hayat & Khan, (2010), further explains that managerial support of research is related to the growing importance of university rankings. The measures of university performance are skewed towards research rather than measures such as teaching and learning. This imbalance in the criteria for career development and promotion has led to discontent among academic staff. Wilson (2012) also found that associate professors were the unhappiest people at universities because many of them spent too much time doing service work and not enough research and they feel that this had diminished their competitiveness and limited their career options.

4.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

4.3.1 RESEARCH APPROACH

A qualitative research approach was followed in this study. According to O'Neil (2009), qualitative research is focused on understanding the social and cultural contexts of an organisation as it forms the basis of various behavioural patterns and methods of data generation and analysis. Such inquiries are flexible and sensitive to the social context in which they are conducted. The research falls within the phenomenological research paradigm. Phenomenological research is a qualitative method that attempts to "understand participants' perspectives, experiences and views of social realities" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In phenomenological research, the views of a few participants on a specific phenomenon are collected in an effort to better understand these participants' perceptions and understanding of a particular phenomenon (situation) (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). This study was designed to examine and discuss the higher education occupational risks within the broader context of South African institutional transformations, especially in terms of having a knowledge-based organisation.

4.3.2 RESEARCH STRATEGY

This research followed a case study approach. Using case study research enables the researcher to thoroughly examine one or two cases or compare a limited set of cases, focusing on several factors (Maree, Cresswell, Ebersöhn, Eloff, Ferreira, Ivankova, Jansen, Nieuwenhuis, Pietersen, Plano Clark, & van der Westhuizen, 2009). Due to its flexibility, this form of research is often used to understand, to explain and to demonstrate the potential of a new technique, method, tool, process or organisational structure. Case studies can be exploratory or descriptive in nature. Its distinctive feature is its ability to deal with a wide range of data, including direct observation of the events being studied and interviews of the persons involved (Fourie, 2006).

4.5 RESEARCH METHOD

4.5.1 RESEARCH SETTING

The setting for this research was a selected merged South African higher education institution. The higher education institutions came into being as part of the South African government's plan to transform higher education and bring about new strategies to make higher learning institutions equal. The sample consisted of ten managerial staff members representative of the campuses of the institution.

4.6 SAMPLING

The sample for the qualitative study consisted of 10 managers from different levels of a selected South African higher education institution. In this sample 6 participants were males, while 4 were females. Out the 10 participants, 3 were from top management, 5 from middle management and 2, were from lower management level. An equal number of white and black managers participated in this study. The participants were primarily aged 50 years and older and had been employed for more than 20 years at the current institution. The demographic characteristics of the participants are displayed in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4-1: Demographic characteristics of the interview participants

	GENDER	RACE	QUALIFICATION	JOB LEVEL	AGE GROUP	Years at current institution
P1	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	30 years
P2	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	21 years
P3	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	6-10 years
P4	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P5	Male	African	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	16-20 years
P6	Female	African	Doctoral degree	Lower Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P7	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	50 years and above	6-10 years
P8	Male	White	Doctoral degree	Top Management	50 years and above	21 years and above
P9	Male	White	Doctoral degree	Middle Management	40-49 Years	6-10 years
P10	Female	White	Doctoral degree	Lower Management	50 years and above	11-15 years

The participants in this study were mostly male, had attained a doctoral degree and aged 50 years and older. An equal number of White and Black individuals participated in the study. The participants were predominantly employed at the middle management level and had been employed at the institution for more than 20 years.

4.7 ENTRÉE AND ESTABLISHING RESEARCH ROLES

Permission to execute the research was obtained from the relevant higher education authorities. The purpose of the research was explained to all the participants. The participation was voluntary and all participants signed an informed consent form. The research was subjected to ethics approval prior to commencement. Obtaining informed consent implies that the researcher communicates all possible or adequate information on the goal of the research; the expected duration of the participant's involvement; and the procedures that would be followed during the investigation (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill (2009:180).

4.7 DATA COLLECTION

The data for this study were collected using semi-structured interviews. According to Smythe, Ironside, Sims, Swenson and Spense (2008), semi-structured interviews do not follow a predetermined schedule. Semi-structured interviews are non-standardised and are frequently used in qualitative analysis. In this interview, the researcher did not focus on testing a specific hypothesis, but had a list of key themes, issues, and questions to cover. The order of the questions can also be changed depending on the direction of the interview. An interview guide is used, but additional questions can be asked to have a clear understanding of the study (Gray, 2010).

Semi-structured interviews leave the researcher with room to ask additional questions. Questions that the researcher may have not anticipated at the beginning of the interview could also be asked. The researcher took notes and audiotaped the interviews. During this process, it was vital to ensure that there is an easy retrieval of data for later detailed analysis.

4.8 DATA RECORDING AND STORING

The researcher made audio recordings and transcription to support the method of data collection. In addition, the researcher made manual notes (during the interview) based on all conversations and observations. These notes were typed and stored directly after each interview and discussion session.

4.9 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Data analysis always starts with the recognition of the variables, variables here referring to anything that changes or that have to be measured by the researcher. Data analysis is the interpretation of the information or data that had been collected during an investigation. As a first step, the data are revised and sorted into usable and unusable data. Usable data go towards answering a set of research questions that were asked at the beginning of the research (Wetcher-Hendrick, 2011). For this study, a thematic analysis was used to interpret the data. A thematic analysis looks at all the data to identify the common issues that recur to identify main themes that summarise the data. This is the most common method for descriptive qualitative projects (Hoyt & Bhati, 2007).

Thematic analysis is an introductory method for qualitative analysis. It is the first qualitative method of analysis of which researchers must have knowledge, as it provides the necessary skills that are useful for conducting a qualitative analysis. One of the main benefits of using thematic analysis is its flexibility (Holloway & Todres, 2003). Thematic analysis is the simplest method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within collected data. It organises and describes collected data in rich detail. It further interprets various aspects of the research topic (Tuckett, 2005).

4.10 ENSURING THE QUALITY AND RIGOUR OF THE RESEARCH

According to Hadi, Alldred, Closs and Briggs (2014), the demonstration of rigour in qualitative research is essential to ensure the integrity of the findings. Rigour is the means by which the researcher shows integrity and competence (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009). It is the openness of the study and the scrupulous adherence to the relevant philosophical perspective. According to (Burns & Grove, 2003) the researcher can use one of the following strategies to ensure rigour:

- Member checking: this involves giving participants feedback on the preliminary findings and interpretations.
- Searching for negative cases or alternative explanations: case analysis involves addressing and considering alternative methods of interpreting the data. This strategy enhances the validity of the research if the researcher is able to identify data that do not fit into the theory of the study.
- Peer review: colleagues are involved in the research procedure to re-analyse raw data.
- The descriptions: rich description of the research setting during the inquiry. The researcher uses narrative or themes to record the views of the participants.
- Reflectivity: this is the continuous process where the researcher reflects on the conceived values of participants.

4.11 FINDINGS

The data analyses resulted in five main themes that represented the occupational talent risks for academic staff: Career development (mentioned 18 times), Talent attraction (mentioned 15 times), Compensation (mentioned 12 times), Performance management (mentioned eight times) and Retention (mentioned five times). The themes and sub-themes are presented in Table 4.2 below.

Table 0-4: Themes that emerged from the analyses

Theme	Sub-theme	Frequency	
Career development	Career advancement opportunities	10	18
	Talent development	5	
	Availability of promotions	3	
Talent attraction	Geographical environment	6	15
	Personal development	5	
	Community engagement	4	
Compensation	Salary incentives	6	12
	Benefits	3	
	Merit bonus	3	
Performance management	Performance appraisal	5	8
	Performance bonus	3	
Talent retention	Retention strategies	5	5

Theme 1: Career development

The theme of career development emerged as the greatest occupational talent risk for academic staff. Three sub-themes were derived from the responses: Talent development, Career advancement opportunities and Availability of promotion opportunities. The themes are discussed in the section that follows.

Sub-theme: Talent development

Management indicated that training and development is an important part of every organisation's efforts to achieve success and reach organisational goals. They all agreed that there are plenty of opportunities for talent development within the institution. Some of the statements to support this are the following:

> *"Apart from conferences and apart from workshops, ADC (the Academic Development Centre) organises a lot of in-service training for academic staff so that they can perform their jobs well, you know. The new staff is subjected to training for one year so that they can get to know the*

university and also they provide training in teaching, for instance teaching large classes that are hard to control, so that kind of support that the university has made available. I wouldn't know how effectively these support systems are conducted but they are there so staff members are free to tap into that and make use of that" (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

Furthermore:

"What we normally do is we identify our star performers recognise them throughout the different schemes that I've mentioned, and also like "grow our own timber" campus development and groom them into academia and give them opportunities. Sometimes there are schemes whereby an academic can take off certain months or a certain semester to go and write your work, or go and do your research and with reduced teaching" (Participant 3, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

And:

"I think that's the retention strategies; opportunities for training, opportunities for attending workshops, opportunities to attend international conferences. So there are lots of training opportunities that are available and then obviously once again I think the career planning also promotes retention" (Participant 7, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Sub-theme: Career advancement opportunities

Some of the comments included the following:

"So many things come to mind. I believe what an academic receives in my perspective is that professional growth which I think in a sense has a link to the psychological aspect of what you're talking about in terms of talent management. I'd say professional development especially if you're an up and coming academic. So, opportunities to grow within your area of expertise are what talent would also benefit from" (Participant 6, Middle management, Professor, Female, African).

Furthermore:

> *"One wants to obtain a PhD here, but at the same time he wants to get a good salary and to try and make up for the 2 becomes a problem, so what we do as a university is really to ensure that if your heart is truly in academia, we give you that support, so that you achieve what you want, so that eventually, you also reach the top pinnacle of your career"* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Participant 3 further supported this by stating:

> *"We have a capacity building scheme which allows for somebody to be appointed to be at a junior level within academia but then they can take up postgraduate studies while the university pays for them. The other opportunities are to also be allocated mentors that you can work with to actually learn the ropes of an academic institution. Then also for those that are in research and want to be rated, then you workshops, training and also schemes whereby you can actually apply for rating and then you get guidance in terms of how you can do that"* (Participant 3, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

And lastly:

> *"I think it is absolutely essential because you know at a university there are two things – staff and students and both need equal attention. You can't have the one without the other, so I think that it's very important for the sake of managing your talent, and to do the career planning so that they're given the opportunities. You can't expect them to get their PhD's for example if you don't create and give them the resources to do that and also to manage your talent is to grow them, to assist them in their growth path and to assist them with their career planning. I think that we've been doing it well for the academics in our faculty"* (Participant 7, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Theme 2: Talent attraction

The participants in this study mostly mentioned that the academic staff is attracted to the institution by the opportunities it offers in terms of personal development. The majority of the participants highlighted that the institution attracts mostly older employees because they prefer the quieter and more rural environment and being involved in community building. The sub-themes that emerged from this part of the study are Personal development, Community engagement and Geographical environment.

Management was asked what they thought attracts academics to the institution. Some of the responses were the following:

> *"The older people tend to like this area more as it's quiet, it's a place to be, you know when you're not into the rush type of life and all that. So as I said, the only good thing that I'll mention is the support we have for staff development because we've got to grow our own timber, and that's what we have by the way, here we grow our own timber, because we have to, we realised that to produce and attract them from outside is difficult like now* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Furthermore:

> *"A lot of other black experts also come and I believe they tend to feel quite at home as well. I suppose we have quite good opportunities for research. I think also the fact that it's a more rural campus appeals to a lot of people who don't want to be it the big cities where they feel there is more crime, therefore they feel that this is a nicer place"* (Participant 4, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Participant 5 stated that:

> *"For me, what attracted me to this university was the research profile of the university, so for other people, I'm not sure. That is why I'm able to stay here for this number of years to see how I can add to the culture of research, do you understand me? So, for me what I feel the university provides for any employee is the enabling environment, a good*

environment, to do his or her research and thrive well" (Participant 5, Male, Middle management, PhD, and African).

Participant 6 stated that:

> *"I think what attracts talent at this university especially this campus is because it has got a history of real scholarship and what we have also managed to do over the years is to draw scholars from different countries and so on. That also says a lot about whom and what you are as an institution"* (Participant 6, Middle management, Professor, Female, African).

Lastly, an interesting comment came from Participant 2, who said:

> *"The brand of this university is "it all starts here" and whether that attracts staff, I don't know. Because one could ask, what is starting here? Is it crime starting here, or racism starting here, or what? So maybe the phrase "it all starts here" is attractive to students, those who come to study. That is my response to branding. I don't believe we have a specific brand as such, however we are constantly doing our part to ensure that we provide effective and efficient services to our clients, the stakeholders, and ensuring that our staff are comfortable with that kind of agenda"* (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

Sub-theme: Personal development

The participants expressed the view that personal development is one of the main things employees look for when looking for a job, especially academics who are looking for development in their careers, both with teaching and learning and research.

Some of the quotes from the participants included the following:

> *"I'll tell you, the opportunities that are there for staff development is something that most academics and young people don't consider as an add-on in terms of your package. In an academic world, it is very important for networking and also for you to learn from others and others to learn from you, so as to make your impact or your mark in your field of study both nationally and internationally it is important. So that's*

basically the way we do it" (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

In addition:

*"Monitoring, supervision, assessment, you know, periodic assessment and personal development plans. Staff will tell you their personal development plans and at the beginning of every year, they are supposed to submit them so that we know in what areas you need assistance to grow as an academic and not only for academic staff but even for support staff. We also review their PDP's, that is, personal development plans" (*Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

"This is one of the top research universities in the country and then it is relative and then also we provide the necessary space for academics to grow and improve themselves" (Participant 3, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

"There are lots of, there is what we call a staff development plan or policy. There is also what we call capacity development policy. It's there in the university, so the university has those policies that assist staff members to develop. Staff members that have Master's degrees but don't have PhD's can go on capacity development and I also support them from my office to have funds to go to other places to do their research. The skills development fund also assists as well. So there's the skills development fund, there's the capacity development fund and there's the staff development fund" (Participant 5, Male, Middle management, PhD, and African).

Participant 3 stated that:

This is further supported by Participant 5, who stated the following:

Sub-theme: Community engagement

Community engagement is one of the core business goals because it generates third-stream income through short courses, consultation and technology transfer. Management highlighted that the campus prides itself on having developed many projects that engage locals and make a difference in their lives.

Some of the quotes from the participants include the following:

"There is also something called the implementation of expertise, you know going out to the community to render services to them. Those are the type of things we expect our high performing academics to display or demonstrate in their work because our merit bonus, well the performance and merit bonus are awarded on the grounds of these three components, that is teaching, research and community service or community engagement" (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

Participant 6 stated that:

"Community's perceptions are also heightened by the fact that they look at what is happening and they say oh it means so this one is inferior and this one is better. So already there are actions that are giving ground to things that we're trying to do away with. If we're a rural community like this one, most of the time people will be asking what is this institution doing for us as communities, how are they contributing towards community development and when they look at what they see, they don't see anything" (Participant 6, Middle management, Professor, Female, African).

Sub-theme: Geographical environment

The participants mostly spoke about the type of environment one of the campuses has and how this environment attracts employees. Some of the quotes from the participants include:

"This is a very rural place and rural places are very difficult to attract young people. If you're towards retirement, your kids are no more at school and all that, it's not a problem and I've seen really, the attraction towards such staff is much more than the young ones. The older people tend to like it here more as it's quiet, umm, it's a place to be, you know when you're not into the rush type of life and all that" (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

And:

"It depends on who you are. For me, what attracted me to this university was the research profile of the university, so for other people, I'm not sure. That is why I'm able to stay here for this number of years to see how I can add to the culture of research, do you understand me? So, for me what I feel the university provides for any employee is the enabling environment, a good environment, to do his or her research and thrive well". (Participant 5, Male, Middle management, PhD, and African).

One of the participants from a different campus mentioned that:

"In my opinion, we are an internationally recognised university that is largely renowned especially for our research, so that is what I believe is our brand as an Institution. We have facilities such as shopping centres, medical facilities and so forth close by and within the reach of academics. Another thing is the relaxed atmosphere of our campus, free from racial tensions, students black, white and coloured mingling together in such a natural way" (Participant 8, Male, Top management, Professor, White).

An interesting response came from Participant 10:

"My husband came here so it wasn't out of choice. I had to come and now I can't leave. I don't know what will attract the person to this campus other than a stepping stone to go to another university. So I don't know" (Participant 10, Lower level management, PhD, Female, White).

Theme 3: Compensation

Compensation was the theme that occurred third most. Below are some excerpts for the themes and sub-themes.

Sub-theme: Salary incentives

Participants had many concerns over the salaries of academics. They highlighted that the salaries as compared to the scales of other universities are one of the factors that makes academics leave. Some of the responses included the following:

"The biggest risks that most universities poach our employees because they offer them a better salary. They offer them salaries that we just cannot match. Some academics get frustrated with administrative issues when it comes to purchasing things or getting things. Salaries are a major risk because, for example, the government offer better salaries that we cannot match. So it is very difficult for us to retain people" (Participant 9, Male, Middle management, PhD, White).

Participant 1 stated that:

"I would like to say there is a salary in exchange for that. That is our first agreement, to ensure that we provide a good package, but as we all know, whatever salary you can give, is just sufficient to keep you happy for a month and the next month you're already due for a salary increase, so real money is not a thing as such, but at least we want to remain compatible with the industry" (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

And:

"We actually struggle to get staff because often the salaries are not particularly competitive. I believe it is, however, attractive to local people, so people who speak the language, for example, feel at home and comfortable so they will come here" (Participant 4, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Sub-theme: Benefits and merit bonuses

Some of the responses include the following:

"I know many young people consider a package in terms of the zeroes after the first digit and they look at it as something they look forward to, but there is much more to what we give in terms of the benefits, for instance, the benefit to study and of course now as an academic, the support that you get" (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Furthermore:

"We assume that as the employer you should be able to assure your staff that everything will be provided for them because if you don't assure them they won't come here. So the management recognises that and that is why they make an attempt to review their benefits and merit incentives every year and make an attempt you accommodate them when they first assume their duties" (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

And also:

"There are quite a lot of schemes. Some of them, we call them performance bonus and merit awards, and scholarships for people to pursue their further studies. Then also trips overseas to present your papers at conferences and also study trips whereby you can go and spend time with a researcher at another institution for a short period of time, just to see how they do things at their institution" (Participant 3, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

And lastly:

"I think there are normal university perks like leave days for example and the fact that with the benefit the academics can study can study at a reduced or free rate" (Participant 7, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Theme 4: Performance management

Sub-theme: Performance appraisal

Management indicated that it is important that academics should be given recognition for good performance. Below follows some of the statements.

"If you're talking about high performing staff, I must tell you we one very unique university that has got a performance management system that we enter into a performance contract with staff and this performance contract would lead you towards promotion" (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Furthermore:

> *"Effective teaching, to interact with students and convey to them the knowledge that is available is his or her field of specialisation. There is also something called the implementation of expertise, you know going out to the community to render services to them. Those are the type of things we expect our high performing academics to display or demonstrate in their work"* (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

And:

> *"High performing academic staff members want to be recognised, they want recognition and if you don't recognise them, they feel worried. They want to be recompensed for their performance and if they are not properly recompensed for their performance, they look for other places where they'd be appreciated"* (Participant 4, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Sub-theme: Performance bonuses

Management stated that performance bonuses are definitely a way of rewarding academics for good work. These are some of their statements:

> *"So the top performer bonus scheme does contribute towards motivating staff. As I said, while we may be tempted to underplay the importance of a monetary reward, but it is important and it is motivating and it keeps people encouraged to keep working harder so we do have that as a scheme that goes along with your motivational incentives, and it is important also to look at that"* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

And

> *"We reward success by giving merit bonuses and if you are a high flier, we have something called a performance bonus which is higher than a merit bonus. A performance bonus is for those that have really excelled, not just working at a minimum level in terms of research, teaching and*

even attracting crowds into the university, those are the types of rewards systems we have" (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

And:

> *"We also encourage high performing staff members by also giving them from my office here, monies to attend conferences, more conferences, so that they could continue to publish more of what they are doing. Also at the end of the year, there's also what we call top performer's bonus, so we give bonuses to top performers"* (Participant 4, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Lastly:

> *"We do have performance incentives as well, so people can also say okay, if I do well I will qualify for something tangible, although money is not the only incentive but, I mean if people get a top performer's bonus, or if they even just get recognition, not always money, just recognition, appreciation"* (Participant 7, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Theme 5: Talent retention

The results indicate that management is always looking for ways to retain their talented academics. They did, however, mention that there is only so much they can control. External factors such as political, economic, social and technological factors are outside of their control.

Some of the responses regarding talent retention were the following:

> *"The issue of retention is a very difficult one and that question for me is like asking how good I am as a father, you know. We are very effective in terms of retaining our staff members, we are doing the best for them, and we're doing well. Especially during the long service award, you can ask those that have served long and ask them, what kept you here, you know. We are conscious of staff retention and hence I do look at, we call them exit interviews for staff leaving the university"* (Participant 1, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Furthermore, Participant 2 stated that:

> *"I don't think this institution is effective in retaining staff as such because the turnover rate is very high. Turnover rates of the staff are very high in this university for some reasons that I don't understand. People sometimes stay here for 3 months, 6 months, then they are gone and those people ought to be interviewed. Sometimes when they go, they go for better pay and better environment and we've lost a lot of our staff to Unisa, for example. So I don't think we (top management) are doing a lot, to retain staff. Perhaps we are trying, but not much. I don't know whether we as a university are doing enough to retain our academic staff because if the staff turnover rate is high, it tells you that there is something wrong somewhere. Either with the university, or with the environment, or even with the students, you know, a lot of things, or with the outer community"* (Participant 2, Male, Middle management, Professor, African).

Additionally:

> *"For me, the retention strategy is about the level of incentives that are there for researchers and also for those who are excelling in terms of teaching and learning and also community engagement, but also there are strategies that are in place such as a transparent promotion system"* (Participant 3, Male, Top management, Professor, African).

Participant 4 stated that:

> *"So a lot of people, the moment a job comes up somewhere else they'll go, even if the money isn't more. So it's often not even about the money, although I think it would probably be good if we could pay more to try and keep these academics. There are a lot of very talented people who have left and they haven't really felt appreciated until too late"* (Participant 4, Female, Middle management, Professor, White).

Participant 5 stated that:

> *"I think we could do better in terms of retaining our academic staff. Salary wise, it is a concern for most of our academics, that's why they tend to*

leave our institution. I know at some point, was it 2 or 3 years back we had a high turnover rate of academics that were leaving the institution simply because of the very issues that I've just mentioned" (Participant 5, Male, Middle management, PhD, and African).

4.12 DISCUSSION

The main objective of this research was to explore the potential occupational talent risks for academics from a management point of view. Five themes emerged that could be regarded as potential occupational talent risks: Career development, Talent attraction, Compensation, Performance management and Talent retention. A brief discussion of the findings is presented below.

During the interviews, risks related to the theme of career development were mentioned most. The responses indicated that management places a high premium on the development of talented staff and want to create opportunities for career development. The participants indicated several mechanism that can be used at higher education institutions to advance the careers of academic staff, such as professional development through on the job training (Pilbeam 2009; Waaijer, 2015), study leave to acquire qualifications such as PhDs (see Lesenyeho, 2017), and funding for conferences and networking (Saurombe, 2017). The training and development of talent have benefits for both individuals and the organisations as staff can mobilise their acquired skills within the workplace (Adekola, 2012; Barkhuizen et al, 2018).

The participants also mentioned the potential of career development benefits as a mechanism to attract and retain academic staff. These observations have to be interpreted with caution, as it was evident that especially younger generation academics first look at base salary and benefits (see Lesenyeho, 2017). One participant recognised this trend among early career scholars. Not surprisingly, compensation of academic staff emerged as a pressing concern and risk for all of the participants. The participants were of the opinion that non-market-related salaries limit higher education institutions when it comes to attracting and retaining top academic talent (Theron et al., 2014). In line with Mabaso (2017), the participants highlighted the need for more creative rewards and benefits for academic staff as opposed to merely giving performance bonuses.

The ability of higher education institutions to attract top scholars emerged as a predominant risk factor in this study. In line with Saurombe (2017), the participants were of the opinion that the brand of the university plays an important role in the attraction of talented academics. More specifically, the participants highlighted that the reputation of the higher education institutions as a producer of excellent research and scholarship is an important factor for top academics when they consider their employer of choice. Other participants also highlighted that opportunities for personal development (Lesenyeho, 2017) and opportunities to participate in community activities are important considerations for academics to seek employment at a specific higher education institution (Nkoana & Dichaba, 2017). Some of the participants have reservations about whether campuses in rural areas will be able to attract scholars.

A positive finding that emerged from this study is that management placed emphasis on both teaching excellence and research as key performance indicators, instead of favouring research (Altback, 2015). The participants were of the opinion that academics should demonstrate the teaching expertise required to create the envisaged learning environment at higher education institutions (Council on Higher Education, 2016; Heleta, 2016; Motala, 2017). The participants also mentioned the existence of a performance management system and its usability at the specific higher education institution. In support of Tűrk (2008), the participants of this study believed in the practice of pay for performance as an incentive for academic staff.

The final theme to emerge relates to the retention of academic staff. As with previous research, the participants were greatly concerned about the high turnover rate that institutions experience (see Barkhuizen et al. 2017; Leseyenho et al., 2018). The participants also highlighted the factors that contribute to the high turnover of academics, of which poor compensation was paramount (Theron et al. 2014). The participants highlighted the need for an in-depth investigation to effectively track the turnover intention of academic staff and implement precautionary measures.

4.13 MANAGEMENT IMPLICATIONS

This research highlights five occupational talent factors that can become a potential risk if not addressed effectively at higher education institutions. The five factors include career development, talent attraction, compensation, performance management and talent retention strategies. Although great emphasis was placed on the career development opportunities for academic staff, management also have to take into consideration that career development needs are generation-specific and may not always cater for the needs of all academic staff. Compensation has been a long-standing burning issue in higher education. Management should take cognisance of economic factors when attending to annual salary increases. Management might also consider additional benefits to attract and retain academics at rural campuses, such as housing allowances and vehicle allowances. Management can also benefit from having regular retention conversations with staff to mitigate the risk of losing key and competent staff. With regard to talent attraction, higher education in general has to come up with innovative ways to market its brand to the prospective talented employees.

4.14 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As with any research, this study also had some limitations. First, the considerable lack of occupational talent risk research limited the researcher in terms of interpreting the results. Second, the sample for this study only focused on a managerial point of view and was limited to one higher education institution. The findings can therefore not be generalised to other contexts. Future researchers should include academic staff to compare the perceptions of management and academics. Future research can also benefit from expanding the research to other higher education institutions in South Africa to get a holistic view of occupational talent risks with respect to academic staff. It is also recommended that other sample groups, such as human resource practitioners, be included to examine their role and current level of knowledge on occupational talent risk management. Finally, future research can focus on executing an in-depth study to build a theory for occupational TRM.

4.15 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this research expanded the field of TM by focusing on a burning issue at many higher education institutions, namely occupational TRM of academic staff. The findings of this study are promising and allows for the further expansion of occupational talent risk research in multiple contexts. The findings of this research could contribute to an awareness among higher education management and human resource practitioners of the occupational TM risks and possible proactive measures.

Attracting and retaining key employees is always a challenge, but it has become more difficult due to the competition for skilled employees. The employees feel that effective HR practices have a direct and positive relationship with employee retention. The employees hold the opinion that compensation and rewards contribute to an employee's level of satisfaction and would help the institution retain them. Management should consider the fact that a university is not a profit-seeking institution and its goal is not profit maximisation. Basically, the business of universities is ideas: the creation of ideas through research and the dissemination of ideas through education and application.

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CHAPTER 5: ARTICLE 4

EXPLORING INSTITUTIONAL TALENT CULTURE RISKS ASSOCIATED WITH ACADEMIC STAFF: A MANAGEMENT PERSPECTIVE

ABSTRACT

Orientation: The talent risk management of academic staff at South African public universities is becoming essential as these institutions are struggling to attract and retain top talent.

Research purpose: The main objective of this research was to develop a talent risk management tool to assess the talent culture and occupational talent risks of academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution.

Motivation for the study: This research investigated an important area of talent management and presented a useful measuring instrument that can used to assess talent risks in the workplace. Higher educational management should therefore take note of the talent management risks and implement preventative measures that can reduce the consequences of organisational risks on talented individuals

Research approach, design, and method: A quantitative research approach was followed with a talent risk management tool distributed to a convenience sample of academics (N=220) employed at a selected South African higher education institution.

Main findings: Exploratory factor analyses resulted in five factors for the talent culture risk measure: Strategic direction, Management support, Work environment, Physical infrastructure and Diversity practices. Exploratory factor analyses resulted in five factors for the occupational talent risks measure: Career development, Talent attraction, Compensation, Performance management and Talent retention. Acceptable reliabilities were obtained for all the factors of the two measures.

Practical/managerial implications: The results of this research encourage management to implement talent risk management policies and practices complemented by risk assessments to mitigate talent risks of academic staff.

Contribution/Value-add: A new empirically validated talent risk management tool is presented that higher education management can use to detect talent culture risks and occupational talent risks for academic staff in advance.

Keywords: academic staff; diversity; management support; physical infrastructure; talent risk management

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The TM of academic staff is getting increasing research attention as institutions of higher learning realise that the value of their core business lies in their intangible assets: talent. Several research studies have shown that effective TM practices can result in positive individual outcomes for higher education, such as job satisfaction (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018), organisational commitment (Lesenyeho, 2017), well-being (Thunissen, 2015) and work engagement (Mogwere, 2015. For higher education itself, TM can enhance the quality of service delivery (Smit, 2015), organisational performance and reduce academic staff turnovers (Njanjobea, 2016). Higher education management are therefore challenged to implement effective TM policies and practices to manage the career of talented academics from start to finish (Saurombe, Barkhuizen, & Schutte, 2017a).

Unfortunately, the rapidly changing nature of higher education institutions is a challenge for the roll-out of TM strategies. Continuous transformation initiatives resulted in a modern academic career where academics have to adapt to the new core business of higher education without the necessary resources of financial support (Council on Higher Education, 2016; Harley, 2017). Pienaar and Bester (2016) present a comprehensive list of challenges academic staff experience as a result of change: inadequate remuneration, role overload, ineffective performance management, a lack of training and development, a lack of support for individual career management, discriminatory practices, ineffective general management, limited support for research outputs, a lack of encouragement for entrepreneurship, poor equipment and working conditions, a lack of job security and a lack of networking opportunities. Considering the above factors, higher education institutions may not appear to be attractive employers and are risk of either not being able to recruit high potential individuals or not retaining their current high performing individuals.

Against this background, this research aimed to develop a TRM tool to assist higher education institutions to detect the talent culture risks and occupational talent risks in advance to mitigate the turnover intentions of academic staff. This research is built on previous research by Mokgojwa (2018a), who identified the talent culture risk of higher education as consisting of strategic direction, management support, work environment, physical infrastructure and diversity practices. Mokgojwa (2018b) further identified occupational relent risks for academics, such career development, talent attraction, compensation, performance management and talent retention. In what follows next, a brief overview of talent culture risks and occupational talent risks as they relate to the academic context.

5.2 TALENT CULTURE RISKS

5.2.1 STRATEGIC DIRECTION

Although TM strategies and practices are utilised at many organisations, higher education institutions appear to lag behind (Farooq, Othman, Nordin, & Ibrahim (2016). Bradley (2016) in particular criticises higher education for a lack of alignment between institutional strategies and the recruitment, development, retention and rewarding of academic talent. A study by Erasmus, Naidoo, and Joubert (2017) in a large open and distance South African higher education institution showed that management were of the opinion that academic TM is not always supported by policies and strategies. Other challenges related to the TM practice in this study included a lack of integrated and supported human resource management policies, a lack of a clearly defined methodology and approach for the implementation of talent, and the narrow-mindedness of line management.

A recent study by Kissoonduth (2017) also criticises higher education leaders for not addressing a very real HC crisis at institutions of higher learning. According to Kissoonduth, higher education institutions are facing the challenge of acquiring young black academics while losing seasoned white academic staff who are retiring and taking with them value intellectual capital. Consequently, South African higher education will remain hindered in attracting, managing and retaining a new breed of academics who can assist with the development of a new democratic society (Njanjobea, 2016).

5.2.2 MANAGEMENT SUPPORT

According to Brunila (2013), the advent of the knowledge economy, new generations entering the workforce, and the need for businesses to become strategic and competitive, require new ways of managing HC. A study by Oehley (2007) shows that managers can only manage talent effectively if they adopt the appropriate talent mind-set coupled with competencies such as the ability to attract and recruit talent, building and maintaining healthy relationships, providing meaningful and challenging work, remunerating and rewarding fairly and managing work-life balance. Theron, Barkhuizen, and Du Plessis (2014) found that management support for academics is a key driver for talent retention. Barkhuizen, Schutte, and Nagel, (2017) found that poor executive commitment to TM reduces the organisational satisfaction of academic staff and increases their turnover intentions. Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen, and Schutte (2018a) found that management support for early career academics was significantly related to their organisational commitment and intention to quit their jobs.

5.2.3 WORK ENVIRONMENT

Research on the work conditions of academic staff in developing countries is increasing. Studies found that a favourable work environment can enhance the job satisfaction (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015), well-being (Zábrodská, Mudrák, Květoň, Blatný, & Machovcová, 2014), motivation (Victor & Babtunde, 2014) and performance of academic staff (Agba & Ocheni, 2017). Some researchers confirm the flip side of this coin, namely that unfavourable working conditions lead to academic staff leaving universities in Africa at the earliest opportunity (Bigirimana, Sibanda, & Masengu, 2016). Markey, Ravenswood and Webber (2013) assert that a quality work environment can influence a manager's ability to shape their employees' quitting intentions.

The recent #FeesMustFall campaign in South Africa and the accompanying violence and endangerment of academic staff at higher education institutions require from higher education management to reinforce occupational health and safety policies and equip staff with safety skills for the workplace (Jonathan & Mbogo, 2016; Postma, 2016). Raziq and Maulabakhsh (2015) assert that institutions should help staff cope with the ever-changing and evolving work environment to achieve success and competitiveness. Kasula (2015) adds that university management should prioritise the development of a favourable work environment to facilitate effective and efficient institutions. Mugumya (2013) recommends that academic staff should be involved in the design of workplace outcomes to create a conducive work environment at public universities.

One may then ask the question, where was the trade unions during this period? **Occupational Health and Safety Act (OHSA)** (Act 85) of 1993 in general places some responsibility on employers to take reasonable care for the safety and health of employees. Apart from that, where there is a negotiated agreement between employers and trade unions concerning special provisions of health and safety, it supplements the OHSA Act. Further, such agreements require employers allow trade union office bearers to form part of investigations in to industrial accidents and occupational hazards. In South African Universities, there is not much representation of Unions in fact most Universities do not have a union which is specifically made for academics.

5.2.4 PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Higher education institutions are meant to serve students and communities with their physical assets and facilities (Musa & Baharum, 2012). According to Marmolejo (2007), the management of higher education facilities is becoming increasingly complex as higher education is becoming a more dynamic, global enterprise. Marmolejo (2007) further explains that insufficient facilities are considered one of the main threats to the success of higher education. In South Africa, a lack of government funding is currently limiting infrastructure development at higher education institutions (Cloete, 2016). As a result, academics are unable to deliver the required quality of service to students because of overcrowded classrooms and inadequate technology and infrastructure. A study by Salau (2017) shows that inadequate and decaying infrastructure; sharing poorly ventilated, poorly furnished and dilapidated offices; overcrowded classrooms; inadequate access to laboratories and workshops; and inadequate equipment and electricity supply contribute to the turnover in intentions of academic staff at a rural African university.

5.2.5 DIVERSITY PRACTICES

Since the abolishment of apartheid in 1994, much attention has been devoted to creating equal opportunities for all South African citizens through the introduction of the Constitution (South Africa, 1996) and the Employment Equity Act (55 of 1998) (South Africa, 1998). Despite these initiatives, discriminatory practices are slow to be eradicated. A report by the South African Human Rights Commission (2016) revealed that discriminatory practices remain prevalent at public universities in South Africa on the grounds of race, gender, disability and socio-economic class. This report further indicates that transformation is slow because of the persisting disparities between racial groups due to the apartheid past. Mafumo and Divala (2014) argue that the South African higher education system does not create an equal, fair and non-racist environment. Policy makers should embark on a deliberate form of democratic engagement that goes beyond mere inclusion and equality.

According to Mhlanga (2013), a large proportion of suitably qualified and experienced female academics still experience gender inequality. Zulu (2016) further alludes to the fact that women are still largely under-represented in leadership positions at higher education institutions. A study by Lyons, Barkhuizen and Du Plessis (2013) showed significant differences in the factors that constrain the career advancement of male and female academics in a male dominated higher education environment. Female academics ranked lack of equity in promotion, the "old-boy-network," and lack of equity in pay as the main constraining factors in their career advancement. Male academics in contrast viewed family responsibilities, inadequate job knowledge and lack of mentoring as the main constraining factors for female career advancement.

5.3 OCCUPATIONAL TALENT RISKS

5.3.1 CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Changes in higher education require academic staff to constantly reinvent themselves to remain attractive hires. A new trend is the concept of dispositional employability where academics take responsibility for managing their own careers by being proactive, optimistic, motivated, resilient and open to change (Barkhuizen, Schutte & Lesenyeho, 2018; Roodt, 2013). Talent research among academics also show that the availability of career development opportunities enhance organisational commitment (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018), job satisfaction (Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis., 2014), organisational satisfaction (Barkhuizen, Schutte & Nagel, 2017) and reduces physical and psychological ill health (Vorster & Barkhuizen, 2018) and turnover intentions (Barkhuizen et al., 2018; Saurombe, 2015; Theron et al., 2014).

Research highlights the importance of role clarity for academic career development (Barkhuizen et al. 2018; Callaghan, 2015). Callaghan (2015) found that role conflicts contributed to crises in academic careers that have to be resolved before career progression to doctoral and professional designations can occur. Cameron and Woods (2016) allude to the importance of equipping academic development practitioners with the necessary skills required to develop the professional career of academics. Farooq et al. (2016) further maintain that higher education management have greater understanding of TM to develop and retain academic staff.

5.3.2 TALENT ATTRACTION

Talent attraction can be referred to as an umbrella term for all the activities organisations engage in to market themselves to potential employees (Graham-Leviss, 2011). Limited research currently exists to explain the factors that can attract novice and top scholars to higher education. The available research shows that the attraction of quality academic staff to state universities remains a challenge (Yousaf, 2010). Onah and Anikwe (2016) found that the brain drain, a gender gap, unattractive salary packages and a lack of adequate training are factors hampering academic talent attraction. A comprehensive study by Metcalf, Rolfe, Stevens and Weale (2005) shows that in many cases academic vacancies remain unfilled because of a rapid decline in quality applicants. Of great concern in this study was that just over a half of the academics who participated were still keen to have an academic career.

Studies focusing on the talent attraction of academic staff highlight several factors that higher education should consider when attracting top scholars. Saurombe, Barkhuizen and Schutte (2017b) found that factors such as reputation and image, organisational culture and identity, strategic vision, corporate social responsibility and the work and surrounding environment are the key ingredients for a higher educational brand for academic staff. Saurombe, Barkhuizen and Schutte (2017c) further found that fringe benefits or incentives and remuneration, leadership and managerial support and occupational health and safety are the most important factors affecting the employment brand of a higher education institution.

5.3.3 COMPENSATION

When referring to recognition, rewards and compensation, many studies show that these factors have negative implications for turnover, attraction and retention (Lesenyeho, Barkhuizen & Schutte, 2018b; Saurombe et al. 2017a; Yousaf, 2010). Furthermore, numerous research studies have found that employee commitment can be promoted by highly competitive wage systems and thus result in the attraction and retention of a superior labour force (Tettey, 2010). In the same vein, a study by Mabaso and Dlamini (2018) showed that a total rewards strategy (consisting of compensation, performance management, recognition, talent development and career opportunities, compensation, benefits and work-life balance) significantly enhanced the organisational commitment of academic staff members at selected South African higher education institutions. Compensation should therefore be of strategic importance for any higher education institution if they want to attract and retain talented academics.

According to Bryant and Allen (2013), the costs of employee turnover often exceeds 100% of the annual salary of the vacant position. These authors advocate that managers should consider innovative compensation and benefits to reduce turnover. Poor compensation is often the main reason why academics quit their jobs (Theron et al., 2014). Available research in the South African context shows that academic salaries are not comparable to those of their counterparts in the industry (Lesenyeho, 2017). Current trends show that higher education institutions are struggling to attract younger generation employees to replace a soon retiring workforce (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015). Therefore, financial rewards and inducements are necessary to attract talent in environment where there is a shortage of HC skills (Schlecther, Hung & Bussin, 2014).

5.3.4 PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

The importance of an effective performance management system is imperative for teaching and researching the performance of academic staff (Tourish, 2012). Ghosh and Das (2013) define performance management in the context of higher education as the integration of performance appraisal systems, with broader human resource systems on an ongoing and interactive basis to ensure alignment between academic work behaviour, capability, productivity and institutional goals. According to Tűrk (2016), a detailed performance management system enables academic staff members to achieve better results during times of restructuring and change at universities. Maimela and Samuel (2016) found that a sample of South African academic staff was satisfied with the implementation of a performance management system by management, but they were less satisfied by the payment of performance bonuses.

A study by Graham (2015) highlights the difficulties that higher education management experience in terms of managing academic staff performance effectively. This study showed that academic workload and performance management are not aligned at an operational level, which undermines the effectiveness of performance evaluation. In the study by Seyama and Smith (2015), higher education management were of the opinion that the performance management system is a business-orientated practice and not in line with the nature and objectives of higher education institutions. In this study, management further pointed out that performance reward strategies are insufficient for motivating performance behaviour because of inconsistent ratings and poor monetary rewards.

5.3.5 RETENTION STRATEGIES

Talent retention can be defined as efforts to keep talented employees working for their organisation with particular TM practices such as employee engagement, empowerment, career development opportunities, competitive compensation and rewards, just to name a few (Cegarra-Leiva, Sánchez-Vidal, & Cegarra-Navarro, 2012). Talent retention grants organisations the chance to sustain growth and avoid unnecessary expenses for talent attrition (Lahkar Das 2013).

South African higher education institutions are currently experiencing unprecedented levels of academic turnover intentions. Research studies show that almost half of the academics across all spheres of their academic career consider quitting their jobs (Barkhuizen et al, 2017; Lesenyeho, 2017). Although the causes of academic staff turnover has been stable for many decades, the application of talent retention strategies still remains the poorest applied TM practice in government institutions such as higher education institutions (see Barkhuizen, 2015). Researchers further found that academic TM is not a strategic or operational priority at many institutions of high learning, and effective TM policies and practices are yet to be understood and be implemented (Erasmus et al., 2017). Bhattacharyya (2015) advocates that successful organisations are those that develop tailor-made talent retention strategies and these strategies should be applied from the first moment that talent is acquired to guide future career aspirations (Maimela, 2015).

5.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

5.4.1 RESEARCH APPROACH

A quantitative research approach was followed with surveys distributed to academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution. This design was appropriate for reaching the research objective of the study, namely to develop and validate a TRM diagnostic tool. A cross-sectional research design was followed where the data were collected at one point in time (Field, 2018).

5.5 SAMPLE

The target population for this study was academic staff at a selected South African higher education institution. A total of 320 questionnaires was distributed, of which 220 were returned and used for analysis. This represented a 68, 8% response rate. Most of the respondents in the sample were male (56, 8%), aged between 30 and 49 years (51, 1%), and black. Most of the participants were in possession of a master's degree (42, 9%), employed at a lecturer level (40, 9%), had between 1 and 10 years of work experience in higher education and had been employed in their current position for between 0 to four years (34, 5%).

5.6 RESEARCH PROCEDURE

Permission to execute the study was obtained from the relevant higher education institution's authorities. The questionnaire was distributed to the respondents in both hard copy and electronically. The study was subjected to ethics clearance prior to its execution. Confidentiality was maintained at all times.

5.7 MEASURING INSTRUMENT

A talent management risk questionnaire was developed based on themes that were identified during initial interviews with management from the higher education institution. The questionnaire consisted of two parts: a talent culture risk measure and an occupational talent risk measure. The talent culture risk measure consisted of 30 items and measured five talent risk factors: Institutional strategy, Management support, Physical infrastructure, Diversity practices and Work environment. The occupational talent risk measure consisted of 32 items and measured five factors: Talent attraction, Compensation, Career development, Performance management and Talent retention. The responses for both questionnaires were arranged according to a six-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly disagree (1) to Strongly agree (6). The questionnaire was distributed to subject matter experts prior to its distribution to ensure face and content validity. It was verified with subject matter experts to test for the accuracy of items and to ensure the face validity before distribution.

5.8 DATA ANALYSES

Data analyses were carried out with the aid of SPSS software (SPSS, 2018). Descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis were used. Exploratory factor analysis was applied to determine the factor structure of the questionnaire. Cronbach alphas were used to determine the reliability of the measuring instrument and its items. A cut-off point of 0.7 was used as a guideline for acceptable reliabilities (Field, 2018).

5.9 RESULTS

The metric properties of the measurement were first examined. This was done using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure to determine the sampling adequacy and sphericity of the item-correlation matrix, exploratory factor analysis to discover and identify the dimensions of the measurements, and reliability analysis using Cronbach alpha coefficients to give the measure of accuracy of the instruments and to determine how repeatable the results were. The talent culture risk measure and occupational talent risk measure obtained MSAs of 0.830 and 0,855 respectively, which was adequate for factor analysis according to the guideline of higher than 0.6 (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). The results of the factor analyses are reported next.

5.10 FACTOR ANALYSES: TALENT CULTURE RISK MANAGEMENT

Exploratory factor analyses using the principal components extraction method was done on the talent culture risk management measure. The initial scree plot made it evident that five factors can be extracted. An exploratory factor analysis using Varimax rotation was done specifying five underlying factors for the TRM questionnaire. The results showed that five factors can be distinguished for the questionnaire. They were labelled as follows: Management support (Factor 1), Institutional strategy (Factor 2), Diversity practices (Factor 3), Physical infrastructure (Factor 4) and Work environment (Factor 5). The five factors explained 57,184% of the variance of the questionnaire. One item was deleted because of problematic loadings. All items showed acceptable loadings of above 0, 40. The results of the total variance are explained and the rotated component matrix is reported in Table 5.1 and 5.2 below.

Table 5-1: Total variance explained for the talent culture risk questionnaire

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Varia	Cumulative %	Total	% of Varianc e	Cumulative %
1	8,149	28,100	28,100	8,149	28,100	28,100
2	2,588	8,923	37,024	2,588	8,923	37,024
3	2,419	8,342	45,366	2,419	8,342	45,366
4	1,802	6,215	51,580	1,802	6,215	51,580
5	1,625	5,603	57,184	1,625	5,603	57,184
6	1,185	4,085	61,268			
7	1,154	3,979	65,248			
8	0,940	3,241	68,489			
9	0,864	2,980	71,469			
10	0,798	2,751	74,220			
11	0,791	2,727	76,947			
12	0,693	2,391	79,338			
13	0,644	2,222	81,560			
14	0,512	1,765	83,325			

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Varia	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
15	0,497	1,713	85,038			
16	0,484	1,668	86,706			
17	0,453	1,562	88,268			
18	0,418	1,442	89,710			
19	0,377	1,300	91,009			
20	0,365	1,260	92,269			
21	0,332	1,146	93,416			
22	0,324	1,119	94,534			
23	0,287	0,989	95,523			
24	0,283	0,977	96,500			
25	0,267	0,922	97,422			
26	0,242	0,835	98,257			
27	0,190	0,656	98,913			
28	0,172	0,594	99,507			
29	0,143	0,493	100,000			

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Varia	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

Table 5-1: Total variance explained for the talent culture risk questionnaire

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8,149	28,100	28,100	8,149	28,100	28,100
2	2,588	8,923	37,024	2,588	8,923	37,024
3	2,419	8,342	45,366	2,419	8,342	45,366
4	1,802	6,215	51,580	1,802	6,215	51,580
5	1,625	5,603	57,184	1,625	5,603	57,184
6	1,185	4,085	61,268			
7	1,154	3,979	65,248			
8	0,940	3,241	68,489			
9	0,864	2,980	71,469			
10	0,798	2,751	74,220			
11	0,791	2,727	76,947			
12	0,693	2,391	79,338			
13	0,644	2,222	81,560			
14	0,512	1,765	83,325			
15	0,497	1,713	85,038			
16	0,484	1,668	86,706			
17	0,453	1,562	88,268			
18	0,418	1,442	89,710			
19	0,377	1,300	91,009			
20	0,365	1,260	92,269			
21	0,332	1,146	93,416			
22	0,324	1,119	94,534			
23	0,287	0,989	95,523			

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
24	0,283	0,977	96,500			
25	0,267	0,922	97,422			
26	0,242	0,835	98,257			
27	0,190	0,656	98,913			
28	0,172	0,594	99,507			
29	0,143	0,493	100,000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

Table 5-2: Rotated component matrix for the talent culture risk questionnaire

	Management Support	Institutional Strategy	Diversity Practices	Physical Infrastructure	Work Environment
TRC1	0,651	0,032	0,138	0,075	0,139
TRC2	0,557	0,225	0,149	0,222	0,088
TRC3	0,762	0,07	0,081	0,144	0,123
TRC4	0,803	0,023	0,163	0,005	0,084
TRC5	0,773	0,037	0,09	0,049	0,219
TRC6	0,818	0,106	0,154	0,078	0,089
TRC7	0,731	0,212	0,087	0,198	0,016
TRC8	0,403	0,344	0,117	0,504	-0,113
TRC9	0,205	0,276	0,212	0,61	-0,118
TRC10	0,123	0,209	0,173	0,679	0,023
TRC11	0,18	-0,01	0,083	0,683	0,254
TRC12	0,09	0,159	0,132	0,685	0,291
TRC13	-0,027	0,000	0,000	0,588	0,438
TRC14	0,089	-0,031	0,025	0,423	0,511
TRC15	0,095	0,108	0,109	0,114	0,665
TRC16	0,215	0,139	0,121	-0,027	0,691
TRC17	0,173	0,142	0,124	0,063	0,772
TRC18	0,079	0,115	0,02	0,185	0,696
TRC19	0,099	0,52	-0,043	0,3	0,102
TRC20	0,148	0,632	0,071	0,143	0,034
TRC21	-0,022	0,755	0,054	0,152	0,046
TRC22	0,187	0,724	0,226	0,009	0,111
TRC23	0,123	0,737	0,212	0,013	0,13
TRC24	0,03	0,656	0,198	0,04	0,16
TRC26	0,171	0,394	0,621	0,11	0,016
TRC27	0,219	0,258	0,657	0,174	0,037
TRC28	0,16	0,117	0,749	0,132	0,226
TRC29	0,13	0,032	0,81	0,086	0,117
TRC30	0,137	0,111	0,747	0,082	0,043

Factor analyses: Occupational talent risk management

Exploratory factor analyses using the principal components extraction method was done on the occupational talent risk management questionnaire. Although the Eigen values showed that seven factors could be extracted, a closer inspection of the scree plot clearly specified five factors. An exploratory factor analyses using Varimax rotation was done, specifying five underlying factors for the TRM questionnaire. The results showed that five factors could be distinguished for the questionnaire. They labelled as follows: Talent attraction (Factor 1), Performance management (Factor 2), Compensation (Factor 3), Career development (Factor 4) and Talent retention (Factor 5). The five factors explained 56,655% of the variance of the questionnaire. One item was deleted because of problematic loadings. All items showed acceptable loadings of above 0,40. The results of the total variance are explained and the rotated component matrix is reported in Table 5.3 and 5.4 below.

Table 5-3: Total variance explained for the occupational talent risk measure

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8,759	28,254	28,254	8,759	28,254	28,254
2	2,930	9,452	37,706	2,930	9,452	37,706
3	2,480	8,000	45,706	2,480	8,000	45,706
4	1,990	6,418	52,124	1,990	6,418	52,124
5	1,405	4,531	56,655	1,405	4,531	56,655
6	1,275	4,113	60,768			
7	1,113	3,591	64,359			
8	0,918	2,962	67,321			
9	0,808	2,607	69,928			
10	0,787	2,539	72,467			
11	0,723	2,333	74,800			
12	0,684	2,206	77,006			
13	0,649	2,094	79,100			
14	0,595	1,918	81,018			
15	0,561	1,809	82,827			
16	0,523	1,687	84,514			
17	0,506	1,633	86,147			
18	0,478	1,541	87,688			
19	0,412	1,331	89,019			
20	0,384	1,238	90,256			
21	0,368	1,187	91,443			
22	0,359	1,158	92,601			
23	0,331	1,067	93,668			
24	0,325	1,048	94,716			
25	0,296	0,955	95,671			
26	0,277	0,893	96,564			
27	0,260	0,840	97,404			
28	0,247	0,795	98,199			
29	0,222	0,715	98,914			

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
30	0,174	0,562	99,475			
31	0,163	0,525	100,000			

Table 5-4: Rotated component matrix for the occupational talent risk measure

	Talent Attraction	Performance Management	Compensation	Career Development	Talent retention
OTM1	0,723	0,021	0,134	0,114	-0,050
OTM2	0,665	0,070	0,190	0,088	0,089
OTM3	0,737	0,218	0,069	-0,036	0,064
OTM4	0,749	0,138	0,097	0,201	0,045
OTM5	0,754	0,042	0,136	0,139	0,169
OTM6	0,706	0,070	0,204	0,163	0,072
OTM7	0,712	-0,018	0,080	0,282	0,113
OTM8	0,633	0,129	0,304	0,115	0,047
OTM9	0,373	0,294	0,540	0,035	0,107
OTM10	0,200	0,210	0,664	0,106	0,095
OTM11	0,263	0,030	0,646	0,084	0,077
OTM12	0,106	-0,021	0,740	0,064	0,145
OTM13	0,103	0,124	0,774	0,118	0,082
OTM14	0,128	0,188	0,727	0,035	0,038
OTM15	0,134	0,276	0,660	0,087	-0,010
OTM16	0,156	0,149	0,115	0,575	-0,095
OTM17	0,129	0,067	0,223	0,719	0,077
OTM18	0,231	0,059	0,124	0,791	-0,027
OTM19	0,131	0,411	-0,013	0,569	0,042
OTM20	0,183	0,387	-0,040	0,597	0,175
OTM21	0,129	0,413	0,060	0,486	0,200
OTM23	0,177	0,600	0,005	0,296	0,051
OTM24	0,204	0,720	0,131	0,214	0,053
OTM25	0,084	0,704	0,259	0,158	0,072
OTM26	0,116	0,807	0,172	0,048	0,062
OTM27	0,003	0,714	0,123	0,191	0,170
OTM28	-0,026	0,623	0,244	0,009	0,110
OTM29	0,180	0,064	0,108	0,113	0,718
OTM30	0,118	0,060	0,100	-0,078	0,784
OTM31	0,037	0,130	0,172	-0,034	0,739

	Talent Attraction	Performance Management	Compensation	Career Development	Talent retention
OTM32	0,028	0,166	0,002	0,127	0,663

The descriptive statistics for the questionnaires are reported in Table 5.5 below.

Table 5-5: Descriptive statistics for the questionnaires

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
Talent culture risk factors					
Management support	3,9708	1,01465	-0,612	0,176	0,884
Institutional strategy	4,0136	0,86188	-0,418	-0,545	0,809
Diversity practices	3,9909	0,98722	-0,307	-0,624	0,835
Physical infrastructure	3,9295	1,02683	-0,494	-0,477	0,782
Work environment	3,8159	0,91721	-0,369	-0,245	0,792
Occupational talent risk factors					
Talent attraction	4,1795	0,90266	-1,127	1,312	0,888
Performance management	4,0492	0,92404	-0,503	-0,342	0,844
Compensation	3,8000	0,97029	-0,625	0,025	0,858
Career development	3,9258	0,87211	-0,411	-0,338	0,796
Talent retention	3,9705	0,96232	-0,399	-0,559	0,742

The results in Table 5 show acceptable to good reliabilities for the factors of both measurements. The results further showed that more than 30% of the sample experienced risks to all the dimensions of the institutional talent culture, as well risks relating to their occupation. The highest level of risks relate to the work environment and compensation. Further results showed a very high risk related to the retention of academic staff. In this sample, 66% of the academics considered quitting their jobs.

5.11 DISCUSSION

The main objective of this research was to develop and validate a talent risk diagnostic tool for academic staff at selected South African higher education institutions. The results confirmed Mokgojwa's (2018a) research that talent culture risks for academic staff consist of strategic direction, management support, work environment, physical infrastructure and diversity practices. The results further showed support for the five constructs of occupational talent risks, namely career development, talent attraction, compensation, performance management and talent retention as identified by Mokgojwa, Barkhuizen and Schutte, (2018b). Both measurements showed acceptable reliabilities.

The results of this research showed that more than a third of academics in this sample experience risks relating to all the dimensions of the institutional culture and the identified occupational talent risks. Some of the most prominent risks to occur included the work environment and compensation. It was evident from the item analyses that academics experience that their work environments are not safe, that the institution does not care about their safety, that there are no clear safety procedures in place and that they are not informed about student unrest in time. It is important to note that the study was executed at the time of the #FeesMustFall campaign. At the time, academics experienced on-going violence and felt threatened in their workplace. The results of the study confirmed the notion that academic staff should be trained to acquire the necessary safety skills (Jonathan & Mbogo, 2016).

Compensation emerged as a high occupational talent risk in this study. As with previous studies, academic dissatisfaction with compensation remains a pressing problem (Lesenyeho, 2017; see Theron et al., 2014). Higher education institutions should therefore focus on creating market-related salaries, paying academics fairly for the efforts that they put into their jobs, compensating academic fairly for the third-stream income that they generate for their institution and giving proper incentives for research publications. As mentioned by Bryant and Allen (2013), academic turnover is a costly exercise and higher education institutions should provide financial rewards to attract and keep talent (Schlecther et al, 2014) or implement a total rewards strategy that goes beyond just merely offering a base salary (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018).

The high turnover intentions of academic in this study appeared to be the greatest risk. This is clear confirmation of the frequently lacking talent retention strategies at government institutions such as public universities. More than two thirds of the academic in this study considered quitting their jobs and were currently seeking for other employment. The result confirms the high turnover rate of academic staff in South Africa mentioned in other studies (Barkhuizen et al., 2017; Lesenyeho, 2017). The results also confirm the findings of Metcalf et al. (2005), who found that more than half of the current staff interviewed in their study was not keen to consider academics as a career. Consequently, one can deduce that current staff are not attracted to the institution anymore.

Although the focus of this research was not on predictive relationships, one could suspect the talent culture risks and occupational talent risks might have a role to play in the turnover intentions of academic staff in this sample. Previous studies found that a lack of strategic direction (Bradley, 2016), poor work environment (Bigirimana et al., 2016), insufficient physical infrastructure (Salau, 2017), management incompetence (Kissoonduth, 2017), a lack of career development opportunities (Saurombe, 2015), non-competitive compensation and benefits practices (Mabaso & Dlamini, 2018) are key contributors to academic staff turnover. However, the above claims are based on speculation and more research is required to confirm the trends.

This research makes important theoretical, methodological and practical contributions. From a theoretical point of view, this research contributes to the sparse empirical research on the concepts of talent culture risks and its underpinnings, as well occupational talent risks and its dimensions. From a methodological point of view, this research confirms the usefulness and reliability of two new measures of talent risk measurement. From a practical point of view, this research highlights the risks that academic staff are exposed to in the new higher educational landscape. The high levels of risks on relating to both the organisational culture of the higher education and subsequent occupational talent risks are areas of great concern. Higher education management and human resource practitioners should come up with proper TM policies, strategies and practices aimed at the development of talent culture for academic staff that is conducive of service excellence and performance. Higher education institutions are also encouraged to develop talent risk systems that can detect academic turnover intentions in advance and take interventions to mitigate talent risks.

5.12 LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research had some limitations. There is currently a great scarcity of empirical research theory in the field of TRM, which made the interpretation of results difficult. Second, the sample size and demographic representation did not allow for testing construct equivalence. Nevertheless, both measurements showed acceptable factor structures and reliabilities. Construct equivalence can be achieved by expanding the sample to other South African higher education institutions. This would also allow for the generalisation of results. Future studies can also benefit from expanding the sample to other higher education stakeholders to obtain a holistic perspective on TM risks on multiple levels. Lastly, future research should focus on which talent culture and occupational talent risks predict the high turnover intentions of academic staff.

5.13 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this research presented two measures that can used to assess talent risks on organisational and individual level. The results of the research proved that the higher education work environment presents risks for the effective TM of academic in the sense that it needs more strategic direction for TM, management commitment towards academic TM, a conducive work environment complemented by occupational health and safety policies, a proper infrastructure, and finally a talent culture that embraces diversity. The results of this results further calls for an improvement in academic compensation and talent retention strategies.

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CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study's research objectives are discussed below, followed by conclusions drawn from the four articles presented. The limitations of the study are discussed and recommendations are made for higher education institutions. The model with its constructs is discussed, where after the chapter ends with recommendations regarding future research opportunities that have become evident during this study.

6.1 CONCLUSIONS

6.1.1 CONCEPTUALISING TALENT, TALENT MANAGEMENT, TALENT RISK MANAGEMENT

The first research objective focused on addressing the conceptual vagueness in the field of TM. The terms talent and TM have seldom been as important to the success of organisations as they are today. Today, the workforce is more multi-generational, more diverse and empowered. Talent professionals today work in a much more dynamic and ever-changing environment and it requires a more skilful crafting of talent strategies, especially if the organisation wants to maximise the potential of its workforce (Wilson, 2012).

Managing risk is a growing concern for organisational managers, who face legislative changes, financial constraints, increasing litigation and a more demanding external scrutiny (Popescu & Dascalu, 2011). A risk is almost anything that impedes or limits the ability of an organisation to achieve its mission and organisational goals. Risk management is the process of being able to think systematically about all possible risks (Paladino, 2008). These risks should be identified as disasters before they happen so that procedures can be set up that would avoid the risk, minimise its impact, or cope with its impact. Fundamentally, it involves setting up a process through which you can identify the risk and set up an appropriate strategy to control or deal with it (Association of Insurance and Risk Managers, 2010).

Applied to the South African context, the TRM of academic staff at South African public universities are becoming essential as these institutions are struggling to attract and retain top talent (Njanjobea, 2016; Pienaar & Bester, 2016). Estimates show that at least 6000 new academics are required to replace retiring academics within the next five years (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2015). To date, there has been limited research on the TM of academic staff at South African higher education institutions. The available research clearly points out TM challenges at higher education institutions and these pose significant threats for the career success of talented academic staff.

A recent study by Lubinda et.al. (2017) shows that management and HR practitioners view talent as a concept reserved for celebrities. It is yet to be introduced in the workplace. The lack of a clear definition of talent and high potential individuals has a negative spill over effect on the effective implementation of TM practices. The lack of conceptual clarification of talent and a theoretical foundation (van Zyl, Mathafena, & Ras, 2017) further complicates the methodology used for the detection of talent in the workplace and the TM practices implemented to accommodate these individuals.

Organisations therefore need a clear definition of what they mean by talent and TM. The organisation should outline the reasons for prioritising talent as a business critical issue and should involve talented individuals who can provide insight into the benefits a strong talent focus. This will require TM in the 21st century, which is different from TM in the 20th century (Macfarlane, Duberley, Fewtrell, & Powell, 2012).

Various questions have arisen on a definition for talent: Does talent refer to individuals (subjects), or does it refer to the characteristics or qualities of individuals (objects)? The other question is whether talent is more about performance, potential, competence, or commitment. Is this talent a natural ability or does it relate more to mastery through practice? Is it better to take an inclusive or an exclusive approach to TM? (Ulrich, 2011).

Likewise, the application of ERM has been based on an ad hoc collection of theories. There is therefore no specific consistency or agreement on the underlying theoretical foundation regarding ERM (Aebi, Sabato & Schmid, 2012). When looking at ERM, some organisations focus on the relationship between corporate governance, while others focus on traditional risk management activities and motives of corporate governance (Pegach & Warr, 2011).

Emerging tensions within the HC risk literature have been identified. The definitions of HC risk have been largely focused on the individual level of HC, that is, the knowledge, the skills and lastly, the abilities of individuals (Aras, Aybars and Kutlu, 2010). These definitions also make reference to the different backgrounds of HC, such as employee motivation, development and lastly employee well-being.

HC risk is mostly broadly defined as the workforce's ability to achieve strategic business objectives. Despite the fact that this broad definition of HC risk is easily understood, the ability of a manager to appropriately manage and mitigate risk within any organisation's desired risk profile is a matter that requires a far more comprehensive analysis. In order for this process to be effective, one must identify key variables in risk determination and then link and measure these variables against business drivers to enable and facilitate management action (Hartog, 2011).

The diagram below provides a summary of the attributes that appear most when different authors define TM:

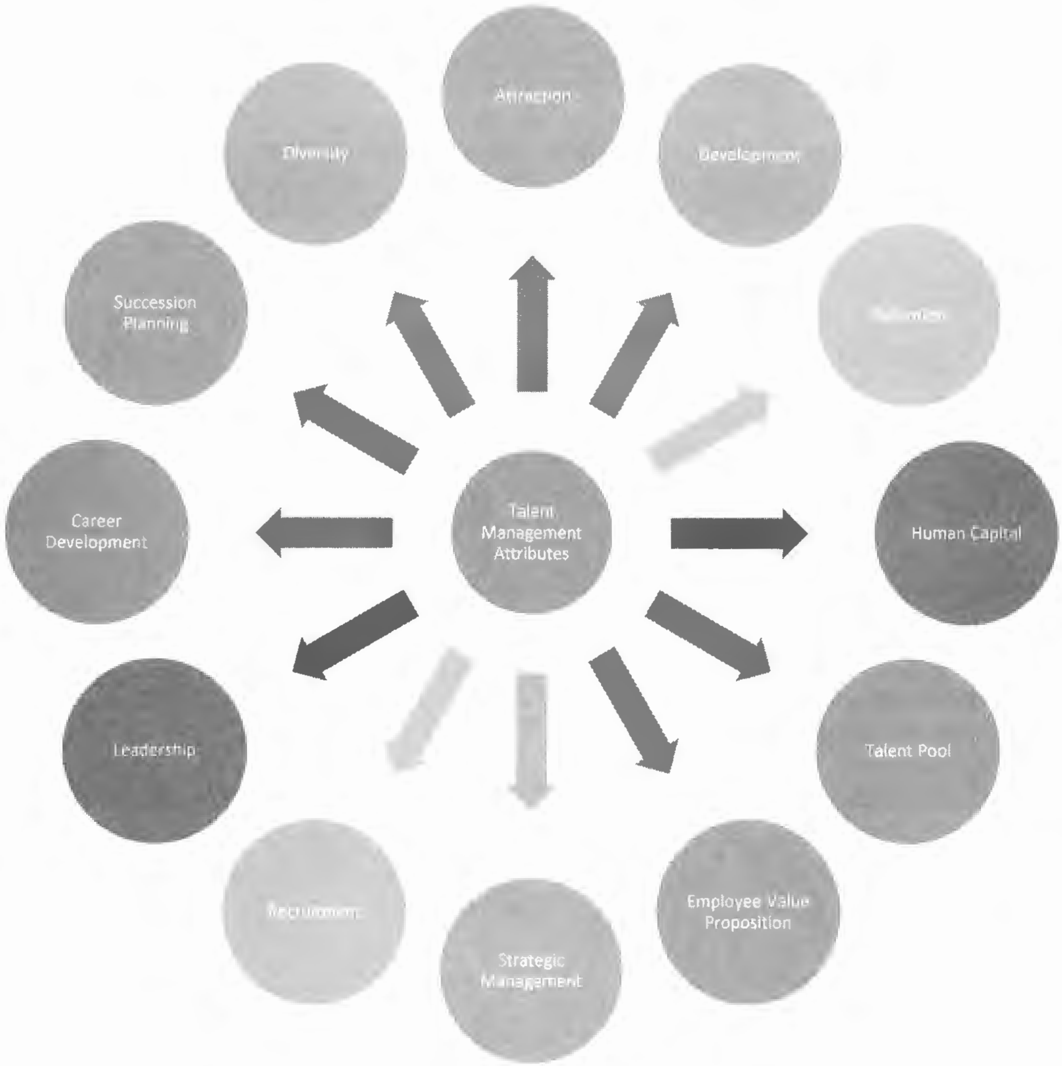

Figure 6-1: Dimensions of talent management

6.1.2 TALENT CULTURE RISKS

The second research objective focuses on determining management's perspectives on the institutional talent culture risks for academic staff at a selected higher education institution. This research was motivated by the fact that Coetzee and Lubbe (2013) cautions that many institutions of higher learning do not have risk strategies to safeguard its core mission of teaching learning and community service during times of transformation. Bubka and Coderre (2015) maintain that HEIs have to develop and implement a comprehensive risk management plan that can serve as a roadmap to identify and manage talent risks. Barkhuizen and Schutte

(2016) suggest that higher education institutions should be more creative in managing high performing academic staff in low performing work environments. The latter study clearly highlights the need for less bureaucratic management structures, user-friendly administrative systems and advanced technological practices to reduce administrative paperwork. The ability of leaders to establish a talent culture will determine the nature and prevalence of HC risks such as the retention of academic staff members (Lesenyeho, 2017; Theron, Barkhuizen, & Du Plessis, 2014).

The findings highlight five main institutional workplace risks that threaten effective talent management, namely Management support, Physical environment, Institutional strategy, Work environment and Diversity. Management support was mentioned the most frequent. In line with Lesenyeho (2017) and Theron et al. (2014), higher education management can reduce HC risks and retain academic staff members by establishing a talent culture where talented staff can flourish and perform.

Physical infrastructure was the theme that occurred second most in this study. The ongoing massification and student access initiatives of the South African government leaves many institutions without adequate infrastructure to accommodate the rapid increase in student numbers. According to Bakasa (2011), overcrowded classes create challenges for academics to deliver subject content effectively and influence student achievement. Some participants alluded to the fact that the university did not have adequate safety and security mechanisms in place during student riots. As mentioned by Pilane (2016) and Vischer (2007), academics are unable to perform their work in such circumstances. Poor work environments (a prominent theme that occurred in this study) further increase the voluntary staff turnovers of staff (Theron et al., 2014).

Other concerns that were highlighted included a lack of clear institutional strategy following a recent merger. The results support Arnolds, Stofile, and Lillah (2013) who allude to the inability of higher education institutions to achieve the transformation and merger goals as set by the South African government. In the absence of a clear strategic vision and direction, it is not surprising that the participants perceived a lack of diversity management initiatives to instil a unitary culture for the higher education institution. Moreover, the participants were of the opinion that the backgrounds of staff members in the merged institution are so diverse that it would be difficult to obtain equality. As mentioned by Naidoo (2015), higher educational management should make a decision on whether diversity will be threat or a possibility to their institution.

In conclusion, this research emphasises the importance of detecting the talent culture risks for academic staff at South African higher education institutions. Quality academic staff is critical for the sustainability and competitiveness of any higher education institution. No higher education institution can afford to lose key and competent staff because of poor infrastructure, a lack of strategic direction or inequity practices. Higher education managers are therefore encouraged to develop appropriate strategies to minimise academic staff exposure to institutional risks.

6.1.3 OCCUPATIONAL TALENT RISKS

The third research objective focused on determining the occupational talent risks of academic staff at a selected South African higher education institutions. This research was motivated by the fact that academic careers have been exposed to various changes over the past two decades such, as massification of students, a changing student population, an overabundance of national policies and structures, new information and communication technologies, and these changes leave many academics unprepared for the new world of work (Bozalek & Boughey, 2014). In the pursuit of "high and contemporary" skills, academics have to negotiate new expectations and identities for the terms "academic staff development" (Boughey & McKenna, 2011). Studies on rank progression in academia have become more focused on understanding the paths of early career academics from doctoral studies into junior ranks in academia and supporting their succeeding transition over time (Waaijer, 2015).

Compensation and rewards continue to be burning issues for academic staff members globally. Mabaso and Dlamini (2018) are of the opinion that higher education needs novel reward systems to attract and retain employees. Tűrk (2008) found that a pay-for-performance system guarantees highly motivated staff. In Saurombe's (2017) study, higher education management believed that benefits for academic staff, such as study leave for career development purposes and funding from the faculty for conference attendance, are important for retaining talented academics.

Changes in the core business of higher education institutions call for a redesign of the traditional academic career with challenging performance expectations and innovative targets (Campbell & Carayannis, 2016). The large influx of a diverse student population, political imperatives such as decolonisation of curricula and ongoing digitalisation requires academic staff to develop more innovative and creative methods of knowledge sharing in classrooms (Council on Higher Education (CHE), 2016; Heleta, 2016; Motala, 2017). In addition to heavy teaching loads, academic are also subject to a policy of publish or perish (Rawat & Meena, 2014). More recently, community engagement were also added as a core business of South African higher education institutions, in addition to teaching and research (Nkoana & Dichaba, 2017).

Five themes emerged that could be regarded as potential occupational talent risks: Career development, Talent attraction, Compensation, Performance management and Talent retention. A positive finding that emerged from this study is that participants in management emphasised both teaching excellence and research as key performance indicators, instead of favouring research (Althaus, 2015). The participants were of the opinion that academics have to demonstrate the teaching expertise required to accommodate the new envisaged learning environment of higher education institutions (Council on Higher Education, 2016; Heleta, 2016; Motala, 2017). The participants also mentioned the existence of a performance management system and its usability at the specific higher education institution. In support of Tűrk (2008), the participants of this study also believed in the practice of paying for performance as an incentive for academic staff.

In the interviews, risks relating to the theme of career development were mentioned most. The responses clearly showed that management places a high premium on the development of talented staff and want to create opportunities for career development. The participants mentioned the potential of career development benefits as a mechanism to attract and retain academic staff. However, these observations have to be interpreted with caution as it was evident that especially younger generation academics first prefer base salary in addition to benefits (see Lesenyeho, 2017). One the participants also recognised this trend of early career scholars. Not surprisingly, compensation of academic staff emerged as a pressing concern and risk for all among the participants. The participants were of the opinion that non-market related salaries limit higher education institutions' efforts to attract and retain top academic talent (Theron et al., 2014). In line with Mabaso (2016), the participants also highlighted the need for more creative rewards and benefits of academic staff as opposed to merely giving performance bonuses.

The ability of higher education to attract top scholars also emerged as a predominant risk factor in this study. In line with Saurombe (2017), the participants were of the opinion that the brand of the university plays an important role in the attraction of talented academics. More specifically, the participants highlighted that the reputation of the higher education institutions as a producer of excellent research and scholarship is an important factor for top academics when they consider it as an employer of choice. Other participants also highlighted that opportunities for personal development (Lesenyeho, 2017) and opportunities to participate in community activities are important considerations for academics when they seek employment at a specific higher education institution (Nkoana & Dichaba, 2017). Some of the participants have reservations about whether campuses in rural areas are able to attract scholars.

In conclusion, this research expanded in the field of TM by focusing on a burning issue at many higher education institutions namely occupational TRM of academic staff. The findings of this study are promising and allow for the further expansion of occupational talent risk research in multiple contexts. The findings of this research create an awareness for higher education management and human resource practitioners about the occupational TM risks that can exist for academic staff and proactive measures that be taken to reduce these risks.

6.1.4 A TALENT CULTURE RISK TOOL

The fourth and final research objective aimed to develop a TRM tool. The available research shows that no measuring instrument currently exists that can assess the talent risks if academic staff at higher education institutions. This research was motivated by the challenges that academics staff are facing as mentioned by Pienaar and Bester (2016): inadequate remuneration, role overload, ineffective performance management, a lack of training and development, a lack of support for individual career management, discriminatory practices, ineffective general management, limited support for research outputs, a lack of encouragement for entrepreneurship, poor equipment and working conditions, a lack of job security and a lack of networking opportunities.

This research built on research by Mokgojwa (2018a), who identified the talent culture risk of higher education as consisting of strategic direction, management support, work environment, physical infrastructure and diversity practices. Mokgojwa (2018b) further identified occupational relent risks for academics, such career development, talent attraction, compensation, performance management and talent retention.

The results of the factor analyses were promising. Exploratory factor analyses using the principal components extraction method was done on the talent culture risk management measure. The results showed that five factors can be distinguished for the questionnaire and was labelled as follows: Management support (Factor 1), Institutional strategy (Factor 2), Diversity practices (Factor 3), Physical infrastructure (Factor 4) and Work environment (Factor 5). The five factors explained 57,184% of the variance of the questionnaire. One item was deleted because of problematic loadings. All items showed acceptable loadings of above 0, 40.

Exploratory factor analyses using the principal components extraction method was done on the occupational talent risk management questionnaire. The results showed that five factors can be distinguished for the questionnaire, namely Talent attraction (Factor 1), Performance management (Factor 2), Compensation (Factor 3), Career development (Factor 4) and Talent retention (Factor 5). The five factors explained 56,655% of the variance of the questionnaire. One item was deleted because of problematic loadings. All items showed acceptable loadings of above 0,40. The results show acceptable to good reliabilities for the factors of both measurements.

The results confirm Mokgojwa's (2018a) research that talent culture risks for academic staff consist of strategic direction, management support, work environment, physical infrastructure and diversity practices. The results further showed support for the five constructs of occupational talent risks, career development, talent attraction, compensation, performance management and talent retention as identified by Mokgojwa (2018b).

The results further show that more than 30% of the sample experienced risks to all the dimensions of the institutional talent culture, as well risks relating to their occupation. The highest level of risks relate to the work environment and compensation. Further results show a very high risk relating to the retention of academic staff. In this sample, 66% of the academics considered quitting their jobs. As in previous studies, academic dissatisfaction with compensation remains a pressing problem (Lesenyeho, 2017; see Theron et al., 2014). Higher education institutions should therefore focus in creating market-related salaries, paying academic fairly for the efforts that they put into their jobs, compensating academic fairly for third-stream income that they generate for their institution and proper incentives for research publications.

The high turnover intentions of academic in this study appeared to be the greatest risk. This is a clear indication of a lack of talent retention strategies so prevalent in government institutions such as public universities. More than two thirds of the academic in this study considered quitting their jobs and were currently seeking other employment. This result confirms the high turnover rate of academic staff in South Africa as mentioned in other studies (Barkhuizen et al., 2017; Lesenyeho, 2017). The results also confirm the findings of Metcalf et al. (2005), who found that more than half of current staff are not keen to consider academia as a career. Consequently, one can deduce that current staff are not attracted to the institution anymore.

In conclusion, this research presents two measures that can used to assess talent risks on organisational and individual level. The results of the research prove that the higher educational work environment presents risks for the effective TM of academics in the sense that institutions need more strategic direction for TM, management commitment to academic TM, a conducive work environment complemented by occupational health and safety policies and a proper infrastructure, and finally a talent culture that embraces diversity. The results of these results calls for an improvement in academic compensation as well as talent retention strategies.

6.2 LIMITATIONS

This research had some limitations.

- To the best of the researcher's knowledge, no empirical research currently exist on talent culture risk management. The lack of research and a theoretical foundation for TRM and the field of TM in general challenged the researched to interpret the results.
- Second, the research was limited to the management and academic staff of a selected higher education institution. As a result, the research cannot be generalised to other higher education institutions.
- This research focused on the preliminary initial analyses of a TRM tool. Although the initial analyses showed great promise, the research could have benefitted from a larger and diverse sample to allow for the cross-cultural validation of the measurement.
- Finally, the sample size also limited the researcher in terms of evaluating the experiences of different demographic groups and the risks that they are exposed to.

6.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

6.3.1 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RESEARCH

The following recommendations are made for future research:

- More research is needed to clarify the theoretical underpinnings of the field of TM to define the constructs such as talent, TM and TRM.
- Future research can benefit from expanding the research to a larger sample to ensure the further validation of the TM risk tool and its cross-cultural validation.
- This research only used managers and academics staff in the sample. Future research can include other higher educational stakeholders, such as support staff, to obtain a holistic picture of the TM risks facing higher education staff
- This research followed a cross-sectional research approach where data were collected at one point in time. Future researchers can follow a longitudinal approach where the talent risks for academic staff can be tracked over a longer period of time.
- Future studies can also explore the outcome variables related to TRM such as employee well-being, turnover intentions, and performance management.

6.3.2 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The results of this research lend the study to the following recommendations for practice:

- Higher education institutions should develop a conceptual definition for talent and high potential individuals to allow for the effective implementation of TM practices.
- Human resource practitioners should develop sound TRM policies and strategies that can reduce the occupational talent risks that academic staff are experiencing.
- Management and leaders are the custodians of an enabling talent culture. This requires that higher education management development a clear and visible strategy for higher education institutions that will drive the achievement of success through talented academics. Higher education managers are encouraged to adopt the talent mind-set to facilitate effective TM in higher education.
- Human resource practitioners are encouraged to digitalise TM practices at higher education institutions to allow for talent trend analyses and the forecasting of the demand and supply for future talent needs.

- Finally, higher education institutions are encouraged to critically revise their current total rewards offerings as it is an important attraction and retention factor for quality academic staff. Poor compensation and non-market related compensation has been a long-standing problem at higher education institutions and drastic improvements are required if higher educations are to remain sustainable.

6.4 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this research makes a unique contribution towards the field of TM by investigating the concept of TRM, a field in which empirical research studies are lacking. The findings of this study highlight the importance of higher education institutions to adapt more proactive TRM practices to counteract the high turnover levels of academic staff members. The results in this study clearly showed that higher education management have to be attentive to workplace risks such as a lack of strategy direction, a lack of management support, work environment, physical infrastructure and diversity management practices.

For individual academics, higher education should develop a balanced host of TM practices that can facilitate their career success. Instead of over-reliance of career development, higher education institutions should re-evaluate its brand to attract top talent, implement market-related salaries and inflation-related annual salary increases as a method to enhance the retention of key academic staff. In the light of the high turnover rate of academic staff, it is advisable that higher education management have regular retention conversations with academic staff to detect and eliminate the factors that contribute to their turnover intentions in advance.

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