Redefining human resource management's strategic role in a VUCA world: A talent wellness perspective

Jennifer C. Nzonzo[1*]
North-West University, Business School,
South Africa
E-mail: jenny.nzonzo@gmail.com

Yvonne du Plessis[2]
North-West Business School,
South Africa
E-mail: yvonne.duplessis@nwu.ac.za

Tendai Douglas Svotwa[3]
North-West Business School,
South Africa
E-mail: tdsvotwa@gmail.com

*****Corresponding Author
Email jenny.nzonzo@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The current challenges emanating from the internal and external environments have resulted in organizations reviewing their human resources management and wellness strategies. It is against this background that this research focused on redefining the strategic role of human resource management in a VUCA (volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous) world from a talent wellness perspective. A quantitative research approach was followed, whereby a talent wellness questionnaire was administered to South African HR practitioners (n = 210). The findings revealed a statistically significant relationship among various constructs related to talent management (attraction, development, and retention) and employee wellbeing (social, emotional, physical, and psychological). This research contributes to professional and

academic research on the strategic interlinkage of wellness and talent management in a VUCA world. The research highlights the need for HR professionals and other relevant stakeholders to create talent wellness interventions that are aligned with the organizational strategy to improve the welfare of employees, to enhance sustainable, productive work, in order for the organization to gain competitive advantage and flourish.

Keywords: South Africa, strategic human resource management, talent management, VUCA context, wellness/wellbeing

Introduction

The volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous (VUCA) environment we are currently facing has ushered in an era of global chaos. Organizations must be agile in responding to rapid changes in the external environment, such as accelerated technological advancement. The past decade has seen unprecedented changes to the global market, emanating from the debt crisis in Europe, strained USA–China relations, Brexit, and climate change (Dhillon & Nguyen, 2021). Compounding the global chaos was the surfacing of a coronavirus (Covid-19), in December 2019 which resulted in unprecedented challenges in the workplace (Dhillon & Nguyen, 2021; Howe, Chauhan, Soderberg, & Buckley, 2020; Mousa & Rami, 2019). As such, the workplace is becoming increasingly dynamic and unpredictable intensified by many employees having to work from home or hybrid due to the Covid-19.

This upheaval has affected organizations' talent management and wellness programs, particularly at the strategic human resource management (HRM) level. In the current turbulent environment, organizations find it challenging to remain competitive and build sustainable competitive advantage. In addition, literature confirms that managers need to be aware of trends in the external and internal environment, as these affect the way in which attraction,

deployment, development, and retention of employees is undertaken, which affect employee wellness (Berman, Bowman, West, & Van Wart, 2019).

There is ever-increasing integration of individuals, companies, and cultures during change, and every person and business is faced with constant global pressure to achieve competitive excellence in the domain of HRM (Cascio & Boudreau, 2016; Tarique, Briscoe, & Schuler, 2015). The VUCA world is characterized as an operating environment that is continuously evolving in dramatic and relentless ways, resulting in daunting leadership and organizational challenges (Abidi, 2018; Deaton, 2018). It is widely accepted that employees are an organization's most valuable asset, and, as such, a company's HR strategy should focus on achieving employee commitment and productivity (Rius Bosch, 2019). Employers are now, more than ever, having to focus on employee talent development, as new skills and abilities are required from their employees to cope with the ever-changing VUCA environment (Tomcikova, Svetozarovova, & Coculova, 2021). The future holds considerable challenges for current organizational competencies (Lumme-Tuomala, 2017), business sustainability, and employee performance (Abidi, 2018).

From a strategic HRM perspective, the drive for individual–organization goal alignment is pivotal in ensuring productivity (Mirzapour, Toutian, Mehrara, & Khorrampour, 2019). Considering the foregoing, HRM strategies should be crafted based on employee skills, talents, and wellness to improve the performance of the organization at individual, group, and organizational level, if organizational goals are to be achieved (Muli, Muathe, & Muchiri, 2014; Stone, Deadrick, Lukaszewski, & Johnson, 2015). While talent management has been widely researched (Collings, 2014), there seems to be a scarcity of literature on the subject (Mousa & Rami, 2019), yet it remains one of the priorities of modern management in all firms (Tomcikova et al., 2021), as it is undeniably the driving force of a company's success.

The concerns of organizations about employee wellness/wellbeing (the terms are used interchangeably in this paper) have been on an upward trajectory, given the current VUCA challenges, as organizational success is now, more than ever, dependent on employee wellness and human capital in ensuring sustainable growth and performance (Ochoa, Lepeley, & Essens, 2019). Extant literature confirms that effective HRM practices could increase psychological resources in the form of self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and psychological safety (Agarwal & Farndale, 2017), which would likely increase levels of employee wellness (Agarwal, 2021). The paucity of studies on employee wellness (Steverink, Lindenberg, Spiegel, & Nieboer, 2020) warranted an investigation to fill in the gap in knowledge regarding the relationship between talent management and employee wellness.

The problem that the current study sought to address is that the linkage between talent management and employee wellbeing in a VUCA environment has not been established from a talent management perspective. In addition, employee wellbeing is assessed mainly in terms of health benefits (Agarwal, 2021), often neglecting its value in talent management. It has been argued that employee wellbeing should be linked with talent management to be fully functional (Day & Randell, 2014). However, there is a lack of knowledge and information on the multilevel and holistic integration of talent management and employee wellbeing (Loon, Otaye-Ebede, & Stewart, 2018). All the dimensions of employee wellbeing, i.e. psychological, emotional, social, and physical, should be addressed in talent management (managing attraction, development, and retention).

This view aligns with the principles of the job demands–resources (JD-R) theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), which proposes that the interaction between job demands and job resources is an important consideration in developing motivational processes aimed at enhancing work engagement and well-being. Organisations also need to guard against job strain leading to burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). HRM professionals and managers require this

information and knowledge to support them in assessing talent management and employee wellbeing initiatives and make informed decisions on effectively managing employees holistically and strategically. In line with the general and specific problem identified above, the key objectives of this study were:

a) To determine the strategic role of HRM in a VUCA world from a talent wellness perspective.

b) To evaluate measures and strategies that can be employed by organizations to minimize the risks and challenges caused by talent wellness initiatives that are misaligned with the organizational goals.

c) To provide management and other relevant stakeholders strategic recommendations that will enhance productivity through talent wellness.

This study contributes to the body of knowledge on the integration of employee talent and wellness in a VUCA environment, which has not been extensively studied, thus bridging a gap in the body knowledge in this domain. In fact, the dominant approaches to HRM have focused predominantly on performance, without consideration of employee wellbeing (Guest, 2017), hence the focus of the present study. The rest of the paper is organized as follows. A literature review follows, focusing on the constructs of the study, after which the methodology is presented. Thereafter, the results are reported and discussed, together with theoretical and practical implications. The paper concludes with recommendations, the limitations of the study, and areas for future research.

Literature Review

The VUCA context

Organizations' environment is characterized as VUCA — volatile, uncertain, complex, and ambiguous. *Volatile* refers to unstable circumstances and unexpected events, possibly of an unspecified duration (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014). Volatility could be related to sudden change, such as having to work from home.

Uncertain refers to a situation where knowledge regarding the significance of the situation is lacking (Bennett & Lemoine, 2014). For instance, there is much uncertainty regarding the extent and magnitude of the impact of Covid-19 on firm performance in the foreseeable future. Employees are experiencing job instability and financial insecurity, coupled with health- and wellness concerns (Caligiuri, De Cieri, Minbaeva, Verbeke, & Zimmermann, 2020).

Complex refers to a situation where there are many interrelated variables, the magnitude of which may make the matter difficult to handle. An example is technological advancement, which has resulted in the proliferation of information and enhanced communication systems with many interdependencies, resulting in unforeseen consequences for organizations (Gandhi, 2017).

Ambiguity refers to a lack of clarity regarding multiple possible causes of effects, and how to deal with these. HRM managers must now deal with new dimensions of employee wellbeing, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, which is further complicated by limited interaction, as many employees are now working from home (Nangia & Mohsin, 2020).

Extant literature confirms that the role of HRM in generating a sustainable competitive advantage in the VUCA environment is critical, and even of strategic importance. A workforce that is effectively selected, developed, and supported can significantly contribute to an

organization's performance and in sustaining competitive advantage (Hamid, 2019; Pearse, 2017). To survive in the VUCA environment, organizations have to select the best talent, improve their skills, and provide support and nurture employee wellness, in order to enhance employee commitment (Naznin & Hussain, 2016; Sasmal, 2019).

Talent Management

Talent is defined by Ulrich and Smallwood (2012, p. 60) as follows:

> *Talent = competence [knowledge, skills and values required for today's and tomorrow's job; right skills, right place, right job, right time] × commitment [willing to do the job] × contribution [finding meaning and purpose in their job.]*

Talent management entails attracting, identifying, recruiting, developing, and retaining people, and is viewed as a strategic process that contributes to competitive advantage. To successfully execute the organization's strategy requires that critical positions be identified and filled with the right people, at the right time (Lumme-Toumala, 2017). Talent is thus viewed as both a strategic resource and a source of competitive advantage in the 21st century (Michie, Sparrow, Hird, & Cooper, 2015; Kontoghiorghes, 2016; Moritz, 2016), calling for strategic thinking and alignment between HRM and top management (Cascio & Boudreau, 2016). Talent requires specific management, as high-performing employees are critical for business survival in the current context of global complexity and uncertainty (Rodriguez-Sanchez, González-Torres, Montero-Navarro, & Gallego-Losada, 2020).

Ineffective talent management will not yield the desired returns on investments (De Boeck, Meyers, & Dries, 2018; Van Zyl, Mathafena, & Ras, 2017). Johnston (2018) notes challenges associated with talent management, such a lack of clarity regarding talent management in the HR field, coupled with the difficulty of measuring and quantifying its value in terms profitability. Furthermore, there is lack of unanimity on how talent management fits into the

larger business structure. Considering the above, it is imperative that organizations address the considerable challenges associated with talent management systems and redesign their wellness interventions in becoming fit for the VUCA future (Ochoa et al., 2019).

Employee Wellness

The wellbeing of employees is the fulcrum of organizational success, as organizations' thriving is dependent on employee creativity, adaptability, and engagement (Ochoa et al., 2019). The World Health Organization (WHO) defines wellbeing as a state of complete physical, mental, and social well-being, not merely the absence of disease or infirmity (WHO, 1946). Gilbert and Kelloway (2014) propose that workplace wellness relies on initiatives and strategies that promote constructive behaviors in the workplace and employee health. Agarwal (2021) contends that wellbeing, a term rooted in the field of psychology, refers to subjective physical and psychological wellbeing.

Subjective wellbeing is the hedonic aspect of wellbeing, and is composed of a person's cognitive and affective evaluations of his/her life (Diener, 1984). Psychological wellbeing is the eudaimonic aspect of wellbeing (Agarwal, 2021), and includes six related yet distinct components: positive evaluation of oneself and one's past, a sense of continued growth and development, the belief that one's life is purposeful and meaningful, quality relations with others, a sense of capacity to manage one's life and the surrounding world effectively, and a sense of self-determination (Agarwal, 2021; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Wellbeing has been confirmed in literature as a critical area of organizational focus, as it is not just an outcome, but an antecedent to various organizational outcomes, including, among others, creativity, productivity, cooperation, and increased social capital (De Neve, Diener, Tay, & Xuereb, 2013). The above assertion is supported by Abraham and White (2017), who posit that effective

wellness programs strengthen employee engagement, reduce turnover, and improve profitability.

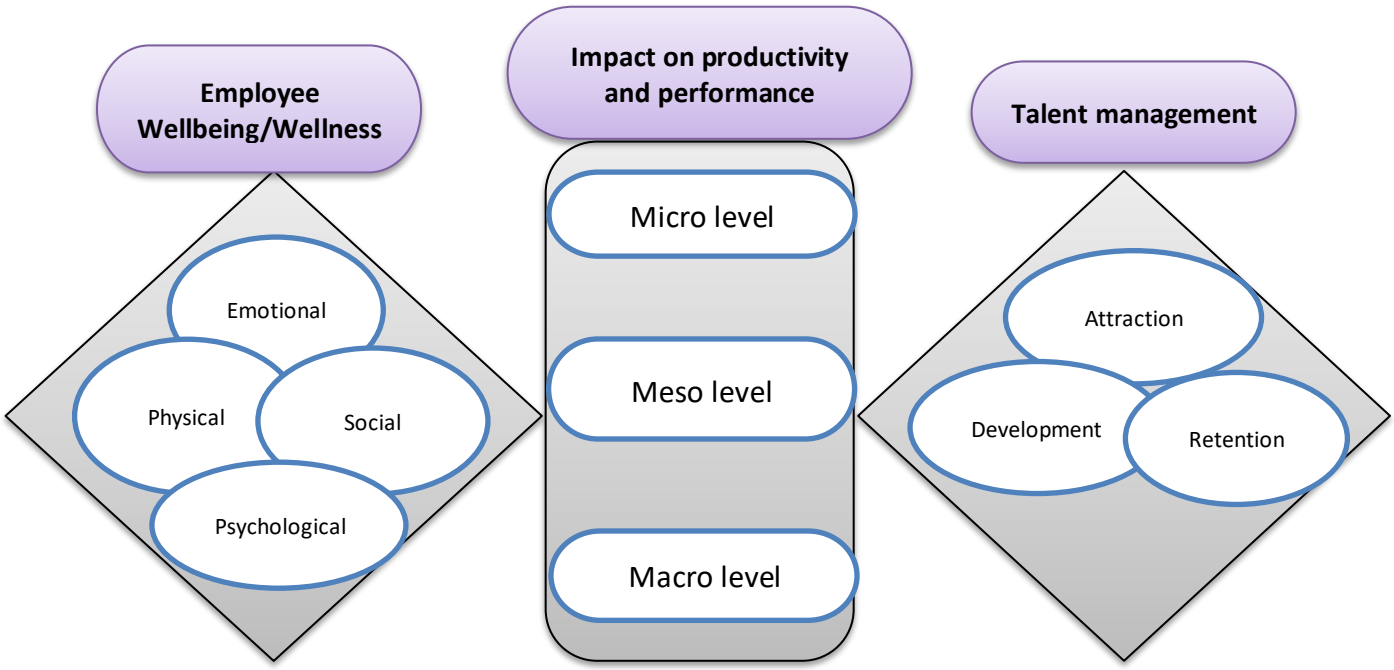
Research Framework and Hypothesis Development

This study utilized the theoretical lenses of the JD-R theory (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) to explicate the concept of wellbeing in organizations. The JD-R Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) is premised on the notion that job characteristics can be classified into two categories — job demands and job resources, which vary in terms of their effects. Job demands are the physical, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical or mental effort, and are associated with certain physiological and psychological costs (Agarwal, 2021; Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001).

The JD-R Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) propounds that irrespective of the type of job, the risk factors associated with work pressure and can be categorized as job demands (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Carlson et al. (2017) aver that job demands as described by the JD-R Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) relate to those aspects of the job that carry a psychological and/or physical cost, and job resources are defined as aspects that improve certain dimensions of the job, such as a flexible work schedule (Chinyamurindi, 2019).

Job demands and resources are both physical and psychological (i.e., cognitive and emotional) (Demerouti et al., 2001). One could therefore argue that wellness is a multifaceted state that is facilitated by an inner drive and a positive mind-set, which lead to fulfilment and health (Barnard, 2018; Mayer & Walach, 2018). Thus, a conducive work environment and healthy relationships enhance employee wellness(wellbeing), ultimately contributing to organizational success at the macro (strategic), meso (group), and micro (individual) level, as illustrated in Figure 1.

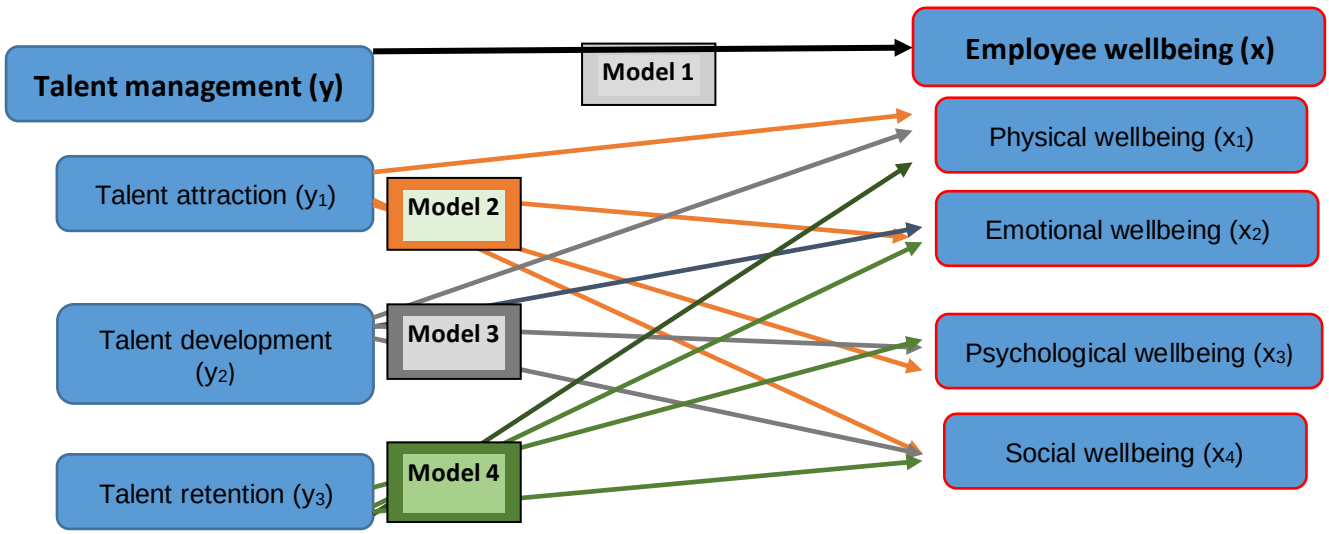
Figure 1. Key Considerations of Talent-Wellness Interventions



Source: Researchers' own construction

The constructs presented in Figure 1 are further discussed in the following subsections, together with hypothesized relationships between the independent and dependent variables shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Structural Form of the Regression Models



Source: Researchers' own construction

The macro level focuses specifically on the leadership- and organizational system variables. These variables, in turn, are related to how employee wellness practitioners should promote wellness in an organization. As the foundation for all interventions, managers need to ensure that the culture and the strategy of the organization are synchronized (Passey, Hammerback, Huff, Harris, & Hannon, 2018). However, because the contextual environment is always changing, integrating a culture of wellness into the organizational strategy is often a challenge.

Žižek, Mulej, and Čančer (2017) posit that, while leaders are responsible for designing and implementing wellness programs, the success of such programs rely on employees' full participation. Hence, leadership, employees' commitment to participate in wellness interventions, and a favorable environment are of prime importance to the successful implementation of wellness programs. While there is much interest in the concept of employee wellbeing, limited research has been conducted on overall healthy workplaces and the impact thereof on employee and organizational wellbeing (Day & Randell, 2014), particularly in the context of Africa. Berman et al. (2019) posit that managers need to continuously scan both the internal and external environment, as both impact the attraction, deployment, development, and retention of employees. As such, more research is needed on the economic, health, and psychological components of wellbeing to fully integrate research findings and the thinking of industrial psychologists (Andrews, Crosby, Carrigan et al., 2019; Giberson & Miklos, 2014). These gaps in knowledge motivated the present study.

We posit that talent management is an integrated and holistic process that focuses on, first, attracting potential employees to work in an organization; second, the deployment of employees from one work assignment to another to meet organizational needs; third, training and development to develop and enhance the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of employees; and, finally, retention practices that focus on motivating and retaining employees. Furthermore,

talent management should consider the wellness of employees at the physical, emotional, psychological, and social levels (Rajesh, Ekambaram, Rakesh, & Kumar 2019). In light of the preceding, the following hypothesis were formulated:

Ha: There is a statistically significant relationship between talent management and employee wellbeing.

Regression Model 1:

y hat = β0hat + βx hat x; where y hat = estimated *Talent management*, x = *Employee wellbeing*, whilst β0 and βx are the estimates of the y-intercept and slope, respectively.

H_{a1}: There is a statistically significant relationship between talent attraction and the following employee wellbeing attributes: physical wellbeing, emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing and social wellbeing.

Regression Model 2:

y1hat = β0hat + β1 hat x1 + β2 hat x2 + β3 hat x3 +β4 hat x4; where y1 hat = estimated *Talent attraction*, x1 = *Physical wellbeing*, x2 = *Emotional wellbeing*, x3 = *Psychological wellbeing*, x4 = *Social wellbeing*, whilst β0, β1, β2, β3 and β4 are the estimates of the y-intercept and the slopes for *Physical wellbeing*, *Emotional wellbeing*, *Psychological wellbeing*, and *Social wellbeing*, respectively.

The meso-level analysis focuses on the productive energy of groups and teams in improving overall productivity. Productive energy is the extent to which group effectiveness assists employees in coping with new job demands. Productive energy has either a negative or positive impact on organizational efficiency and effectiveness. Salanova, Del Líbano, Llorens, and Schaufeli (2014) conducted research on wellness among different groups of employees, and found that both job- and personal resources influence employee wellbeing. Their results show

that enthusiastic employees experience significantly more positive outcomes than less enthusiastic employees. Trust and group synergy have also been confirmed as essential aspects of productive energy, as these increase employees' ability to commit and engage long term in organizational interactions, with positive organizational outcomes.

From a practical perspective, this is developmental to the employees, as it increases their capacity and propensity to effectively perform at work. Without adequately addressing workgroup concerns, organizational relationships and interactions will tend to be pervaded with deviant workplace behaviors and conflict. This will ultimately result in high levels of organizational ineffectiveness and dysfunctional behaviors, such as social loafing and conflict within and between groups. As such, employee development and wellness need to focus on all levels: physical, emotional, psychological, and social (Baruch, Singh, Halliday, & Hammond, 2021). In light of the preceding, we therefore hypothesize that:

H_{a2}: There is a statistically significant relationship between talent development and the following employee wellbeing attributes: physical wellbeing, emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing and social wellbeing.

Regression Model 3:

y2hat = β0hat + β1 hat x1 + β2 hat x2 + β3 hat x3 +β4 hat x4; where y2 hat = estimated *Talent development*, x1 = *Physical wellbeing*, x2 = *Emotional wellbeing*, x3 = *Psychological wellbeing*, x4 = *Social wellbeing*, whilst β0, β1, β2, β3 and β4 are the estimates of the y-intercept and the slopes for *Physical wellbeing*, *Emotional wellbeing*, *Psychological wellbeing*, and *Social wellbeing*, respectively.

The micro-level is concerned with providing employees with a set of motivating resources such as social support from colleagues and superiors, performance feedback, and opportunities for learning and development. The JD-R Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) focuses on emotional

wellness, of which the main detractors are emotional labor and burnout (exhaustion of physical or emotional strength or motivation, emanating from stress or frustration) (Nzonzo & Du Plessis, 2020). Consequently, investment in decent work practices that promote employee wellbeing (i.e. physical, emotional, psychological, and social) and resilience is critical, not only to support individual health and wellbeing, but also to improve the profitability and sustainability of the organization (Cooper & Bevan, 2014), and could significantly enhance the retention of employees. VUCA conditions challenge both the traditional and local leadership practices, which rely on hierarchical control and predictability. Therefore, we hypothesized that:

H_{a3}: There is a statistically significant relationship between talent retention and the following employee wellbeing attributes: physical wellbeing, emotional wellbeing, psychological wellbeing, and social wellbeing.

Regression Model 4:

$y_3 hat = \beta_0 hat + \beta_1$ hat $x_1 + \beta_2$ hat $x_2 + \beta_3$ hat $x_3 + \beta_4$ hat x_4; where y_3 hat = estimated *Talent retention*, x_1 = *Physical wellbeing*, x_2 = *Emotional wellbeing*, x_3 = *Psychological wellbeing*, x_4 = *Social wellbeing*, whilst β_0, β_1, β_2, β_3 and β_4 are the estimates of the y-intercept and the slopes for *Physical wellbeing*, *Emotional wellbeing*, *Psychological wellbeing, and Social wellbeing,* respectively.

Methodology

This study was grounded in the positivist paradigm, underpinned by a quantitative research approach, utilizing a cross-sectional survey design. Positivism was appropriate for the study, as the research aimed to describe the results in quantitative terms (cf. Ryu, 2020). The population for the study comprised HR professionals registered with the South African Board for People Practices (SABPP). The rationale for this choice was mainly the specialist nature of

the data required for the research; the research required respondents who possessed knowledge of talent management and employee wellbeing processes in organizations in a VUCA environment. The population consisted of all 1 110 chartered HR professionals (CHRPs) registered with the SABPP and listed in its Annual Integrated Report of 2015. Stratified sampling strategy was employed, based on the assumption that the resulting sample would show the same distribution (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

Expert sampling, a form of purposive sampling, was used in identifying the HR practitioners to be considered for the study. Since this study aimed at relating theory to practice and using the techniques of systematic enquiry to gather data to inform planned actions, purposive sampling and stratified sampling were deemed applicable. Based on sample-size guidelines by Barlett, Kotrlik, and Higgins (2001), the estimated sample size was 286, and, after considering the issue on non-response, it was revised to 250. Table 1 shows the multistage sampling method adopted for the study.

Table 1: Multistage Sampling Process

Stage	**Sampling method**	**Multistage Sampling Process**
1	Census	Identification of registered HR professionals (1 110)
2	Stratified sampling	Classification of the professionals according to sector (public or private sector)
3	Purposive sampling (expert sampling)	Considered professionals according to occupational/managerial level

Source: Researchers' own construction

Although this research was conducted before the outbreak of Covid-19, structured questionnaires were administered online, through SurveyMonkey, as respondents were located in various provinces of South Africa, and it was not feasible to physically distribute the questionnaires. The questionnaire comprised 49 items, formulated by the researchers, with responses indicated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = *Strongly disagree* to

5 = *Strongly agree*. The use of a Likert scale ensured face validity. In addition, scale items were checked for reliability to establish internal consistency, and all items had a Cronbach alpha above 0.6 (see Table 2), which is deemed acceptable in quantitative studies (Meeker & Escobar, 2014). For newly created surveys, reliability factors greater than or equal to 0.60 are considered acceptable (Adamson & Prion, 2013).

Table 2: Summary of the Cronbach alphas of *Talent management* and *Employee wellbeing*

Code	Variable	Cronbach Alpha	No. of Items
y	**Talent Management**	0.757	3
y1	Talent attraction	0.630	6
y2	Talent development	0.639	6
y3	Talent retention	0.725	6
x	**Employee wellbeing**	0.793	4
x1	Physical wellbeing	0.610	5
x2	Emotional wellbeing	0.722	5
x3	Psychological wellbeing	0.725	5
x4	Social wellbeing	0.676	5

Results

This section reports the results of the study. The data were captured in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 25 for further analysis. First, the demographics of respondents, including their gender, age group, ethnic group, and education levels, are reported in tabular form. This is followed by the results of the inferential statistics.

Response Rate

The questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 286. A total of 210 responses were received, yielding a response rate of 73.42%. This is an exceptional rate, and bespeaks interest in the

topic and the importance of this research. Baruch and Holtom (2008) state that a response rate greater than 50% is regarded as acceptable.

Demographic Characteristics

The demographic information captured included gender, age, province, ethnicity, education, industry, and work experience, as shown in Table 3, below.

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics

Demographic Characteristics	Category	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	129	61.4
	Male	81	38.6
Age	20–29	30	14.3
	30–39	60	28.6
	40–49	78	37.1
	50–59	40	19.0
	60–69	1	.5
	>/= 70	1	.5
Representation by province	GP	112	53.3
	WC	22	10.5
	EC	19	9.0
	FS	12	5.7
	KZN	11	5.2
	L	13	6.2
	NW	10	4.8
	NC	6	2.9
	MP	5	2.4
Ethnicity	Asian	2	1.0
	Black African	153	72.9
	Indian	7	3.3
	White	42	20.0
	Colored	6	2.9
Education	Diploma	47	22.4
	Undergraduate degree	61	29.0
	Honors degree	41	19.5
	Master's degree	47	22.4

	Doctoral degree	14	6.7
Industry segmentation	Automotive	3	1.4
	Banking	8	3.8
	Construction	3	1.4
	Education	53	25.2
	Engineering	11	5.2
	Tourism and hospitality	10	4.8
	Government	26	12.4
	Health	20	9.5
	Telecommunications	23	11.0
	Manufacturing	17	8.1
	Mining	12	5.7
	NGOs	8	3.8
	Retail	16	7.6
Work experience	< 1 year	21	10.0
	1–3 years	60	28.6
	4–6 years	55	26.2
	7–9 years	23	11.0
	=/> 10 years	51	24.3

The respondents comprised 129 (61.4%) women and 81 (38.6%) men. The female respondents outnumbering the male respondents is a true reflection of gender representation in this field in South Africa.

The majority (78 or 37.1%) fell into the age group 40–49 years, followed by 30–39 years (with 60 respondents or 28.6%), 50–59 years, with 40 respondents (19%), and 20–29 years with 30 respondents (14.3%). A few respondents were aged 60–79 and above 70, representing 0.5% each.

The majority of the respondents, 112 (53.3%), were from Gauteng province (GP), followed by the Western Cape (WC), with 22 respondents (10.5%), 19 (9%) from the Eastern Cape (EC), 12 (5.7%) from the Free State (FS), 11 (5.2%) from KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), 13 (6.2%) from Limpopo (L), and 13 (6.2%) from North West (NW). A minority of respondents were located in the Northern Cape (NC) and Mpumalanga (MP), six (2.9%) and five (2.4%) respectively.

All five main racial groups in the South African workplace, namely Asian, black African, Indian, white, and Colored participated. The majority of the respondents, 153 (72.9%), were black African, followed by white (42 or 20%). The other racial groups were in the minority, i.e. Indian (seven, or 3.3%), Colored (six, or 2.9%), and Asian (two, or 1%).

With regard to level of education, the majority of respondents (61 or 29%) held a bachelor's degree, followed by a Master's degree or diploma, with 47 (22.4%) respondents each. A total of 41 (19.5%) respondents held and honors degree, and 14 (6.7%) held a doctorate.

With regard to industry, 53 (25.2%) were from the education sector, followed by government, with 26 (12.4%) respondents. The telecommunications sector ranked third, with 23 (11%) respondents. Sectors with the lowest representation were: health (20, or 9.5%), manufacturing (17, or 8.1%), retail (16, or 7.6%), mining (12, or 5.7%), engineering (11, or 5.2%), and tourism and hospitality (10. or 4.8%). The NGO- and the banking sectors had eight (3.8%) respondents each, and the automotive and construction sectors had three (1.4%) respondents each.

All respondents had experience in talent management and wellness, and were thus able to provide informed responses. A total of 60 (28.6%) respondents had 1–3 years' experience in HRM and/or employee wellness, followed by 55 (26.2%) with 4–6 years' experience and 51 (24.3%) with more than 10 years' experience. A minority had 7–9 years' experience (23, or 11%) or less than one year's experience (21, or 10%).

Results

Model 1: Main hypothesis on talent management and employee wellbeing

The study found a positive significant positive association between *Talent management* and *Employee wellbeing* ($r = 0.675$; $p < 0.01$). Therefore, H_a is supported.

Table 4: Model 1 Regression Analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R-square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.675	**.456**	.453	.285
a. Predictor: (constant) *Employee wellbeing*				

The R-square of this model was 0.456, which meant that 45.6% of the variation in *Talent management* was explained by *Employee wellbeing*.

Table 5: Model 1 Coefficients

Coefficients								
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	(Constant)	1.478	.214		6.907	.000	1.056	1.900
	Employee wellbeing	.637	.051	.675	12.512	.000	.537	.738
a. Dependent variable: *Talent management*								

As shown in Table 5, the standardized coefficient beta was 0.675. This indicated that *Employee wellbeing* made the largest contribution to variance in the dependent variable (*Talent management*). The beta coefficient was positive, indicating a positive influence.

Interpretation:

A 1-unit increase in *Employee wellbeing* (*EW*) will cause an increase of 0.637 in *Talent management*.

The model is represented by the following equation:

$$\textbf{\textit{Talent management}} = 1.478 + 0.637\ (\textbf{\textit{EW}})$$

Model 2: *Talent attraction*

The correlation supported a significant positive relationship between *Talent attraction* and the following *Employee wellbeing* attributes: *Physical wellbeing*, *Emotional wellbeing*, *Psychological wellbeing*, and *Social wellbeing*. Therefore, H_2 is supported.

Table 6: Model 2 Regression Analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R-square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.639	**.408**	.395	.391
a. Predictors: (constant) *Social wellbeing, Physical wellbeing, Emotional wellbeing, Psychological wellbeing*				

Source: Research Survey (2020)

The R-square of the model was 0.408, which meant the model showed that 40.8% of the variation in *Talent attraction* was influenced by the following *Employee wellbeing* attributes: *Physical wellbeing*, *Emotional wellbeing*, *Psychological wellbeing*, and *Social wellbeing*.

Table 7: Model 2 Coefficients

Coefficients								
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
2	(Constant)	.941	.304		3.096	.002	.341	1.541
	Physical wellbeing	.052	.072	.052	.727	.468	-.089	.193
	Emotional wellbeing	.213	.086	.199	2.492	.014	.044	.382
	Psychological wellbeing	.152	.078	.161	1.943	.054	-.002	.307
	Social wellbeing	.337	.062	.377	5.431	.000	.214	.459
a. Dependent variable: *Talent attraction*								

As shown in Table 6, all the beta coefficients indicated that all the independent variables positively influenced the dependent variable.

Interpretations:

- An increase in *Physical wellbeing* (*PW*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.052 in *Talent attraction*.
- An increase in *Emotional wellbeing* (*EW*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.213 in *Talent attraction*.

- An increase in *Psychological wellbeing* (*PWB*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.152 in *Talent attraction*.
- An increase in *Social wellbeing* (*SW*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.337 in *Talent attraction*.

The model is represented by the following equation:

Talent attraction* = 0.941 + 0.052 *(PW)* + 0.213 *(EW)* + 0.152 *(PWB)* + 0.337 *(SW)

Model 3: Talent Development

Table 8 Model 3 Regression Analysis

Model Summary				
Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R-square	Std. Error of the Estimate
2	.540	**.291**	.276	.361
a. Predictors: (constant) *Social wellbeing, Physical wellbeing, Emotional wellbeing, Psychological wellbeing*				

The R-square of this model was 0.291, which meant that 29.1% of the variation in *Talent development* was influenced by the following *Employee wellbeing* attributes: *Physical wellbeing*, *Emotional wellbeing*, *Psychological wellbeing*, and *Social wellbeing*.

Table 9: Model 3 Coefficients

Coefficients							
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	1.827	.280		6.520	.000	1.274	2.380
Physical wellbeing	.109	.066	.130	1.655	.100	-.021	.239
Emotional wellbeing	.151	.079	.167	1.910	.058	-.005	.306
Psychological wellbeing	.189	.072	.236	2.609	.010	.046	.331
Social wellbeing	.105	.057	.139	1.835	.068	-.008	.217
a. Dependent variable: *Talent development*							

Referring to Table 9, above, the beta coefficients implied that all the independent variables influenced the dependent variable positively.

Interpretations:

- An increase in *Physical wellbeing* (*PW*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.109 in *Talent development*.
- An increase in *Emotional wellbeing* (*EW*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.151 in *Talent development*.
- An increase in *Psychological wellbeing* (*PWB*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.189 in *Talent development*.
- An increase in *Social wellbeing* (*SW*) by 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.105 in *Talent development*.

The model is represented by the following equation:

$$\textit{Talent development} = 1.827 + 0.109\ (PW) + 0.151\ (EW) + 0.189\ (PWB) + 0.105\ (SW)$$

Model 4: *Talent retention*

Table 10. Model 4 Regression Analysis

Model 4 Summary				
Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R-square	Std. Error of the Estimate
3	.513	**.263**	.247	.413
a. Predictors: (constant) *Social wellbeing, Physical wellbeing, Emotional wellbeing, Psychological wellbeing*				

The R-square of this model was 0.263, which meant the model explained that 26.3% of the variation in *Talent retention* was influenced by the following *Employee wellbeing* attributes: *Physical wellbeing, Emotional wellbeing, Psychological wellbeing,* and *Social wellbeing*.

Table 11: Model 4 Coefficients

Coefficients								
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
4	(Constant)	1.807	.321		5.628	.000	1.173	2.440
	Physical wellbeing	.187	.075	.198	2.471	.014	.038	.336
	Emotional wellbeing	.075	.090	.074	.834	.405	-.103	.254
	Psychological wellbeing	.226	.083	.252	2.730	.007	.063	.390
	Social wellbeing	.094	.065	.111	1.434	.153	-.035	.223
a. Dependent variable: *Talent retention*								

As depicted in Table 11, above, all the beta coefficients were positive, indicating that all the independent variables influenced the dependent variable positively.

Interpretations:

- An increase in *Physical wellbeing* (*PW*)of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.187 in *Talent retention*.
- An increase in *Emotional wellbeing* (*EW*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.075 in *Talent retention*.
- An increase in *Psychological wellbeing* (*PWB*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.226 unit in *Talent retention*.
- An increase in *Social wellbeing* (*SW*) of 1 unit, while all other independent variables remain constant, will cause an increase of 0.094 unit in *Talent Retention*.

The model is represented by the following equation:

$$\textbf{\textit{Talent retention}} = 1.807 + 0.187\,\textit{(PW)} + 0.075\,\textit{(EW)} + 0.226\,\textit{(PWB)} + 0.094\,\textit{(SW)}$$

Discussion of Results

The main objective of this study was to determine the strategic role of HRM in a VUCA world from a talent wellness perspective. The results of the study validate the importance of strategic HRM to sustain employee talent-wellness in the VUCA environment, as highlighted by Ochoa et al. (2019). HRM practices should be aimed at increasing employees' psychological resources in the form of self-efficacy, hope, resilience, and psychological safety, which increase their wellness, as indicated in the research by Agarwal (2021). As presented in the results section, the R-square of this model was 0.456, which meant that 45.6% of the variation in *Talent management* was explained by *Employee wellbeing*. This further indicated that *Employee wellbeing* made a stronger and unique contribution in explaining the dependent variable *Talent management*. This correlation supports a significant positive relationship (large effect) between talent management and employee wellbeing; therefore, H_a is supported.

With reference to Table 4, the standardized coefficient beta was 0.675. This indicates that employee wellbeing is positively associated with talent management. These findings are supported by extant literature. De Simone (2014) identified two interrelated sets of consequences of wellbeing in the workplace. One has the most direct implications for individuals — physical, psychological, and behavioral consequences. The other set of consequences is financial, and includes issues such as loss of productivity.

Based on this research, we can infer that talent management requires an integrated and holistic process that focuses on, first, attracting high-potential employees; second, the deployment of skilled employees; third, development that is aimed at enhancing employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities; and, finally, retention practices that focus on increasing commitment and reducing labor turnover. The above validate the research findings of Baruch, Singh, Halliday, and Hammond (2021), Bayat and Cissna (2022), and Rajesh, Ekambaram, Rakesh, and Kumar (2019) that the rate of change in a VUCA environment is much faster (and less predictable)

than in past decades, and, as such, efforts towards talent management for the thriving of organizations in a VUCA world should be directed towards talent management (attracting, hiring, retaining, and developing talent) and wellness interventions. As evidenced by this research, *Talent attraction* was found to have a significant positive relationship with the following *Employee wellbeing* attributes: *Physical wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.379$; $p < 0.01$), *Emotional wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.468$; $p < 0.01$), *Psychological wellbeing* (large effect) ($r = 0.525$; $p < 0.01$), and *Social wellbeing* (large effect) ($r = 0.560$; $p < 0.01$).

Furthermore, all the beta coefficients indicated that the employee wellbeing attributes influence talent attraction positively. Thus, effective talent wellness strategies ultimately lead to effective talent management, which enhances organizational success at the macro (strategic) level, meso (group) level, and micro (individual) level.

The study also validated the application of the JD-R Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) in talent wellness management in a VUCA world, confirming the research findings of Bakker and Demerouti (2007). Furthermore, job demands and resources, as described by Carlson et al. (2017) also play a role in talent wellness management in a VUCA environment. Job demands — the physical, social, and organizational aspects of the job — require sustained physical or mental effort by employees in order to achieve the strategic objectives of the organization. To create an environment in which employees thrive requires an integrated evaluation of employee wellbeing (Avey, Luthans, Smith, & Palmer, 2010).

The present study confirms that there is a significant positive relationship between *Talent development* and the following *Employee wellbeing* attributes: *Physical wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.392$; $p < 0.01$), *Emotional wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.441$; $p < 0.01$), *Psychological wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.482$; $p < 0.01$), and *Social wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.381$; $p < 0.01$). These results are aligned to extant literature; for example, the work

of Meyer (2014) and Thunnissen, Boselie, and Fruytier (2013), who posit that employees should be encouraged to develop their professional competency to improve wellness, which was supported by Kim and Jung (2022) who found employee competence affects employees' wellbeing by limiting stress and possible burnout.

The results show a significant positive relationship between *Talent retention* and the following *Employee wellbeing* attributes: *Physical wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.403$; $p < 0.01$), *Emotional wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.388$; $p < 0.01$), *Psychological wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.458$; $p < 0.01$), and *Social wellbeing* (medium effect) ($r = 0.352$; $p < 0.01$). These results validate the theoretical stance that investments in good work practices to foster employee wellbeing and resilience are critical to, not only support individual health and wellbeing, but to improve the organization's bottom line and increase the retention of employees (Cooper & Bevan, 2014).

However, employee wellbeing is a subjective experience; employees may construe the effects of talent retention efforts on work-related outcomes differently. As such, employers should ensure that a variety of talent wellness interventions are made available to employees, and not assume that one strategy will work for all.

Theoretical and Managerial Implications

Theoretical implications

From a theoretical perspective, this study expands the integrated academic understanding of talent management and wellness. Most research in this field lacks an integrated perspective on talent and wellness, with inconsistent assumptions based on the specific research ideologies related to researchers' fields of specialization. Whether one takes a wellness-centric or a talent management-centric approach (Field & Louw, 2012; Guest, 2017; Hattie, Myers, & Sweeney,

2004; Thunnissen et al., 2013), there is an urgent need to facilitate the implementation and improvement of talent- and wellness management. Therefore, this study makes a significant contribution to the way in which the integration of talent management and wellness as a phenomenon should be understood theoretically, as well as how it should be developed further in organizational research and practice.

This study highlights the importance of an understanding of the theory and practice of the strategic HR management process from a VUCA perspective: Strategic HRM plays an essential role in the formulation, implementation, and evaluation of a variety of strategies that underpin organizational performance. Thus, HR practitioners need to have a clear understanding of the business strategy and how to ensue alignment of HRM strategies with business strategy (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Dinwoodie Quinn, & McGuire, 2014; Dowell & Silzer, 2010), to effectively managing talent-wellness. This is crucially important in ensuring holistic and effective talent management in a VUCA context such as South Africa.

The role of HRM in talent management has changed since the COVID-19 pandemic, and much more must be done to focus on employee talent-wellness. In the words of Chamorro-Premuzic and Yearsley (2017): 'The war for talent is over and everybody lost.'

Managerial Implications

This research highlights important practical insights into redefining HR management's strategic role in a VUCA world from a talent wellness perspective. HR managers who do not effectively optimize the integration of employee wellbeing in the talent management process will face the challenges of managing the negative effects of a VUCA world. If employees are provided with a conducive work environment that promotes positive flourishing, coupled with coaching and support, it is likely that such employees will strive to perform their duties effectively when considered at the organizational (strategic) level. It is suggested that coaching may be a useful

process ensuring talented individuals being groomed for higher positions understand the nature and impact of VUCA conditions (Baruch et al., 2021; Bayat & Cissna, 2022).

At the individual level, an employee may be facing challenges in terms of balancing work and family needs (work–life integration), or may be affected by a prevailing mind-set, values, and beliefs are not congruent with the organizational value system or culture. This will have a negative impact on the way employees execute their duties, with a negative spill-over into team synergy, and, ultimately, teams' functioning and performance (Kartha, Fowler, & Fraser, 2017).

When implementing wellness programs, it is essential that organizations continuously evaluate the processes and procedures (Erasmus, Schenk, & Tshilongamulenzhe, 2017), and make the necessary adjustments to the program. Central to this argument is the fact that poor adoption and application of talent management practices negatively impact individual outcomes such as job satisfaction, as well as organizational outcomes such as service quality and performance.

Conclusion

The results of this study reveal that the integration of employee wellbeing in the talent management process is essential for the effective optimization of employee performance and enhancing organizational productivity, growth, and competitive advantage in a VUCA environment. To survive in this environment, organizations have to ensure that their employees are physically, emotionally, psychologically, and socially well. The findings of this study provide HR professionals and other relevant stakeholders with insights into how to effectively integrate and manage talent and wellness initiatives. As organizations continue to face regulatory and operational challenges emanating from the internal and external environment, the findings of this study are essential for enhancing the holistic management of talent in order to promote organizational success.

Limitations and Areas for Further Research

The was limited to the context of South African organizations. As talent- and wellness-management issues are challenges that companies worldwide grapple with, researchers could replicate the study in other contexts. Comparisons may also yield additional information.

Researchers could also complement the current study's quantitative approach with qualitative data, in order gain greater depth of understanding regarding the constructs under study.

References

Abidi, D. (2018). Fostering organizational capabilities through soft skills: A strategic imperative for a VUCA world. *Discussion Papers in Economics And Business, Osaka University*, (18–08). (pp. 1-9).

Adamson, K. A., & Prion, S. (2013). Reliability: Measuring internal consistency using Cronbach. *Open Journal of Business and Management*, *9*(1), 32-49.

Abraham, J., & White, K. M. (2017). Tracking the changing landscape of corporate wellness companies. *Health Affairs*, *36*(2), 222-228.

Agarwal, P. (2021). Shattered but smiling: Human resource management and the wellbeing of hotel employees during COVID-19. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *93*, 102765.

Agarwal, P., & Farndale, E. (2017). High-performance work systems and creativity implementation: The role of psychological capital and psychological safety. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *27*(3), 440-458.

Andrews, T., Crosby, G., Carrigan, R., Fewell, C., Ly, S., Papworth, M., Santos, K., Timilsina, A., & Donnelly, T. T. (2019). Enhancing employees 'health and wellbeing: Developing a successful holistic wellness challenge. *International Journal of Nursing Student Scholarship*, *6*, 1-27.

Avey, J. B., Luthans, F., Smith, R. M., & Palmer, N. F. (2010). Impact of positive psychological capital on employee well-being over time. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, *15*(1), 17-27.

Bakker, A. B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The Job Demands–Resources Model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *22*(3), 309-328.

Barlett, J. E., Kotrlik, J. W., & Higgins, C. C. (2001). Organizational research: Determining appropriate sample size in survey research. *Information Technology, Learning, and Performance Journal*, *19*(1), 43-50.

Barnard, A. (2018). Well-being, more than a dream: Women constructing metaphors of strength. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *9*, 1186.

Baruch, D., Singh, D., Halliday, C., & Hammond, J. (2021). Applying LEAN strategies to crisis leadership. *Nursing Management*, *52*(2), 36-41.

Baruch, Y., & Holtom, B. C. (2008). Survey response rate levels and trends in organizational research. *Human Relations*, *61*(8), 1139-1160.

Bayat, N., & Cissna, K. (2022). Supporting leadership success in times of global disruption: Best practices for transformational executive coaching. In *Leadership after COVID-19*. (pp. 323-346). Springer.

Bennett, N., & Lemoine, G. J. (2014). What a difference a word makes: Understanding threats to performance in a VUCA world. *Business Horizons*, *57*(3), 311-317. doi: 10.1016/j.bushor.2014.01.001

Berman, E. M., Bowman, J. S., West, J. P., & Van Wart, M. R. (2019). Human resource management in public service: Paradoxes, processes, and problems. Sage, CQ Press.

Boudreau, J. W., & Ramstad, P. M. (2005). Talentship, talent segmentation, and sustainability: A new HR decision science paradigm for a new strategy definition. *Human Resource Managemen*t, *44*(2), 129-136.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2011). *Business research methods* (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Caligiuri, P., De Cieri, H., Minbaeva, D., Verbeke, A., & Zimmermann, A. (2020). International HRM insights for navigating the COVID-19 pandemic: Implications for future research and practice. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *51*(5), 97-713.

Carlson, J. R., Carlson, D. S., Zivnuska, S., Harris, R. B. & Harris, K. J. (2017). Applying the job demands resources model to understand technology as a predictor of turnover intentions.*Computers in Human Behavior*, *77*, 317-325. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2017.09.009.

Cascio, W. F., & Boudreau, J. W. (2016). The search for global competence: From international HR to talent management. *Journal of World Business, 51*(1), 103-114.

Chamorro-Premuzic, T., & Yearsley, A. (2017). The war for talent is over … and everybody lost. Available at: https://www.fastcompany.com/3069078/the-war-for-talent-is-over-and-everyone-lost

Chinyamurindi, W. T. (2019). Framing career wellbeing amongst expatriate workers: A narrative analysis. In *Theory, research and dynamics of career wellbeing* (pp. 283-307). Springer.

Collings, D. G. (2014). Toward mature talent management: Beyond shareholder value. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *25*(3), 301-319.

Cooper, C., & Bevan, S. (2014). Business benefits of a healthy workforce. In: A. Day, K. D. Randell, E. Kelloway, and J. Hurrell Jr. (Eds.), *Workplace wellbeing: How to build psychologically healthy workplaces* (pp. 27-49). Wiley Blackwell.

Day, A., & Randell, K. D. (2014). Building a foundation for psychologically healthy workplaces and wellbeing. In A. Day, K. D. Randell, E. Kelloway, and J. Hurrell Jr. (Eds.), *Workplace wellbeing: How to build psychologically healthy workplaces* (pp. 3-26). Wiley Blackwell.

De Boeck, G., Meyers, M. C., & Dries, N. (2018). Employee reactions to talent management: Assumptions versus evidence. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *39*(2), 199-213.

De Neve, J.-E., Diener, E., Tay, L., & Xuereb, C. (2013). The objective benefits of subjective well-being. In: J. F. Helliwell, R. Layard, & J. Sachs (Eds.), *World Happiness Report 2013* (2nd ed.) (pp. 54-79). UN Sustainable Network Development Solutions Network.

De Simone, S. (2014). Conceptualizing wellbeing in the workplace. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, *5*(12), 118-122.

Deaton, A. V. (2018). *VUCA tools for a VUCA world: Developing leaders and teams for sustainable results*. Da Vinci.

Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The Job Demands–Resources Model of Burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*(3), 499-512.

Dhillon, R., & Nguyen, Q. C. (2021). *Strategies to respond to a VUCA world. A review of existing knowledge*. (pp. 1-84). Lunds University.

Diener, E. (1984). Subjective well-being. *Psychology Bulletin*, *95*(3), 542-575.

Dinwoodie, D. L., Quinn, L., & McGuire, J. B. (2014). *Bridging the strategy/performance gap: How leadership strategy drives business results*. White paper Center for Creative Leadership.

Dowell, B. E., & Silzer, R. F. (2010). *Strategy driven talent management: A leadership imperative*. Jossey-Bass.

Erasmus, B., Schenk, H., & Tshilongamulenzhe, H. C. (2008). *South African human resource management: Theory and practice* (5th ed.). Juta.

Field, C., & Louw, J. (2012). A theory-driven evaluation of a wellness initiative: Original research. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *10*(3), 1-8.

Gandhi, L. (2017). Human resource challenges in VUCA and SMAC business environment. *ASBM Journal of Management*, *10*(1), 1-5.

Giberson, T., & Miklos, S. (2014). Well-being and organizational outcomes. *The Industrial Organizational Psychologist*, *51*(4), 115-117.

Gilbert, S., & Kelloway, E. (2014). Positive psychology and the healthy workplace. In: A. Day, K. D. Randell, E. Kelloway, & J. Hurrell Jr. (Eds.), *Workplace wellbeing: How to build psychologically healthy workplaces* (pp. 50-71). Wiley Blackwell.

Guest, D. E. (2017). Human resource management and employee well-being: Towards a new analytic framework. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *27*(1), 22-38.

Hamid, H. (2019). The strategic position of human resource management for creating sustainable competitive advantage in the VUCA world. *Journal of Human Resources Management Labor Studies*, *7*, 1-4. DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.15640/jhrmls.v7n2a1

Hattie, J. A., Myers, J. E., & Sweeney, T. J. (2004). A factor structure of wellness: Theory, assessment, analysis, and practice. *Journal of Counselling and Development, 82*(3), 354-364.

Howe, D. C., Chauhan, R. S., Soderberg, A. T., & Buckley, M. R. (2020). Paradigm shifts caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. *Organizational Dynamics*, *50*(4). DOI: 10.1016/j.orgdyn.2020.100804

Johnston, A. E. (2018). *Re-envisioning talent management for the 4th Industrial Revolution: A systems and design thinking intervention*. Doctoral dissertation. Thomas Jefferson University.

Kartha, R. R., Fowler, M. W., & Fraser, R. A. (2017). Comparative study of the organizational structure of engineering student teams and team effectiveness. *Proceedings of the Canadian Engineering Education Association (CEEA)*.

Kim, J., & Jung, H-S. (2022). The Effect of Employee Competency and Organizational Culture on Employees' Perceived Stress for Better Workplace. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *19*, 4428. https:// doi.org/10.3390/ijerph19084428

Kontoghiorghes, C. (2016). Linking high performance organizational culture and talent management: Satisfaction/motivation and organizational commitment as mediators. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *27*(16), 1833-1853.

Loon, M., Otaye-Ebede, L., & Stewart, J. (2018). The paradox of employee psychological well-being practices: An integrative literature review and new directions for research. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *30*(1), 1-32. DOI: 1-32.10.1080/09585192.2018.1479877

Lumme-Tuomala, R. (2017). *Talent management in the humanitarian aid context*. DBA thesis. Helsinki, Aalto University Publication Series.

Mayer C. H., & Walach, H. (2018). Workplace spirituality in contemporary South Africa. In: S. Dhiman, G. Roberts, & J. Crossman (Eds.), *The Palgrave handbook of workplace spirituality and fulfilment*. (pp. 1-18). Palgrave Macmillan.

Meeker, W. Q., & Escobar, L. A. (2014). *Statistical methods for reliability data*. John Wiley and Sons.

Meyer, M. (2014). *Human resource management in the Republic of South Africa. The development of human resource management across nations: Unity and diversity*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Michie, J., Sparrow, P., Hird, M., & Cooper, C. (2015). *Do we need HR? Repositioning people management for success.* Palgrave MacMillan.

Mirzapour, M., Toutian, S. S., Mehrara, A., & Khorrampour, S. (2019). The strategic role of human resource management in crisis management considering the mediating role of

organizational culture. *International Journal of Human Capital and Urban Management*, *4*(1), 43-50.

Moritz, B. (2016). 20 years inside the mind of the CEO … What's next? In: *20th CEO Survey*. PwC. Available at: https://www.pwc.com/gx/en/ceo-survey/2017/pwc-ceo-20th-survey-report-2017.pdf

Mousa, M., & Ayoubi, R. M. (2019). Inclusive/exclusive talent management, responsible leadership and organizational downsizing: A study of academics in Egyptian public business schools. *Journal of Management Development*, 1-19. https://doi.org/10.1108/JMD-11-2018-0325

Muli, J. V., Muathe, S., & Muchiri, M. (2014). Human resource work family support services and employees' performance within the banking industry in Nairobi county, Kenya. *International Journal of Human and Social Sciences*, *4*(7), 158-170.

Nangia, M., & Mohsin, F. (2020). Revisiting talent management practices in a pandemic driven VUCA environment – a qualitative investigation in the Indian IT industry. *Journal of Critical Reviews*, *7*(7), 937-942.

Naznin, H., & Hussain, M. A. (2016). Strategic value contribution role of HR. *Vision*, *20*(2), 135-138.

Nzonzo, J. C., & Du Plessis, Y. (2020). Critical success factors for integrating talent management strategies with wellness interventions. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(0), 1-11.

Ochoa, P., Lepeley, M. T., & Essens, P. (Eds.). (2019). *Wellbeing for sustainability in the global workplace*. Routledge.

Passey, D. G., Hammerback, K., Huff, A., Harris, J. R., & Hannon, P. A. (2018). The role of managers in employee wellness programs: A mixed-methods study. *American Journal of Health Promotion*, *32*(8), 1697-1705.

Pearse, N. J. (2017). Change management in a VUCA world. In: R. Elkington, M. Van der Steege, J. Glick-Smith, & J. Moss Breen (Eds.), *Visionary leadership in a turbulent world: Thriving in the new VUCA context*. (pp. 81-105). Emerald Publishing.

Rajesh, S., Ekambaram, K., Rakesh, A., & Kumar, D. (2019). Gender inclusion in an Indian VUCA world. *NHRD Network Journal*, *12*(2), 112-122.

Rius Bosch, C. (2019). *Human resources management practices for organizational commitment*. (pp. 1-34). University of Barcelona.

Rodríguez-Sánchez, J. L., González-Torres, T., Montero-Navarro, A., & Gallego-Losada, R. (2020). Investing time and resources for work–life balance: The effect on talent retention. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, *17*(6), 20-14. DOI: 10.3390/ijerph17061920

Ryff, C. D., & Keyes, C. L. M. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personnel Social Psychology*, *69*(4), 719-727.

Ryu, S. (2020). The role of mixed methods in conducting design-based research. *Educational Psychologist*, *55*(4), 232-243.

Salanova, M., Del Líbano, M., Llorens, S., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2014). Engaged, workaholic, burned-out or just 9-to-5? Toward a typology of employee well-being. *Stress and Health*, *30*(1), 71-81.

Sasmal, S. (2019). Navigating HR journey in exponential times. *NHRD Network Journal*, *12*(2), 97-103.

Steverink, N., Lindenberg, S., Spiegel, T., & Nieboer, A. P. (2020). The associations of different social needs with psychological strengths and subjective well-being: An empirical investigation based on social production function theory. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *21*(3), 799-824.

Stone, D. L., Deadrick, D. L., Lukaszewski, K. M., & Johnson, R. (2015). The influence of technology on the future of human resource management. *Human Resource Management Review*, *25*(2), 216-231.

Tarique, I., Briscoe, D. R., & Schuler, R. S. (2015). *International human resource management* (5th ed.). Routledge.

Thunnissen, M., Boselie, P., & Fruytier, B. (2013). A review of talent management: 'Infancy or adolescence?' *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *24*(9), 1744-1761. doi: 10.1080/09585192.2013.777543

Tomcikova, L., Svetozarovova, N., & Coculova, J. (2021). Challenges and priorities in talent management during the global pandemic caused by COVID-19. *Marketing and Management of Innovations*, *2*, 94-103. http://doi.org/10.21272/mmi.2021.2-08

Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2012). What is talent? *Leader to Leader*, *63*, 55-61.

Van Zyl, E. S., Mathafena, R. B., & Ras, J. (2017). The development of a talent management framework for the private sector. *SA Journal of Human Resource*, *15*(1), 1-19.

World Health Organization (WHO) (1946). Preamble to the Constitution of the World Health Organization. WHO. Available at: https://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/268691

Žižek, S. Š., Mulej, M., & Čančer, V. (2017). Health-promoting leadership culture and its role in workplace health promotion occupational health. *InTechOpen, 1*, 50-59. http://dx.doi.org/10.5772/65672