

**TALENT MANAGEMENT: A CASE STUDY OF NAMIBIA'S
DIRECTORATE OF CIVIL AVIATION (DCA) IN SECURING TALENT
FOR AVIATION SAFETY, 2008 TO 2014**

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George Simataa

(Student Number: 11s0008)

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ABSTRACT

This study is about talent management, focusing on a case study of the initiatives undertaken by the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) of Namibia over the period 2008 to 2014 in securing talent for aviation safety. The International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) regularly assesses the extent to which member states comply with their safety oversight responsibilities. According to a 1996 report by the ICAO, under the auspices of its Universal Safety Oversight and Security Audit Programme (USOSAP), Namibia's safety oversight was found to be weak, as indicative of the State's inability to guarantee the safety of aircraft operations within the national airspace (ICAO, 1996). One of the significant audit findings was the critical shortage of qualified professionals at the Directorate Civil Aviation (DCA) to effectively perform the State's regulatory and oversight function as contained in the Chicago Convention of 1944. The shortage of qualified professionals resulted in Namibia being unable to respond to its obligations and responsibilities under the Chicago Convention and Namibia's subsequent blacklisting by the ICAO Audit Result Review Board (ARRB). Consequently, a corrective action plan was undertaken. This study examines one aspect of this plan, namely the initiatives that were undertaken to secure the talent required for aviation safety posts.

The aim of the research is, from the perspective of talent management, to analyse the corrective action plan of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA), as a process of securing talent for strategic positions in aviation safety in Namibia. This initiative was analysed from the perspective of the fourth stream of talent management, which emphasises securing talent for strategic positions (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Huselid & Becker, 2011). Taking into account the fact that Namibia was a racially and culturally divided society until about 25 years ago, the study also deals with issues of diversity management as they impacted upon the talent management of the civil aviation industry nationally. Furthermore, the study is located against the background of the Bantu Education System that was provided by the apartheid South African government to Namibians before independence in 1990. The research design of this study involved conducting a case study that followed a deductive approach. Data were collected using multiple methods and sources such as documentation, interviews and archival records. Content analysis was used in the analysis of collected data.

The findings of the study showed the talent management strategies that were adopted in managing strategic positions, the challenges encountered and the impact of the programme. The findings were initially discussed from the perspective of stream four of talent management, with its focus on strategic positions in organisations. Some of the findings of the study were in line with this approach to talent management, but certain challenges that were encountered in carrying out the talent management programme could not be addressed from this perspective, thereby exposing the limits of this approach to talent management in an emerging economy like Namibia. Consequently, a proposed model of sustainable talent management for the DCA was developed. From the perspective of this model of sustainable talent management, recommendations were made for practice and further research.

DEDICATION

To my late father and mentor, Bernard Simataa Machinga, whose sudden departure from this universe I regret so sadly, while unreservedly celebrating his successes.

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Undertaking this research as a full-time Permanent Secretary of a Ministry and later as Secretary to the Cabinet was not an easy assignment. However, despite all these, my wife, Patricia, was always on my side. She remained my source of courage and inspiration. For that, I would like to thank her whole-heartedly.

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ACRONYMS

AAIB	Aircraft Accident Investigation Bureau
AAN	Administration and Air Navigation
AEP	Airport Emergency Plan
AFCAC	African Civil Aviation Commission
AFDD	Audit Findings and Differences Database
AGA	Aerodromes and Ground Aids
AIPs	Aeronautical Information Publications;
AIR	Airworthiness
AIS	Aeronautical Information Services
AME	Aircraft Maintenance Engineers
AMHS	Aeronautical Message Handling System;
AMM	Aircraft maintenance manual
AMOs	Aircraft Maintenance Organisations
AMs	Aerodrome Manual
AOC	Air Operator Certificate
AOPA	Aircraft Owners and Pilot Association
ASI	Aviation Safety Inspector
ATC	Air Traffic Controller
ATPLs	Air Transport Pilot Licenses
ATS	Air Traffic Services
AVSEC	Aviation Security
AWS	Airworthiness
BBA	Bachelors of Business Administration
CAA	Civil Aviation Authority
CAP	Corrective Action Plan
CCICA	Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation;
CE	Critical Element
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CICA	Convention on International Civil Aviation
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development

COSCAP	Cooperative Development of Operational Safety and Continuing Airworthiness Projects
COSDEC	Community Skills Development Centres
CPLs	Commercial pilot licenses
CPS	Canadian Public Service
CSA	Comprehensive systems approach
CSCNS	Cartographic Services, Communication, Navigation and Surveillance
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DAII	Directorate of Accident and Incident Investigations
DCA	Directorate of Civil Aviation
DE	Designated Examiners
DME	Division Monitoring and Evaluation
DOA	Delegation of Authority
DODG	Directorate Organisation Development and Grading
DPSCS	Department Public Service Commission Secretariat
DPSM	Department of Public Service Management
EASA	European Aviation Safety Agency
EC	European Commission
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EIU	Economist Intelligence Unit
ETSIP	Education and Training Sector Improvement Programme
EU	European Union
FAA	Federal Aviation Administration
FAA	Federal Aviation Agency
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GPWS	Ground proximity warning system
GRN	Government Republic of Namibia
GSI	Government Safety Inspectors
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resource Management

HRP	Human Resource Planning
IATA	International Air Transport Association
IBM	International Business Machines
ICAO	International Civil Aviation Organisation
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ICVM	ICAO Coordination Validation Mission
ILO	International Labour Organisation;
IOMA	Institute of Management and Administration
ITS	Inspector Training Systems
IUM	International University of Management
JSCE	Junior Secondary Certificate Examination
KSAs	Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MNE	Multinational Enterprises
MOR	Mandatory Occurrence Reports
MWT	Ministry of Works and Transport
NAER	Namibia's Annual Economic Report
NAM-CARS	Namibian Civil Aviation Regulations
NAM-CATS	Namibian Civil Aviation Technical Standards
NAMDCA	Namibia Directorate of Civil Aviation
NCAA	Namibia Civil Aviation Authority
NCIS	Namibia Central Intelligence Services
NDF	Namibian Defence Force
NDP4	Fourth National Development Plans
NER	Net Enrolment Rate
NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
NHIES	Namibia Household Income and Expenditure survey
NHRP	National Human Resource Plan
NIPAM	Namibia Institute for Public Administration and Management
NLFS	Namibia Labour Force Survey
NQA	Namibia Qualification Authority's
NSSC	National Senior Secondary Certificate

NUST	Namibia University of Science and Technology
NVTA	National Vocational Training Act
NVTB	National Vocational Training Board
OJT	On-the-Job Training
OMA	Office/Ministry/Agency
OPM	Office of the Prime Minister
OPS	Flight Operations
PAM	Personnel Administrative Measures
PEL	Personnel Licencing
PhD	Doctorate of Philosophy
PoN	Polytechnic of Namibia
PPLs	Private Pilot Licenses
PSC	Public Service Charter
PSC	Public Service Commission
PSSR	Public Service Staff Rules
PWC	PriceWaterhouseCoopers
RC	Regional Councils
RSOO	Regional Safety Oversight Organisations
SACAA	South African Civil Aviation Authority
SADC	South African Development Commission
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SARPs	Standards and Recommended Practices
SHRM	Strategic Human Resource Management
SMEs	Subject Matter Experts
SMS	Safety Management System(s)
SOA	Safety Oversight Audit
SSC	Social Security Commission
STD	Standard
STM	Sustainable Talent Management
SWAPO	South West Africa People's Organisation
TACs	Trade Advisory Committees
TM	Talent Management

TMP	Talent Management Programme
UN	United Nations
UNAIDS	United Nations Acquired immunodeficiency Syndrome
UNAM	University of Namibia
UNCHR	United Nations Commission for Human Rights
UNICEF	United Nations Children’s Fund
UNIN	United Nations Institute for Namibia
USA	United States of America
USAP	Universal Safety Security Programmes
USOAP	Universal Safety Oversight Audits programme
USOSAP	Universal Safety Oversight and Security Audit Programme
VTCs	Vocational Training Centres

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CHAPTER 1

THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This study investigated the safety oversight role of Namibia's Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA), with a particular focus on how that organisation, severely under-resourced initially, went about securing talent equipped to improve Aviation Safety during the period 2008 to 2014. The subject of talent management was considered. In order to give contextual meaning to the discussion, the type of talent required for a regulatory authority such as the DCA was determined first. It was also important to establish why it was important for Namibia's Directorate of Civil Aviation to secure such talents. As a first step in probing the above issues, it is useful to introduce and outline the unique nature of the aviation industry itself.

This introductory chapter gives a background of the activities of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in terms of its being a regulatory authority. It also explains various civil aviation activities that are performed within the civil aviation industry which are service providers, and briefly explains the kind of services they provide. The chapter further discusses the importance of the civil aviation industry in the economy of the country. It also points out the risks and dangers of the civil aviation industry and discusses the importance of mitigating such risks by introducing the culture of safety. In keeping with the argument that the civil aviation industry is an international one, and that it is not an area in which any state, from the largest to the smallest, can reasonably decide to "go it alone", the role of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) is discussed. The chapter gives important insights on why it is essential for each ICAO member state to secure its place in the international aviation community. Furthermore, the chapter defines the research problem and sets out its primary purpose as well as the specific objectives it wishes to achieve. In addition, the chapter makes justification on the relevance and the significance of the research. Finally, the chapter provides a detailed chapter outline of all other chapters of the study before stating its conclusion.

1.2. BACKGROUND

This is a study of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in Namibia, the only regulatory body in the country at the time of the study. Traditionally, civil aviation activities take the form of a Regulatory Authority, Service Provider or an industry (ICAO, 2006). The Regulatory Authority is the civil aviation authority of a country; which is a government statutory authority that oversees the approval and regulations of civil aviation. An example of this in the Namibian case is the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA). The expression 'Service Providers' in an aviation setup refers to Air Traffic Control systems, Airports and Meteorological Services. Air Traffic Controllers provide services about information on the movement of aircrafts. Airports provide safety and security of aircrafts on the ground as well as runways for landing and taxing. On the other hand, Meteorological Services provide reports on the weather conditions. Namibia has established an Airport company, which is an authority that provides airport services in the country, but has not yet established both the Air Traffic Control and Meteorological Services as stand-alone service providers. They were still part of the sections of the DCA at the time of the study. On the other hand, the industry refers to the operators in the civil aviation that are supervised; and regulated by the civil aviation authority (Regulator).

This study, which investigates talent management of the safety oversight role of Namibia's Directorate of Civil Aviation, is from a regulatory perspective. In April 1996, the Republic of Namibia became one of the first of a few States on the African Continent that subjected itself to a voluntary audit by the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO, 1996). The status and role of the International Civil Aviation Organisation are discussed below. The 1996 ICAO audit revealed several shortcomings on the part of Namibia's regulatory authority, the DCA (ICAO, 1996). One of the critical audit findings of the 1996 was the lack of a critical mass of qualified and trained technical personnel at the Directorate Civil Aviation (DCA) to effectively perform the State's regulatory and safety oversight functions as contained in the Chicago Convention of 1944.

According to the Convention on International Civil Aviation (2006), the ICAO Contracting Member States are responsible for safety oversight related functions in their respective states. Therefore, the Convention on International Civil Aviation requires the ICAO Contracting Member States to operate and conduct all civil aviation activities under internationally accepted minimum operating standards, procedures and practices (Button *et al.*, 2004). In this regard, for the safe and orderly development of international civil aviation to take place, it is required that Contracting Member States collaborate to the highest degree in order to achieve standardisation and harmonisation in regulations, rules, standards, procedures and practices (Chicago Convention, 2006). It also follows that a Contracting Member State should establish and implement a system that enables it to satisfactorily discharge its international obligations and responsibilities to develop and conduct civil aviation in a safe and orderly manner (Chicago Convention, 2006).

According to the ICAO safety manual (ICAO, 2006), the majority of the articles of the Chicago Convention establish the privileges and obligations of all Contracting Member States and provide for the adoption of international standards and recommended practices (SARPs) regulating international air transport. The Convention accepts the fundamental principle that every State has complete and exclusive sovereignty over the airspace above and within its territory (Button *et al.*, 2004).

According to the ICAO reports (ICAO, 1996), the DCA of Namibia received its first voluntary audit by ICAO from 29 April to 3 May 1996. The second follow-up audit was carried out from 4 to 11 April 2001 (ICAO, 2001). The audit revealed a lack of compliance with most ICAO critical elements and recorded 43.07 per cent effective implementation (EI). Another follow-up audit took place from 16 to 18 February 2004 and still no significant improvements were recorded (ICAO, 2004). Namibia was subsequently audited again from 5 March to 25 April 2006 and the effective implementation (EI) rate was recorded as 48.04 per cent (ICAO, 2006). Namibia fell short of the international standard, which stands at 65 per cent. As a result of deficiencies found in Namibia's safety oversight system during the 1996 ICAO audit, a corrective action plan (CAP) was designed as agreed upon between Namibia, represented by the DCA as the regulatory authority, and the ICAO (ICAO, 1996). The CAP is a document describing the process that was taken to change a particular situation

to meet the goals of an organisation. The ICAO uses CAPs to help contracting member states to improve in areas where the audit had identified deficiencies. The objective of the follow-up missions was firstly to validate the implementation of earlier corrective action plans, and to ascertain the status of the progress made. This enabled ICAO to update the information contained in the audit findings and differences database (AFDD) and to inform other Contracting States about the status of the safety oversight system of Namibia through a non-confidential summary report.

Because of non-compliance problems, the European Commission (EC) almost banned the national air carrier, Air Namibia, from flying into European air space in 2008 (MWT Report, 2009). Between 2005 and 2008, before the start of the talent management programme, there was a trend of an increased number of incidents and accidents of aircrafts in the Namibian airspace (Nengola: 2015). The details of such accidents and incidents are discussed in Chapter 4. Most of the aircraft accidents/incidents that occurred involved those that carried tourists between destinations in Namibia. These aircraft accidents had the potential of harming Namibia's flourishing Tourism Industry and give the country a bad reputation and image if remedial actions had not been taken. Preliminary investigations by the Directorate Aircraft Accident Investigations (DAAI) in these accidents pointed to many factors such as inadequate flying hours of pilots; aircrafts not being properly serviced by registered establishments; and little or no supervision on the part of the regulator, in this case, the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA). Similarly, the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) audit reports of both 1996 and 2006 also revealed some of these problems. In order to remedy the situation, the DCA of Namibia accepted and agreed to the suggested corrective action plan (CAP) contained in the 2007 Report (ICAO, 2007).

1.3. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE CIVIL AVIATION INDUSTRY

The significance of the civil aviation industry is described by the important economic role it plays in any country (Appelbaum & Fewster, 2002; Chang & Wang, 2010). This is particularly so in a country like Namibia where reliance by the public upon aircraft for public transportation is virtually guaranteed by the long distances often involved. The

road and rail systems, although excellent when compared with many African states, are still far from being fully developed. For many purposes, civil aviation has become the most important, if not the only, mode of public transportation (Button *et al.*, 2004; ILO, 2013). For example, without air transport mass domestic and international tourism would not exist, nor could global supply chains function. Important life-saving interventions such as emergency medical rescue are often done by air transport. Furthermore, there is no alternative mode of transport for perishable commodities such as fresh food and cut flowers, for example, except air transport.

After the rapid technological advances that occurred in the Second World War, aircrafts were sufficiently developed to assume for the first time, a leading role in mass transport. A very significant development was the introduction of jet aircraft, which greatly enhanced the speed, and reliability of air transport to the point that it is now arguably an essential component in any developing or even developed economy. The success and esteem that air transport enjoys today should not be allowed to obscure the reality that its universal acceptance by the public has been hard won. The industry has flourished as a result of a determination not just to assure but also to demonstrate to the travelling public that aviation is a reliable and, above all, safe mode of travel (Button, Clarke, Palubinskas, Stough & Thibault, 2004). The success in making the highly risky and technologically complex aviation business safe has imposed unusually high demands on talent management. The special characteristics of aviation emphasised the need for talent management at the highest levels (Chang & Wang, 2010). It is for this reason that the civil aviation industry has become arguably the most regulated industry in the world in order to achieve the levels of safety that are taken for granted by the travelling public today. The performance of a vital but potentially dangerous activity that relies on investment in very complex and expensive technology imposes very high demands upon the industry, which undertakes that task (Chang & Wang, 2010). At the same time, it is equally clear that the regulators of civil aviation must be highly trained, competent and experienced to a level that matches or exceeds the knowledge and skills of those whom they are tasked with regulating (ICAO, 2010). The regulator must fearlessly insist on appropriately high standards of equipment and conduct within the industry while not going so far as to stifle commercial innovation or the opportunities for growth of the

industry itself (ICAO, 2010). A fine balance in judgment, with potentially far-reaching consequences for the public good calls for outstanding powers of decision-making and persons of exceptional talent. To secure and retain such persons in a market that is essentially an international rather than a domestic one is a significant challenge in the context of talent management and the war for talent (Chang & Wang, 2010). Indeed, this is the case when the following factors are taken into account:

1.3.1. The social and economic importance of the aviation industry

Civil aviation activity is a vital part of the economy of almost every state. It must be conducted well, if the state wishes to become and remain a relevant part of the global economy. From this perspective, civil aviation, particularly air transport is significant on its own in terms of the movement of people and goods at long distances in the shortest period of time in a safe manner (Schlumberger, 2010). It is an important mode of transport for the movement of emergency goods and services such as medicines, perishable food and transportation of critically sick people to treatment centres (Air Transport Action Group, 2016; ILO, 2013). According to Motevalli & Stough (2004), air transport is a major lubricant for trade and it is directly responsible for the promotion of other industries such as tourism, increased trade, attracting new businesses to the region, and encouraging investments. Air service facilitates the arrival of large number of tourists to a region or country. This includes business as well as leisure. The spending of these tourists can support a wide range of tourism related businesses such as hotels, restaurants, tour companies, theatres and car rentals. Without air transport, mass international tourism could not exist, nor could the global supply chains function. Statistics indicate that some 40 per cent of high-tech sales depend on good quality air transport (Air Transport Action Group, 2016; ILO, 2013). Also, most overseas tourists travel by air if long distances are involved.

Furthermore, air transport facilitates employment in the national and regional economies. It creates employment of thousands of people at airports whose terminals are often the focal points for local economic development. A 2013 study of twelve African countries (Algeria, Angola, Egypt, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, Senegal, South Africa, Tunisia, and Uganda) by InterVISTAS Consulting Inc. projected

to generate 14,600 direct jobs in the aviation sector (InterVISTAS, 2013). It should be noted that parameters and methodology used to estimate the employment impacts in the InterVISTAS study is only for the aviation industry. According to the study, the projected employment gains for each country range from 990 in Ethiopia to 2200 in South Africa. Including indirect jobs, the total estimated employment impact reaches 23,400 jobs across the 12 countries, ranging from 1,500 jobs in Ethiopia to 5,400 in South Africa. The study projected the employment impact in Namibia to have been 1,500 direct jobs while 2300 were estimated as indirect jobs, bringing total employment to 3,800 jobs. According to a report by Air Transport Action Group (ATAG) (2016), the air transport industry in Africa directly generated an estimated 381, 000 jobs in 2014. According to the report, 133, 600 of those people (35% of the total) were in jobs for airlines or handling agents, for example, flight crew, check-in staff, maintenance crew, reservations and head office staff. Another 37, 000 people (10% of the total) worked for airport operators (for example in airport management, maintenance, security and operations). About 170, 300 jobs (45%) were on site in airports, at retail outlets, restaurants and hotels. A further 24, 700 people (6%) were employed in the manufacture of civil aircraft (including systems, components, airframes and engines). Air navigation service-providers employed an additional 15, 300 people (4%).

In terms of GDP, Cooper and Smith (2005) examined the contribution of air transport to tourism, trade, investment decisions and productivity. The study estimated that the net contribution of air transport to trade was 55.7 billion Euros in 2003 across the 25 European Union members or approximately 0.6% of GDP. Similarly, a 2006 study by InterVISTAS Consulting Inc. found that a 10% increase in a nation's air connectivity increased GDP by 0.07%. In terms of GDP contribution in Africa, air transport, as a result of direct and indirect jobs, including direct impacts, as well as the effect of the sector's procurement of goods and services through its supply chain, and the benefits that arise when employees in the industry and its supply chain spend their wages in the local consumer economy, contributed UD\$26 billion in 2014 (Air Transport Action Group, 2016). Namibia depends on imports of perishable fresh food from other countries (Schlumberger, 2010). Therefore, the importance of civil aviation activities for Namibia, and any other country for that matter, cannot be over-emphasised. According

to the Namibia Statistics Agency (2016), the civil aviation industry contributed 458 million Namibian Dollars to trade in 2014 or approximately 0.3% of GDP.

1.3.2. The inherent dangers of flight coupled with the complexity of the technology

It will be understood that aviation, or more specifically, the flight of aircraft, is an inherently dangerous and complex activity. If there is an accident, the consequences can be catastrophic and so the risk of an accident occurring is unacceptable. Against the odds, civil aviation has developed since the Second World War from being a genuinely risky undertaking with a high loss of life into the safest modes of transportation with the lowest accident rates of all transportation modes (Appelbaum & Fewster, 2003; Button *et al.*, 2004; Flin, Connor & Mearns, 2002; Janic, 2000). It is inherently dangerous because it takes place in the sky where chances of correcting mistakes, if ever they occur, are almost zero. In such a difficult scenario, a very low accident rate has been achieved by the adoption of systems and processes that reflect a relentless quest for safe practices at all levels. Pilots, aircraft engineers, maintenance organisations and air navigation service providers, amongst others in the aviation business, are all rigorously and endlessly scrutinised to ensure that they perform optimally. In the second place, it relies on extremely complex and expensive technology. Because of its heavy reliance on technology, it requires people who are alert and medically fit at all times so that the lives of the passengers are not compromised. Although air transport is said to be safe and aircraft crashes may be rare, it often attracts considerable publicity when crashes occur because of the concentration of fatalities (Appelbaum & Fewster, 2003; Button *et al.*, 2004; Flin, Connor & Mearns, 2002; Janic, 2000). This requires that safety standards for aviation must exceed those that would be supported from statistics and risk/benefit point of view. Similarly, this also requires that those that are involved in the business of flying should have sober and good attributes in order to realise the required safety standards.

1.3.3. Zero tolerance of accidents by the travelling public

The general public has become more aware of their rights as passengers on aircrafts. There is today an absolute and non-negotiable expectation by aircraft passengers that the aircraft that they take off in will land safely at its assigned destination (Abeyratne, 1998; Button *et al.*, 2004). Airlines know that should there ever develop a widespread lack of public confidence in the safety of aviation, the industry will simply fail (Janic, 2000). The public will not accept levels of fatalities in air travel that they are evidently quite prepared to accept on the road, for example. Governments know that if the industry fails, there will be very serious consequences for the state economy not to mention the global economy. For these reasons, aircraft travel must be kept safe. For precisely the same reasons, the aviation industry has been a prime target of terrorists who equally understand the critical importance of aviation safety and the potential for disruption on a global scale, if they can succeed in creating a perception that air travel is unsafe (Cooper, 2000; Motevalli & Stough, 2004).

1.3.4. The international character of the aviation skills recruitment market

Putting all of the above factors together, it is not hard to see why the aviation industry has become what it is today. It has, in fact, become a workplace of perfectionist professionals; people with arguably perfectionist leanings, highly trained in order that they will obtain specialist skills and thus be capable of maintaining attention to detail in aviation safety practices and procedures on a daily basis (Janic, 2000). In short, it is notably a workplace consisting of “talented” people. However, the challenge for the civil aviation regulator such as the DCA is to raise its talent management levels to the same or even above the levels of the industry it supervises (ICAO, 2006). Operations within the industry can only be effectively regulated in the interests of public safety by inspectors at the Directorate of Civil Aviation or Authority who are in possession of equivalent, or at least comparable, talent (ICAO, 2006). In practice, the difficulties in reaching such a position are great, especially in the smaller ICAO member states such as the Republic of Namibia.

1.4 THE IMPORTANCE OF SAFETY IN CIVIL AVIATION

This study was about talent management using Namibia's Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in securing talent for Aviation Safety, from 2008 to 2014 as a case study. According to the ICAO safety manual, safety oversight is defined as a function by means of which states ensure effective implementation of the safety-related Standards and Recommended Practices (SARPs) and associated procedures contained in the Annexes to the Convention on International Civil Aviation and related ICAO documents (ICAO, 2006). Safety oversight also ensures that the national aviation industry provides a safety level equal to, or better than, that defined by the SARPs. As such, an individual State's responsibility for safety oversight is the foundation upon which safe global aircraft operations are built. Lack of appropriate safety oversight in one Contracting Member State therefore threatens the health of international civil aircraft operations (ICAO, 2010).

Therefore, safety is fundamental to the operations of the civil aviation industry (Abeyratne, 1998; Janic, 2000; Motevalli & Stough, 2004; Lee, 2006). This includes all aspects of civil aviation from service providers such as airports, air traffic controllers, aircraft maintenance organisations as well as regulatory authorities. Since the occurrence of September 11, 2001 disaster in the United States of America, the significance of issues of safety in the aviation industry has been elevated to greater prominence throughout the world (Lee, 2006). This is so because the civil aviation sector plays a very important role in the economic activities of any country. Therefore, civil aviation organisations should uphold safety standards of the highest order.

In order to maintain high safety standards, a safety culture should be encouraged in civil aviation organisations. Organisational culture is a concept often used to describe shared corporate values that affect and influence members' attitudes and behaviours (Cooper, 2000). Safety culture is a sub-facet of organisational culture, which is thought to affect members' attitudes and behaviour in relation to an organisation's on-going health and safety performance (Cooper, 2000). Turner *et al.*, (1989) defined organisational culture as the set of beliefs, norms, attitudes, roles, and social and technical practices that are concerned with minimising the exposure of employees, managers, customers and

members of the public to conditions considered dangerous or injurious. Considering several aspects of this definition, which are self-explanatory, the safety culture in any organisation is therefore crucial.

In this modern age, highly trained and technically skilled specialists are required to be more than just specialists, but they are also required to demonstrate their commitment to what is now termed in the aviation industry as organisational “safety culture”. In other words, their thoughts and actions in the workplace are not merely focused reactively on compliance with safety regulations, but also proactively on how in all of their actions they can promote safe practices. An organisation with a safety culture will seek out best practices of its own initiative. It will not wait for findings from an auditor. Cooper (2000) defined safety culture as doing the right thing even when no one is looking. It has been determined that the creation of safety cultures in, for example, an airline, is more conducive to safe practices than mere punishment for breaches of regulations. It follows that a modern civil aviation regulator and modern inspectors will need to understand and give effect to this new concept.

The importance of safety in civil aviation is best reflected in the fact that the basic strategic objective of the ICAO Strategic Action Plan, which was adopted by the ICAO Council on 7 February 1997, is to further safety, security and efficiency of international civil aviation (Abeyratne, 1998; Janic, 2000; Motevalli & Stough, 2004). The aspect of safety is important in civil aviation because of the following (Janic, 2000):

- It is important to note that risk is always present whenever flying takes place. Therefore, safety concerns arise and should be dealt with. Unlike road transport, air transport involves flying which may take place over long distances. In this way, passengers and aircraft crews are exposed to risk on the plane as accidents may occur at any point in time or space. Although they are a rare event in an absolute sense, aircraft accidents can have severe implications (Janic, 2000).
- Although the causes of some aircraft accidents are never uncovered, main causes of air accidents can conditionally be classified into human errors, mechanical failures, hazardous weather, and sabotages and military operations (Janic, 2000). Most accidents could be attributed to human error combined with other factors. Human

errors are always present in every aspect of civil aviation from production, maintenance and operation of aviation hardware ranging through aircraft, airports and air traffic control facilities and equipment (Janic, 2000). For example, mid-air collisions are often caused by air traffic controller errors usually involving a failure to maintain prescribed separation between aircraft.

Overall principles of safety oversight requirements that apply to national governments were laid out in the Convention Treaty but have been refined, and effectively operationalized, in a series of Annexes (Button, Clarke, Palubinskas, Stough & Thibault, 2004). In order to maintain the importance of aviation safety, it is required that national safety oversight authorities such as the DCA of Namibia propose national legislation in this regard. Article 12 of the Convention obliges contracting member states to adopt measures to insure safety through conformity with international standards in their safety oversight obligations (Button *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, in recognition of these safety realities, Namibia, under an act of state sovereignty, has acceded to the Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation of 1944 and thereby accepted the state safety oversight obligations that are established by the Convention and its Annexes. The Annexes contain very detailed safety and security requirements known as Standards and Recommended Practices (SARPS) which are to be, as far as is practicable, uniformly applied by all signatories to the Chicago Convention. Namibia, by virtue of its accession, has become a member state of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), which is itself, a specialised agency of the United Nations.

By being a signatory to the Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation of 1944, Namibia accepted the state safety oversight obligations that are established by the Convention and its Annexes. With this accession, Namibia also attained a status under a treaty of global importance, which signifies its acceptance within the international civil aviation community. Even so, with that status comes some very specific obligations with regards to its conduct of the safety oversight of civil aviation within its own territory. In effect, Namibia, through its civil aviation regulator, whether the current Directorate within the Ministry of Works and Transport, or the forthcoming standalone Civil Aviation Authority, must examine and assess the on-going performances of pilots, aircraft maintenance engineers, air traffic controllers and many other participants in civil

aviation. Such people are required to be highly trained and technically skilled specialists.

In order to effectively deal with issues of safety, which are paramount to the civil aviation industry, there is a growing need for civil aviation organisations to pay particular attention to issues of managing their own talent. Talent management has become a prominent and popular field of management practice and research in the twenty-first century. People, and not technology or products, are key to organisational success (Ahlrichs, 2000). Talent management has also become an important area of concern for leaders of most organisations globally, including those in the civil aviation industry. In most organisations, practitioners of human resources are increasingly becoming more occupied with the business of talent management. This has made today's business environment increasingly competitive so that organisations have to design new and effective strategies to deal with the issue of talent management in order to survive. The competition has been increased by the challenges caused by globalisation, which have led to new markets, new products, new mind-sets, new competencies and new ways of thinking about business (Ulrich, 1997). Against the above background, this study seeks to explore how this dilemma was faced and dealt with by the Directorate of Civil Aviation of Namibia, between 2008 and 2014.

1.5. THE ROLE OF THE INTERNATIONAL CIVIL AVIATION ORGANISATION (ICAO)

Since most of the discussions in this research constantly make reference to the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), it is important to give an overview of what the ICAO is all about. The International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) is a specialised agency of the United Nations (UN),—which administers the Chicago convention on civil aviation (Chicago Convention, 2006). As a part of the international aviation practices, ICAO audits Member States periodically to check their level of compliance with recommended standards and practices (SARPS) and the implementation of the eight critical elements of a safety oversight system (Chicago Convention, 2006). The international framework allows countries with concerns about other jurisdictions to raise these issues with the ICAO Council who may decide to

conduct a special audit or write to the jurisdiction asking for assurance with a Mandatory Information Request (Chicago Convention, 2006).

According to the Chicago Convention of 2006, the objective of the International Civil Aviation is to regulate the principles and features of international air navigation and to foster the planning and development of international air transport in order to ensure safe and orderly growth. The ICAO has structures in place that allow it to operate as an international body. Among its structures is a governing body called the Council; for operational purposes, the ICAO council adopts standards and recommended practices (SARPs) concerning air navigation, its infrastructure, flight inspections, prevention of unlawful interference, and facilitation of border-crossing procedures for international civil aviation (ICAO, 2006). In addition, the ICAO defines protocols for air accident investigation followed by transport safety authorities in countries that are signatory to the convention on International Civil Aviation of 1944, commonly known as the Chicago Convention. Furthermore, the ICAO Convention provides standards in terms of functions by the airline industry; such as the Aeronautical Message Handling System (AMHS). In terms of this function, each Member State should have accessible Aeronautical Information Publications (AIPs) based on standards defined by the ICAO (ICAO: 2006). This information is essential for air navigation. Member states are required to update their AIP manuals every 28 days. The ICAO standards also ensure that temporary hazards to aircrafts are regularly published (ICAO: 2006).

In order to conduct its operations fairly and consistently, the ICAO introduced Standards and Recommended Practices (SARPs) as well as comprehensive audit systems to test the strength of a State Safety Oversight System continuously against Eight Critical Elements (CE) (Abeyratne, 1998; Schlumberger, 2010). A State's level of compliance or non-compliance is then categorised by the European Aviation Safety Agency (EASA) or the Federal Aviation Agency (FAA) based on ICAO audit results into one of the three categories: Category one (1) is a State that is capable of ensuring the implementation of SARPs. Category two (2) is a State that is found by ICAO audit being affected by significant findings, and category three (3) is a State found not capable of ensuring effective implementation of SARPs (ICAO: 2006; Schlumberger, 2010).

According to Article 37 of the Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation, contracting Member States should collaborate in securing the highest practical degree of uniformity in regulations, standards, procedures and organisation in relation to aircraft, personnel, airways and auxiliary services in all matters in which such uniformity will facilitate and improve air navigation (ICAO, 2006). To this end, ICAO has adopted SARPs dealing with practically all activities concerning the operation of an aircraft. However, it is the integration of such SARPs into the national regulations and practices of Contracting Member States and their timely implementation that will ultimately achieve safety and regularity of aircraft operations worldwide.

Furthermore, Article 37 also states that each contracting Member State undertakes to ensure that all persons violating the provisions of the applicable regulations shall be prosecuted. Therefore, these and other related articles enshrine States' responsibilities for safety oversight under the Convention and leave no doubt as to a Contracting Member State's responsibility for control and supervision of all its aviation activities.

According to Article 38 of the Convention, any Member State, which finds it difficult to comply with any international standard or procedure, shall give immediate notification to ICAO of differences between its own practice and that established by the international standard. This includes any difficulty in bringing its own regulations or practices into full accord with any international standard or procedure, or which deems it necessary to adopt regulations or practices differing from those established by international standard. The aim of these provisions is to ensure common and standard practice within the civil aviation industry internationally.

Based on the above-mentioned provisions, it is important to note that the ICAO plays an important role in the aviation industry of all contracting member states. Therefore, it is equally important for member states to comply with the ICAO set standards and recommended practices. In order to determine its level of compliance to ICAO requirements, in April 1996, the Republic of Namibia became one of the first few States on the African Continent that subjected itself to a voluntary audit by the International

Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO). The findings of the 1996 and the subsequent audit of 2006 are discussed in chapter 4 of this study.

1.6. CONTEXTUAL BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

In this regard, the main management problem of the study was the critical shortage of qualified professionals at the DCA to effectively perform the State's regulatory and oversight function as contained in the Chicago Convention of 1944 (ICAO, 1996). According to a 1996 report by the ICAO, under the auspices of its Universal Safety Oversight and Security Audit Programme (USOSAP), Namibia's safety oversight was weak (ICAO, 1996). The weakness was to such an extent that the State, through the DCA, was unable to guarantee the safety of aircraft operations within the national airspace. The problem of the absence of talent at the DCA has its root in historical issues of Namibia. Apartheid South Africa treated Namibia as its fifth province. Before Independence in March 1990, the income distribution in Namibia was characterised by extreme inequality based on racial lines (UNIN, 1986). This was a direct result of the political and economic policies of apartheid South Africa. There were three major policies that were introduced to Namibia by apartheid South Africa that had negative effects on talent development on the people of Namibia. Firstly, the apartheid policy of racial discrimination between black and white Namibians had devastating effects. Secondly, there was the deliberate introduction of inferior education in the form of Bantu Education (UNIN, 1986). Thirdly, there was the unequal distribution of income and wealth, meaning that many Namibians still live in extreme poverty today. Furthermore, the prevalence of HIV/AIDS has had an effect on the availability of talent. These four issues will now be discussed in more detail.

1.6.1. The effect of racial discrimination practices on Namibian talent before independence in 1990

According to Totemeyer (1977), in 1964 the Odendaal Commission recommended a reorganisation and redistribution of residential areas and settlements for various ethnic groupings in the former South West Africa (now Namibia). In terms of the approved and subsequently implemented Odendaal plan, Namibia was divided into ten homelands

for each ethnic group (Totemeyer, 1977; Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. 1987: 70). This was done as proclaimed in the Development of Self-Government for Native nations of South West Africa, Act 54, of 1968. In terms of this act, the former Owamboland, Hereroland, Kaokoland, Okavangoland, Damaraland and Eastern Caprivi were regarded as “native nations.” Each ethnic group lived in their own geographical territory. This limited their socialisation and interaction with other Namibians. The purpose of introducing the separate homeland system was that the apartheid regime believed the system would provide a better way of promoting economic development. Later, over the years of implementation, it became clear that the plan failed to bring about the envisaged economic development to the respective homelands. Instead, the Odendaal plan brought about ethnic tensions among Namibians. According to the 1963 Report of the Commission of Enquiry into South West African Affairs, commonly known as the Odendaal Report, ethnic groups were constructed to view each other as adversaries and competitors, rather than as Namibians with a common national interest (Odendaal Report, 1963). Furthermore, ethnic groupings were meant to isolate and deny communities the chance to take part in the development of the country (Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. 1987, p. 70).

Furthermore, the implementation of the Odendaal plan also brought about the introduction of some legislation and practices that restricted the free movement of people from disadvantaged and neglected black homelands to urban centres where economic activities were taking place (Odendaal Report, 1963). Under the contract labour system, black Namibians from the northern and other parts of the country, were strictly controlled with regard to access to urban areas. This was meant to ensure that the available services in urban areas such as water, electricity and sewerage were not over-burdened. The restriction of the movement of black people to urban areas also meant that the supply of cheap migrant labour did not exceed demand for labour. Another anti-social condition that was imposed upon black migrant labourers was that they were not allowed to live with their families or dependents during what was regarded as temporary sojourn in white-controlled urban centres and on large white commercial farms (UNIN, 1986). Families became disintegrated as a result of migrant labour system. Family isolation of this kind tended to produce psychological problems in the people

affected (UNIN, 1986; Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. 1987: 70). In addition, cultural practices, over the period of time in Namibia, had been used by the apartheid regime to cause disunity and distrust among different ethnic groups. This approach was used to consolidate the evils of the Odendaal plan.

Taking into account the fact that Namibia was a racially and culturally divided society until independence on 21 March 1990, the study also deals with issues of diversity management as they impact upon the talent management of the civil aviation industry nationally. A study by Burkholder, Edwards Sr. and Sartain (2004) argues that at the heart of the issue of diversity is the cultural change that one needs to bring about in organisations. In this context, cultural change that defines diversity involves change in a range of factors that differentiate people, such as age, gender, marital status, social status, disability, sexual orientation, religion, personality and ethnicity and culture (Shen, D'Netto & Tang, 2010; Kossek, Lobel, & Brown 2005). Diversity research shows that organisations' attitudes toward diversity are mixed, ranging from intolerance to tolerance and to even appreciation of diversity (Shen *et al.*, 2010; Joplin & Daus 1997). A more recent study by Bridgstock, Lettice, Ozbilgin and Tatli (2010) defines diversity management as a management practice, which is underpinned by a belief that effectively managing differences in the workplace can contribute to organisational performance. It can also be defined simply as a management philosophy of recognising and valuing heterogeneity in organisations with a view to improving organisational performance (Bridgstock *et al.*, 2010). In this regard, understanding the impact of diversity on the performance of an organisation is important. Pitts (2007) argues that if the implementation of diversity results in increased organisational performance, then an organisation may wish to enact policies that encourage continued diversity. However, if diversity results in decreased performance, then an organisation will wish to understand how policies and practices might be put into place to manage the diversity present and make it productive (Pitts, 2007). This study also acknowledged the effect diversity management has had on talent management at the DCA. Although this matter is important to the study, it was dealt with as a contextual issue.

1.6.2. The effect of pre-independence Bantu Education System on Namibian talent

The research was also located against the background of the Bantu Education System that was provided by the apartheid South African government to Namibians before independence in 1990. The study argues that the Bantu Education system that was provided to Namibians before independence was the cause of problems relating to talent management today (UNIN, 1986). In all societies, education is an institutionalised tool that prepares the young generation to fulfil many important functions that assist with the acceleration of the country's economic growth. In fact, Reich (1992) argued that the most powerful nations' competitiveness in the 21st century would depend on the education and skills of its people. He further argued that the nation's people, its human capital, constitute the one resource on which the future standard of living of a nation uniquely depended. Taking this argument into account, education and training should therefore remain a priority item on the agenda of every government.

According to the official documents of the Government of the Republic of Namibia, both Vision 2030 and the Fourth National Development Plans emphasise the need for Namibia to invest heavily in human resources development (Vision 2030 Report, 2004; NDP 4 Report, 2012). In fact, Schumacher, (1973) also emphasised the importance of education and human resource development when he pointed out that the key factor to economic development does not start with capital and technical goods but with the development of people. In his view, economic development comes as a result of a country having a critical mass of properly trained people to champion that course.

However, the type of education provided by any system must enable people to become more efficient, to achieve their legitimate goals in life and those of society. Martin Luther Jr, in Twamasi, (2004) pointed out that education must also train one for quick, resolute and effective thinking. He further stated that a proper education system must enable people to sift and weigh evidence, to discern the truth from the false, the real from the unreal, and facts from fiction. He concluded that the function of education, therefore, is to teach one to think intensively and critically. Unfortunately, the education system that was provided by the apartheid government to Namibians in the country

before independence lacked the above-mentioned characteristics (UNIN, 1986; OPM, 2000). It did not therefore prepare Namibians to be economically productive citizens at independence.

In particular, the issue of the irrelevance of the education system that was offered by the apartheid regime emerged from the study that was published by the United Nations Institute for Namibia (UNIN) in 1986. This study showed that the education system in Namibia before independence provided basic literacy, bible studies and industrial education as its main objectives (OPM, 2000; UNIN, 1986). The study further supported this claim when it made reference to the fact that the education of Africans in Namibia lay in the hands of missionaries and was only available to a few. It also revealed the fact that the education system was directed at preparing Namibians for missionary work only (Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. 1987: 20; UNIN, 1986).

To emphasise the problem of the education system in Namibia, the Windhoek Observer newspaper of 30 December 1985, cited in Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. (1987: 129) quotes the then “Chairman of the Cabinet” of the interim government in Namibia, the late Moses Katjuongua, as having said that the education issue was a central problem in Namibian politics. Katjuongua was further quoted to have predicted the following: “if this obstacle (education) can be removed, the scene would be ready for other great breakthroughs, which still had to be made”. This meant that education was a key issue for major changes in the Namibian society.

More recently, the Office of the Prime Minister (2000), pointed out that education in the country at independence was best characterised by factors such as: (1) fragmentation of education along racial and ethnic lines; (2) unequal access to education and training at all levels of the education system; (3) inefficiency in terms of low progression and achievement rates and high wastage rates; (4) irrelevance of curriculum and teacher education programmes to the needs and aspirations of individuals and the nation; and (5) a lack of democratic participation within the education and training system (OPM, 2000).

The education system in Namibia was thus characterised by calculated racial segregation, ethnic fragmentation, economic exploitation and cultural subjugation before independence in 1990 (UNIN, 1986; Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. 1987: 128). Furthermore, the education system in Namibia, then South West Africa, was organised on the basis of apartheid before independence. Before independence, there were three separate systems of education that existed. These systems of education between Whites, Coloured and Blacks were characterised by gaps and inequalities in the quality and standards of education (UNIN, 1986; Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. 1987: 128). Education was compulsory for whites and coloured, but not for blacks. Similarly, education was free for whites in Namibia while Blacks had to pay for their education despite their poverty and unemployment levels (UNIN, 1986; Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. 1987: 129).

As the result of the above-mentioned arrangements, there were two-fold inequalities in the system of education in Namibia, namely, the financing and the quality of education between different groups (UNIN, 1986; Totemeyer *et al.*, ed. 1987: 129). The responsibility for education in Namibia rested with the South West Africa Administration, the Department of Coloured Affairs of South Africa, and the Department of Bantu Education of South Africa. These arrangements ensured that Blacks received inferior education compared to other people. Totemeyer *et al.*, (ed. 1987: 129) also emphasised the negative impact of the pre-independence education system when he stated that education in Namibia largely failed to produce the desired results because it only became a prominent arena of social conflict and only reflected the antagonisms and anachronisms of the Namibian colonial structure.

On the other hand, while Namibians that lived and trained in exile could be considered as having been exposed to education systems of international standards; many Namibians who were accepted at institutions of higher learning in exile lacked some basic entry requirements into institutions of Higher learning (UNIN, 1986). The education system that was provided by the South West Africa People's Organisation (SWAPO) as a liberation movement in exile was regarded as being of an international standard (UNIN, 1986). However, the low entry requirements into the United Nations Institute for Namibia (UNIN) compromised the quality of graduates. UNIN opened its

doors to the first exile students in 1975. Most of the students that were admitted to UNIN did not have the appropriate entry requirements that would be acceptable to many institutions of higher learning elsewhere in the world (UNIN, 1986). Because UNIN was preparing Namibians to take over the administration of the country after independence, the entry requirements were merely the ability to read and write (UNIN, 1986). The majority of UNIN graduates did not improve their education further after independence in 1990 but were absorbed in the job market, particularly in the civil service (ETSIP Report, 2007). Although Namibia introduced a new education system at independence, the education system of the country continued to be too weak even during post-independence for Namibia to effectively play its expected developmental role (Marope, 2005). According to the recently published National Human Resource Plan (NHRP) 2012 to 2025, Namibia experienced shortages of professionals such as technicians and associate professionals. Furthermore, Namibia also experienced critical shortages in even elementary occupations and in occupations requiring skilled workers such as clerks, service workers and shop and market sales workers, skilled agricultural and fishery workers, craft, related trades workers, plant and machine operators, and assemblers (NHRP, 2012). Based on the above, it could be argued that the education system of Namibia, before and immediately after independence, contributed greatly to the problem of lack of appropriate talent in the country in general and in particular, lack of aviation related talent at the DCA, as part of the civil service.

1.6.3. The effect of unequal income and wealth distribution

Being a member of the United Nations, Namibia was committed to achieving the eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), eradication of extreme poverty and hunger being one of them (GRN, Annual Economic Report, 2012). The population of Namibia was estimated at 2.1 million people at the time of the study (NHIES Report, 2009/10).

According to the Namibia Household Income and Expenditure survey (NHIES 2009/10), poverty remains stubbornly high in Namibia with about 27 per cent of the population under poverty and 15 per cent under severe poverty. The unemployment rate, at 29.2 per cent in 2013, remains high. This is a reflection of a skills mismatch, and a weak education and training system that is not responding to the evolving labour

market needs (Annual Economic Report, 2012). Several people in the country also face food insecurity and lack sufficient access to basic services. The root causes of persistently high level of income poverty are slow economic growth, dependence on subsistence farming, high levels of income inequality, pervasive gender inequality, incapacity and death due to HIV/AIDS and other diseases, lack of access to quality of education and widespread environment degradation (Annual Economic Report, 2012).

According to Namibia Household Income and Expenditure survey (NHIES 2009/2010), the country's Gini coefficient moved from 0.6003 in 2003/04 to 0.5971 in 2009/10. A marginal decline in the country's Gini coefficient suggests a slight improvement in income distribution, largely due to the government's generous social safety net programme that provided for the elderly; youth; people with disabilities; orphans and vulnerable children, and which has been in place since independence. In 2013/14, the social grant covered 98 per cent of people above 60 years, up from 91 per cent in 2011/12. Even with these efforts, Namibia continues to remain one of the world's most unequal societies, while the National Development Plan (NDP4) target is to attain Gini-Coefficient of 0.48 by 2017. Furthermore, according to the Namibia Labour Force Survey (2014), unemployed Namibians were 278, 245. This figure represented 28.1 per cent of the economically active population. The 2009/2010 report on Namibia Household Income and Expenditure survey also revealed that Namibia was generally a youthful nation with about 67 per cent of the population under the age of 30 years. Although the literacy rate was estimated at 95 per cent among the youth, only about 51 per cent of the population above 15 years had attained secondary education. According to the Namibia Labour Force Survey (2014), the component of the youth unemployment in the age group of 20-24 was recorded as 79,710 people representing 56.6 per cent while those in age group of 25-29 was 58,141 representing 23.3 per cent and those in the age group 30-34 was 38,257 representing 26.1 per cent. According to the report, the reasons for unemployment among the youth were cited amongst others as lack of appropriate skills to respond to the demands of the market. Based on the Namibia Labour Force Survey (2014), the picture portrayed among youth deserves attention because this study addresses the issue of talent management at the DCA, and therefore appropriate skills sets are needed to make Namibia a competitive nation.

1.6.4. The effect of HIV/AIDS in Namibia

Namibia today is losing its prime labour force to HIV and AIDS. At first it was not thought that debilitation and death as a result of AIDS could be more than a local problem and a human loss. According to UNAIDS (2014), enterprises, towns and governments are now starting to measure the cost in terms of lost productivity, health and social security costs and even falling GDP. Namibia today has to bear both enormous direct costs and loss of income as a result of the deprecations of AIDS on its active population.

According to Namibia's Annual Economic Report (2012), HIV/AIDS continues to be the main leading cause of death in Namibia thus resulting in a reduction of labour supply. The prevalence of HIV/AIDS nationally has reduced slightly from 19.9 per cent of 2006 to 18.8 per cent in 2010 (GRN, Annual Economic Report, 2012). The HIV/AIDS data shows that HIV prevalence rate among the age group of 15-19 years was 6.6 per cent while the most affected age groups were 30-34 years and 35-39 years with 29.6 per cent and 29.7 per cent respectively. According to Namibia's Annual Economic Report (2012), factors contributing to the infection of HIV/AIDS include poverty; gender based violence, immigration, and lack of knowledge about HIV/AIDS and gender inequality.

According to the National Survey on HIV and AIDS in the Workplace conducted in 2013, 200 of the 234 organisations recognised HIV and AIDS as threats. The majority of respondents were of the opinion that a lack of knowledge, alcohol abuse and ignorance were the reasons why HIV and AIDS was a threat to their organisations/institutions. The majority (42%) of organisations/institutions reported having been affected by HIV and AIDS through increased employee absenteeism followed by increased mortality rates (24%), others factors (17%), increased medical costs (8%), increased medical costs (7%), loss of skills (6%), increased demand for training (6%), increased staff turnover (3%) and increased production costs (3%).

According to UNAIDS (2014), HIV and AIDS affect the workforce and service delivery in the following ways:

- Reduced supply of labour;
- Loss of skilled and experienced workers;
- Changes in composition of labour force and early entry of children into employment;
- Increased pressure on women to earn income as well as care for the sick;
- Mismatch between human resources and labour requirements;
- Reduced productivity;
- Absenteeism and early retirement;
- Increased labour costs for employers;
- Loss of wage earners in a household;
- Reduced remittances from migrant workers; and
- Increase in female-headed households.

The concern is not only with the size of the labour force, but also its quality. Many of those infected with HIV are experienced and skilled workers in both blue-collar and white-collar jobs. The loss of these workers, together with the entry into the labour market of orphaned children who have to support themselves is likely to lower both the average age of many workforces and their average level of skills and experience. It takes time to replace skilled workers because of the training or retraining necessary, and even longer, to replace the experience lost as key workers are affected. In this manner, HIV/AIDS in the country, through death and inability of people to work, has a negative effect on the talent that could have been utilised at the DCA of Namibia.

Based on the above discussions, it is evident that the effects of historical issues had a direct bearing on talent management in Namibia today. Given the burden of the legacy of Apartheid emanating from policies of racial discrimination, as well as Bantu Education, which undermined a culture of learning in the Black communities, particularly in the teaching of Science and Mathematics, it is imperative for the public service of Namibia to invest heavily in capacity building. This investment is to create a dynamic public service with deliberate emphasis on continuous learning, tailor made

courses, and transformational leadership, which is capable of accelerating talent management. There is no doubt that talent in Namibia, particularly in specialised areas such the civil aviation industry, needs to be improved significantly.

1.7. THE PRIMARY PURPOSE AND THE KEY OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The primary purpose of the study was to analyse the corrective action plan (CAP) of the DCA in securing talent for the occupational class of aviation safety. It is analysed from the perspective of talent management in a diverse environment where people came from the background influenced by racial discrimination practices and the effects of Bantu Education that were instrumental in bringing an unequal society in Namibia. The primary purpose of the study therefore sought to analyse issues of talent management in an environment characterised by diversity. In order to analyse the DCA's corrective action plan (CAP), the researcher used a deductive theory approach. Generally, researchers can adopt one of two broad approaches to their research, namely, deductive and inductive approaches. According to Bitekhtine (2005), a deductive theory/approach is where the researcher compares the patterns derived from several variables of a given theory to the pattern observed in the data. Details of the theory used are dealt with in Chapter 2.

The aim of this research was from the perspective of talent management theory in a diverse environment to analyse the corrective action plan (CAP) of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) as a process of securing talent for key positions in aviation safety in Namibia. Therefore, the key research question was: "How did the corrective action plan of the DCA actually translate into securing talent for aviation safety?" The aim was divided into the following three objectives:

- a) Firstly, to explore and discuss the key challenges that informed the programme:
 - In terms of Namibian education and workforce diversity management contextual issues; and
 - In terms of the international aviation safety requirements;

- b) Secondly, to describe and analyse the talent management strategies that were adopted in managing key positions within aviation safety at the DCA;
- c) Finally, to develop a model of sustainable talent management for the DCA.

1.8. JUSTIFICATION OF THE RESEARCH

The research was further justified by searches done on the EBSCO HOST Research Databases using Academic Search Premier and Business Source Premier using the following key phrases: “talent management AND civil aviation industry” and “talent management AND aviation safety.” The former gave a result of only ten references, while the latter returned a result of only six. Searches for the key phrases, “talent management AND aviation safety AND southern Africa,” as well as “talent management AND aviation security AND Namibia”, gave zero results.

A SABINET search for completed and current research studies using the same key phrases mentioned above yielded no results. The results of these searches suggest that little or no research has been done in talent management of aviation safety in Namibia and elsewhere. It is anticipated that talent management in the civil aviation industry is different from other industries because it is highly regulated by international conventions and protocols. It is for this reason that it is believed this study has the potential to make an original academic contribution by describing the talent management programme (TMP) at the DCA of Namibia.

1.8.1. The value of the research to the country

The value of the research to the country is two-fold. First, it helps leaders in Namibia understand the country’s rights, obligations and benefits as a member state of ICAO. Many countries are signatories to several international bodies without maximising the benefits derived from such membership as a result of mere ignorance. This research describes how Namibia benefitted from its membership to the ICAO. It is hoped that lessons drawn from this research will inform an understanding of how the country’s

leadership should treat other similar international obligations in future. Second, the research has significant value to the country because it documents what steps were taken by the DCA to restore its original status with the ICAO. In this regard, this investigation becomes part of the body of knowledge that will assist other institutions in Namibia and other countries when confronted with similar situations. In this regard, the Namibian case becomes a basis for benchmarking studies.

1.8.2. The value of the research to the DCA

The research has significant value to the DCA as an institution responsible for regulating aviation related activities in the country. Taking into account the fact that the primary purpose of the study was to analyse the corrective action plan (CAP) of the DCA in order to verify its success in securing talent for the occupational class of aviation safety from the perspective of talent management in a diverse environment, the following is the value of the research to the DCA. First, the successful implementation of the CAP allows the DCA to comply with the ICAO standards and recommended practices (SARPs). Secondly, compliance with the ICAO SARPs as a result of the successful implementation of the corrective action plan would allow Namibia (DCA) to be moved to an improved ranking, from Category Three to Category Two. The European Aviation Safety Agency (EASA) or the Federal Aviation Agency (FAA) categorises the level of compliance or non-compliance of individual States based on ICAO audit results into one of the three categories: Category One is a State that is capable of ensuring the implementation of SARPs. Category Two, is a State that is found by ICAO audit being affected by significant findings, while Category Three is a State found not capable of ensuring effective implementation of SARPs. Third, the study is of value to the DCA because it has documented every step and activity undertaken so that it will become institutional knowledge and reference material for future activities at the same institution.

1.8.3. The value of the research to the researcher

This research has significant value to the researcher because of his interest in human resources management. The researcher's personal interest in this research started in 1995 when he worked as a Director in the private office of the first Prime Minister of the Republic of Namibia. In terms of the Public Service Act, Act 13 of 1995, the Prime Minister of Namibia was the Chief Human Resource Officer of the country who hired, promoted, demoted, transferred and dismissed staff members from the civil service. The researcher's responsibilities at that time included assisting the Prime Minister in performing his statutory obligations. Other functions of the Prime Minister at that time included coordinating various developmental efforts of the country. Namibia is a vast country of over 800,000 square kilometres. In view of the limited time at the disposal of a Prime Minister, this meant that most travels across the country were undertaken by air. Unfortunately, most engineers and pilots that worked on and flew government owned jets at that time were either foreign or privately hired. This triggered the researcher's interest in matters of civil aviation and the researcher started to investigate why only a few Namibians were employed in the aviation industry, and in particular, the DCA, which is the government arm that regulates the industry.

Furthermore, as Under-Secretary of the Department of Public Service Management in the Office of the Prime Minister from 1999 to 2005, the researcher was responsible for human resources management of the entire civil service. The researcher was also a General Manager of Human Resources Management at the Social Security Commission (SSC) from 2005 to 2008. In both positions, the researcher noticed the absence of general talent in specialised areas in the country. It was primarily from the researcher's career as a Human Resources Practitioner that he developed an interest in talent management issues. However, a special interest in talent management matters of civil aviation started while working with the Prime Minister, and this was subsequently deeply rooted when the researcher became the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport from 1 April 2008 to 30 June 2012. The DCA was a Directorate under the Department of Transport within the Ministry of Works and Transport. Since the researcher was the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport, under

which the DCA resorted, he was responsible for negotiating the programme with ICAO and eventually approving it. However, the researcher was not responsible for implementing the programme. The implementation of the programme was the responsibility of the Director of Civil Aviation.

1.9. CHAPTER OUTLINE

This study comprises eight chapters. Chapter One deals with the particular context in which this research was conducted. The chapter also identifies and defines the problems that existed at the DCA that lead to the intervention by the ICAO and eventually the reason for the study. The chapter has also highlights the main objectives of the study, including its value to the researcher, to the DCA and to the whole country.

The literature review and theoretical aspects of the study are presented in Chapter Two. In particular, Chapter Two explains the theoretical framework and literature review related to the concept of talent management. The chapter makes a justifiable case on why war on talent has become the business of any organisation that wishes to succeed in the twenty-first century. Furthermore, the chapter explains the meaning, definitions and streams of talent management as advocated by the various theories reviewed. It also explores the challenges of talent management, as well as discussing the current on-going debate and research in the discipline.

Chapter Three describes and justifies the research design used to answer the research questions, and thereby achieve the objectives of the research. It discusses the research paradigm, and data collection techniques. The procedures that were followed for data collection are also described, including issues of population and sampling, data analysis, research quality and ethical considerations.

Chapter Four deals with the findings of the study on talent management at the DCA of Namibia. The chapter describes the talent management programme (TMP) that was used to implement the corrective action plan (CAP) at the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in Namibia. Furthermore, the chapter deals with the background of the DCA, its

mandate and functions in terms of the enabling legislation. The chapter highlights the ICAO findings as well as the background of the challenges that faced the DCA and that led to embarking upon the talent management programme. It also describes the talent management programme at the DCA, how it was implemented as well as the results that were achieved.

Chapter Five also deals with the findings of the study on talent management at the DCA of Namibia. The first research objective seeks to analyse the talent management strategies that were adopted in managing strategic positions to implement the corrective action plan (CAP) at the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in Namibia.

Chapter Six is the third chapter that deals with the findings of the study on talent management at the DCA of Namibia. One of the objectives of the research is to explore and discuss the key challenges that informed the talent management programme that was designed to meet international civil aviation safety requirements in terms of the Namibian education system and in a context of diversity. Therefore, this chapter discusses the educational and diversity challenges that were encountered during the implementation of the talent management programme at the DCA of Namibia.

Chapter Seven answers the main research question: “From the perspective of talent management theory, how did the corrective action plan of the DCA actually translate into securing talent for aviation safety?” In the light of the findings of the study that have identified some deficiencies of the four streams of talent management, the chapter proposes the creation the fifth stream to deal with issues that were particularly were left out by literature reviewed in stream four of talent management. Furthermore, the chapter proposes the development of a model on sustainable talent management for the fifth stream.

The final and concluding chapter highlights the main contributions of the study to the existing body of knowledge. From the perspective of the developed model of sustainable talent management, the researcher makes recommendations for practice and further research.

1.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter introduced the reader to the study of talent management using Namibia's Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in securing talent for aviation safety from 2008 to 2014 as a case study. Against this background, the chapter discussed the important role the civil aviation industry plays in the economic development of a country (Appelbaum & Fewster, 2002; Chang & Wang, 2010). The importance of the civil aviation industry in the context of Namibia was discussed against the background of the size of the country and its dependence on most of its supply of food and other commodities from outside the country, making air transport the most efficient mode of transport available (ILO, 2013; Motevalli & Stough, 2004).

Furthermore, the chapter discussed the importance of safety in the civil aviation industry (Abeyratne, 1998). The issue of safety becomes particularly important in view of the involvement of human beings in all aspects of civil aviation. Furthermore, since the civil aviation industry has its own inherent dangers, particularly the flight of aircraft, coupled with the complexity of the technology, the culture of safety in the industry becomes paramount (Cooper, 2000).

The main research problem was also defined with specific reference to the challenges that were caused by the legacy of the historical past of Namibia. In this regard, the chapter discussed the three major policies that were introduced to Namibia by apartheid South Africa that had negative effects on talent development on the people of Namibia. These are the apartheid policy of racial discrimination between black and white Namibians (Odendaal Report, 1963); the introduction of inferior education, in the form of Bantu Education; and the unequal distribution of income and wealth (UNIN, 1986). Furthermore, the effect of the prevalence of HIV/AIDS on the availability of talent in Namibia was discussed.

The primary purpose of the study was also discussed in the chapter, namely, to analyse the corrective action plan (CAP) of the DCA in securing talent for the occupational class of aviation safety in the context of a diverse environment where people from different cultural backgrounds participated in talent management.

Furthermore, the chapter presented the justification for the research. The research was found necessary because several searches on academic databases suggested that this was an under researched topic. Finally, the significance of the research to the country, the DCA as a regulating authority as well as to the researcher was discussed.

In the next chapter, the theoretical framework as well as the literature reviewed in terms of the concept of talent management is discussed. The chapter makes a justifiable case on why the war on talent has become a business imperative of any organisation. Furthermore, the chapter deals with the meaning, definitions and streams of talent management as advocated by the theory reviewed. It also deals with the challenges of talent management as well as discussing the current on-going debate and research in the discipline.

CHAPTER 2

TALENT MANAGEMENT THEORIES AND PERSPECTIVES

2.1. INTRODUCTION

As indicated in Chapter One, the aim of this research was, from the perspective of talent management in a diverse environment, to analyse the corrective action plan (CAP) of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) as a process of securing talent for key positions of aviation safety in Namibia. The key research question was: “How did the corrective action plan of the DCA actually translate into securing talent for aviation safety?” In order to find answers to the key research question, the researcher explained one key theoretical concept, namely *talent management*.

This chapter first discusses the theoretical concept of talent management. To start off, the chapter offers a background explanation of the two words “talent” and “management”. It also provides several definitions of talent management and makes a critical analysis of the definitions to arrive at what generally could be considered as activities that constitute talent management. Furthermore, the chapter outlines the four streams of talent management as described by different authors and practitioners on the subject (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Jackson & Schuler, 1990; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Smart, 1999). Although four different streams of talent management have been identified, particular attention is given to the stream to which this research was aligned. Emphasising stream four of talent management in this study does not in any way suggest that other streams of talent management are less important. Rather, this particular study has taken stream four as its philosophical position. The chapter further addresses talent management activities and areas of current research. The chapter also gives an overview of diversity management in the context of talent management. This was done because one of the objectives of the research was to explore and discuss the key challenges that informed the talent management programme that was designed to meet international civil aviation safety requirements in terms of the Namibian education

system and in a context of diversity. It should be noted that Chapter One, among other issues, presented the issue of the Namibian education system before independence.

Increasingly, business leaders or Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) are put under pressure from their shareholders to increase the profits of their organisations while trade union leaders in the same organisations strive for better working conditions of their workers. These conditions include improved salaries and other benefits of significant financial value. Similarly, pressure is exerted on both employees and managers to increase organisational productivity, quality of products as well as reducing production costs (Farley, 2005). These types of pressure have led to many organisations engaging more and more in talent management advancement programmes (Lawler, 2005).

2.2. BACKGROUND

Human resources practitioners and other business leaders are probably familiar with the mantra that people are the new source of competitive advantage and, therefore, the most important assets of the organisation (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Chabault *et al.*, 2012; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Kaye & Smith, 2012). To emphasise the importance of people in the success of an organisation, Collins (2001) states that not even the vision and strategy of an organisation are as important as the people. He maintains that this is so because people eventually drive the company into the future. Collins (2001) further argues that if people are so important to the organisation, then talent management, the process of acquiring, retaining and developing people for the organisation should be seen as equally important. Because of the importance of talent management, organisations are increasingly competing for the most talented employees (Porter, 2001). Therefore, the objective of talent management in any organisation would be to ensure that the right skills are available at the right time and place to meet the strategic objectives of the business (Guerci & Solari, 2012).

Talent management is not a new concept in management science (Cappelli, 2008; Koketso & Rust, 2012; Moczydlowska, 2012). Traditionally, many organisations have always viewed talent management as one of the many support functions performed by the Human Resources Department (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). These support functions

include recruitment, selection, career development and planning. In other words, this line of thinking assumes that performing talent management functions is the same as doing what Human Resources Departments have always done, but in a different manner. Taking this myopic view has the potential of rendering talent management irrelevant if it is viewed as the traditional Human Resources Department's function. This was particularly the case when the Human Resources Department had always been regarded as an ordinary support function in organisations because of the old and unsubstantiated claim that it does not add value to the business outcome (Andrews, 1988; Burkholder *et al.*, 2004; Phillips, 2005; Michael, 2006). This school of thought led to organisations outsourcing some of the HR functions such as Training and Development (Laff, 2006). Contesting the argument that accused HR of not adding value to business, Becker *et al.*, (2001) introduced the concept of "HR architecture" and argued that the broader HR architecture contributed to the organisation's success because it is about managing human capital. Human capital is the foundation of value creation (Becker *et al.*, 2001; Ulrich, 1997). They argued that Human Resources Departments should take a more strategic perspective regarding their roles in organisations. Therefore, Human Resources Departments should not be viewed as providing a support function of any business, but rather, as a strategic 'partner in the organisation (Becker *et al.*, 2001; Ulrich, 1997). Talent management started gaining its importance and popularity in the late 1990s with the research published by a group of Mckinsey Consultants (Axelrod *et al.*, 2002; Bryan *et al.*, 2006; Michaels *et al.*, 2001). This research revealed that it was not "best" practices that distinguished high performing companies, but a pervasive talent management mind-set (Michaels *et al.*, 2001). This finding underscored the fact that the competitive advantage for organisations comes from having superior talent and the ability to manage it effectively. In the United States of America, in a survey of HR critical issues that was conducted by the Institute of Management and Administration (IOMA, 2006), researchers asked respondents to identify their top five issues that occupied their organisations. The results of the survey showed that issues of talent management, including staff retention and development, and succession planning, ranked as top priorities (Clarke & Winkler, 2006; Deloitte, 2007a; Sandler, 2006). Similarly, in the United Kingdom (UK), a study conducted by Lubitsh and Smith (2007), also indicated that 75% of the respondents suggested that

talent management was a top issue and was becoming a strategic issue in most organisations. Reasons provided by the respondents for ranking talent management as a top priority were two-fold: first, respondents believed that talent management had a direct impact on the profitability and growth of any organisation. The second reason was the new and upcoming shortage of qualified employees in the United States of America (Lubitsh & Smith, 2007).

Still in the United States of America, the Economist Intelligence Unit 2006 report, based on the interviews with twenty Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) at some of the largest international companies, revealed that CEOs spent between 20 and 40 per cent of their time on talent management issues (Laff, 2006). The reason advanced for spending such a significant amount of time on talent management issues was the understanding that nurturing talent was the best means to secure a competitive advantage. As a result of these developments, talent management became increasingly important, such that many suggested it could not be left to the Human Resources Departments alone (Laff, 2006). Instead, talent management needed to be a concerted effort of all employees at various levels of the organisation (Laff, 2006; Uren, 2007). In their most recent study, Thunnissen *et al.*, (2013) confirmed that talent management is still a key management issue that preoccupies most business leaders of this decade and will continue to have a major effect on companies in the foreseeable future.

Over the years, the field of talent management has developed remarkably mainly as a result of academic contributions from United States of America based scholars using North American thinking and research (Thunnissen *et al.*, 2013). As a result of this, the United States of America context of talent management has a dominant influence on the debate. However, other significant debates in the field of talent management have come from Europe, Asia and Latin America, with little or no contribution coming from Africa with the exception of few cases from South Africa (Thunnissen *et al.*, 2013). As a result of the significance attached to the process of talent management, it has become a driving force of most successful organisations today (Sandler, 2005; Sparrow *et al.*, 2014). For example, a 2007 study from the Hackett Group found that companies that excelled at managing talent posted earnings that were 15% higher than their peers (Teng, 2007).

Recently, a review by Beechler and Woodward (2009) concluded that even in bad economic conditions, talent management remained a critical agenda item for key organisational decision makers. Other recent studies by several authors also confirmed that talent management was important for organisational success (Collings *et al.*, 2011; Iles *et al.*, 2010; Scullion *et al.*, 2010; McDonnell *et al.*, 2012; Vaiman and Collings, 2013). Although talent management was a critical issue, and therefore important in most economies, research suggests that there are several challenges associated with managing talent, particularly in the emerging markets (Collings *et al.*, 2011). The challenges of talent management in emerging markets are further discussed later in this chapter.

2.3. STREAMS OF TALENT MANAGEMENT

Despite the growing popularity and importance of talent management, the concept still remains without a single, consistent and concise definition (Ashton & Morton, 2005; Collings & Mellahi 2009; Garrow & Hirsch, 2008; Lewis & Heckman 2006; Tarique & Schuler, 2010). This was as a result of the confusion regarding concepts and terms as well as several assumptions made by different authors who wrote and continue to write about talent management (Lewis & Heckman 2006).

Although scholars agree that there is no common acceptable definition of talent management (Ashton & Morton, 2005; Gallardo-Gallardo *et al.*, 2015), the fundamental question of what talent management entails needs to be addressed. Recent studies still indicate that there is not yet consensus on definitions of talent management (Vaiman & Collings, 2013). However, researchers have begun to have a common understanding that talent management systems often reflect some degree of exclusivity versus inclusivity of talent systems. There is also a common understanding of the importance of strategic/key positions and the need for a balance between developing internal talent versus buying it from outside the organisation (Vaiman & Collings, 2013). In order to establish this, the study examines the meaning of the two words that make up the concept of *talent management*. That is, it is important to establish the true meaning of the word “*talent*” before attempting to define “*talent management*.”

According to the annual survey report of the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD, 2009), Europe's largest HR and Development professional body in the United Kingdom, the word "*talent*" carries several meanings depending on its usage. As a result of this understanding, the CIPD (2006:1; 2007:3) defined talent as "that which 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." William (2000:35) suggested that talented people are those who regularly demonstrate an exceptional ability to achieve over a range of activities and situations, or within a specialised and narrow field of expertise. According to Michaels, Handfield-Jones and Axelrod (2001:xii) talent is seen as "the sum of an individual's abilities, which includes 'his or her intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgment, attitude, character, and drive.'" They add that talent also incorporates the individual's ability to learn and grow.

Hansen (2007) stated that talent in an organisation referred to the core employees and leaders that drive the business and therefore made it successful. He argued that these people are considered as the top achievers in the organisation whose role could be seen as inspiring others to high performance. According to Berger and Berger (2004), individual talents are vital to the core competencies in an organisation and they usually represent only a small percentage of the employees, that is, about 3-5% of them. Cheese *et al.*, (2008:46) stated "that the traditional use of the word '*talent*' usually refers to a special gift". In business, it has come to encapsulate all the various attributes of people today. Essentially, talent means the total of all experiences, knowledge, skills, and behaviours that a person has and brings to work.

An analysis of the above definitions of the word "*talent*" seems to suggest that they all refer to individuals within an organisation who are seen to have the capacity to contribute exceptionally to the success of the organisation. The definitions further suggest that the usage of the word "*talent*" refers to people and not to the organisation. However, Cheese *et al.*, (2008) referred to a talent as a special gift, suggesting that talent is not available to all, but is rather unique to some people. They also suggested that talent is an individual gift that is only limited to a few individuals that were born with it and therefore could make a greater contribution to the organisation than others.

Having defined the word *talent*, it is appropriate also to define the concept of *talent management*. Recent studies have identified four main streams of talent management (Collings and Mellahi 2009) that are now discussed:

The first perspective on talent management focused primarily on the “collection of typical HRM practices, functions or activities” (Lewis & Heckman, 2006:140). Researchers of this stream simply gave a new name to Human Resource Management (HRM) and called it talent management (Garger, 1999; Conger & Fulmer, 2003; Conn, Khurana, & Reeves, 2005; Lewis & Heckman, 2006). This school of thought argued that traditional HRM functions have simply been shifted to talent management. However, they were of the view that talent management can be distinguished from traditional HRM by being more strategic and future-oriented, as well as in line with the overall corporate strategic goals (Blackman & Kennedy, 2008; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Schweyer, 2004). According to Collings and Mellahi (2009), the literature contribution of this school of thought could be seen as similar to that of the strategic HR literature, and it largely amounts to a renaming of HRM.

Furthermore, other scholars were of the view that this stream of talent management did not offer anything different from the traditional approach of HR, except for being christened with a new name (Chowanec & Newstrom, 1991; Heinen & O’Neill, 2004; Hilton 2000; Olsen, 2000). In general, this perspective on talent management was relatively close to the thoughts of the strategic human resource management literature (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). The re-naming of these traditional HR functions as talent management comes as a result of accusations and counter-accusations that questioned the strategic role of the traditional HR functions and suggested that it was not a strategic partner and did not add value to its processes (Becker, Huselid & Ulrich, 2001). In this regard, the traditional functions of HR have been those of general staffing (which was inclusive of several aspects such as workforce planning, recruitment, selection, placement, staff training and development), job and organisational design, compensation management, employee relations, health and safety management (Baron & Kreps, 1999; Burkholder *et al.*, 2004; Nel *et al.*, 2010). Table 1 below contains names of authors and their definitions that seem to be associated with stream one of talent management:

Table 1: Talent Management Definitions for Stream One (*Source: own compilation*).

Author and Year	Definition
1. Meyer and Tuck (2004)	TM is a system used to identify, capture, utilize, develop, grow and nurture the talent of employees to the benefit of the work team and the company at large.
2. Lockwood (2006)	TM is the implementation of integrated strategies and systems to increase workplace productivity by improved process of attracting, developing, retaining and utilizing people with the required skills and aptitude to meet the current business needs.
3. Cappelli (2008)	TM is a matter of anticipating the need for human talent and then setting out a plan to meet it.

A careful study of the above-mentioned definitions of talent management suggests that scholars such as Meyer and Tuck (2004), Lockwood (2006) and Cappelli (2008) were the advocates of stream one of talent management. Meyer and Tuck (2004), defined TM as an active management system used to identify, capture, utilise, develop, grow and nurture the talent of employees to the benefit of the work team and the company at large. This definition sees talent management as an established management system and tool used for the purposes of recruiting and selecting the right people that would eventually benefit other members of the team as well as the company. In this context, the definition suggests that the term extends to cover a wide set of typical HR planning activities (Hartley, 2004). Taking into account the type of activities listed in the above definition of Meyer and Tuck (2004), it could be argued that the definition did not offer anything different from the traditional functions carried out by HR departments.

Lockwood (2006:2) defined talent management as “the implementation of integrated strategies and systems to increase workplace productivity by developing improved processes of attracting, developing, retaining and utilizing people with the required skills and aptitudes to meet the current business needs.” According to this definition, the primary purpose of talent management was to increase workplace productivity among employees. The definition required that organisations should develop strategies that enhance productivity in the workplace. However, the latter part of the definition was important because it suggested that a talent management programme should be tailored

for those who are most responsible for the success of the organisation (Hausknecht, Rodda & Howard, 2009). The definition puts emphasis on the type of people that need to be hired. Issues of people management and the “implementation of integrated strategies and systems” as contained in the definition are central to traditional HR.

Cappelli (2008:381) also supported the first stream of talent management when he defined it as “simply a matter of anticipating the need for human talent and then setting out a plan to meet it.” Cappelli’s (2008) definition refers to talent management as the process of human resource planning (trying to forecast the needs) for the future of the organisation. According to Cappelli (2008), it is important for organisations to develop adequate and appropriate plans and put in efforts to attract the best pool of available candidates while nurturing and retaining the current employees. From Cappelli’s (2008) definition above, it would appear that the issue of human resource planning, which is key to his definition, also constitutes the main characteristics of traditional HR.

The second stream in the literature looks at the development of talent pools focusing on future staffing needs of the organisation and managing the progression of employees through positions (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). According to Kesler (2002), talent pools are a set of processes designed to ensure an adequate flow of employees into jobs throughout the organisation. This second stream of TM, which concentrates on the job flow of employees within an organisation, was also known as “succession or human resource planning” (Barlow, 2006; Groves, 2007; Jackson & Schuler, 1990; Lewis & Heckman, 2006). This approach focuses on the internal rather than the external labour market, and typically starts with the identification and mobilisation of internal talent pools (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Bryan, Joyce, & Weiss, 2006). The stream emphasised selecting and developing discrete pools of talent from people within the organisation (Byham, Smith & Pease, 2002; Cheloha & Swain, 2005; Cohn, Khurana & Reeves, 2005; Griffin, 2003; Kesler, 2002). This approach maintains a position that succession planning and leadership development should be the two sides of the same coin (Jackson & Schuler, 1990; Rothwell, 2005). In this regard, Conger and Fulmer (2003) argued that succession planning and leadership development create a long-term process for managing the talent roster across the organisation. This school of thought

also suggested that the organisation might not focus on talent pools that are outside the institution. According to this school of thought, groups of people are identified within the organisation and put in a talent pool and are deemed to have high potential and are seen as a valuable resource for future senior roles (Yarnall, 2011). This school of thought also suggests that establishing talent pools has the potential to improve succession-planning processes by creating a leadership pipeline for future roles in an organisation (Byham, Smith, & Paese, 2002). It is argued that this approach has potential benefits that include focusing training and development resources more on existing gaps, and reducing turnover and retention of top talent in an organisation (McCartney & Garrow, 2006; Pepe, 2007; Ruppe, 2006).

Furthermore, this school of thought takes into account issues of both manpower planning and succession planning. According to Ulferts, Witz and Peterson (2009), modern manpower planning concerns itself with the forecasting of the future human resources needs of the organisation in order to meet its objectives. It involves the collection of data that can be used to develop effective training programmes for the organisation. In this regard, Ulferts *et al.* (2009) stated that the manpower planning process comprises assessing the current human resource capacity, forecasting human resource requirements, performing a gap analysis and developing human resource strategies to support broad and general strategies of an organisation. Succession planning on the other hand is seen as a process where an organisation plans for the replacement of employees with younger employees either from within or outside the organisation. According to Parry and Proctor-Thomson (2003), this school of thought also suggests that there is a leadership crisis in most organisations. This leadership crisis is as a result of organisations not preparing their internal people to take over critical positions from those who retire. Accordingly, the importance of organisations to identify and groom their own people is emphasised.

The second stream of talent management also advocated for the identification of pivotal talent pools where human capital has the potential of making the biggest difference to the strategic success of the organisation (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005). Similarly, Bhatnagar (2008) stated that this school of thought identified a segment of employees in

an organisation that have the potential of driving its growth and profitability. He was, therefore, of the view that efforts should then be made to focus on issues that matter to this segment of employees. According to Bhatnagar (2008), these should include issues that involve stretching employees' individual capability by assigning them meaningful work that actively engages their brains. This segment of employees should also be allowed to connect with experienced people within the organisation that have the potential of helping them achieve their goals.

Table 2 contains names of authors associated with stream two of talent management and their definitions. From the table, it would appear there are some varieties of understanding from various authors aligned to the second stream of talent management. For example, Jackson and Schuler (1990:235) offered a simplified definition of talent management as “the process to ensure that the right person is in the right job at the right time.” This definition supported stream two because it placed the emphasis on finding the right person for the job within the same organisation. As for Rothwell (2005:6), who defined talent management as “a deliberate and systematic effort by an organisation to ensure leadership continuity in key positions and encourage individual advancement,” talent management is about the continuous advancement of individuals to key positions. This definition supports stream two because it puts more emphasis on the importance of succession planning and leadership development. Pascal (2004: ix), on the other hand, defined talent management as “managing the supply, demand and flow of talent through the human capital engine.” This definition by Pascal (2004) emphasises the creation of talent pools that is suggested by stream two of talent management.

Table 2: Talent Management Definitions for Stream Two (Source: Own Compilation).

Author and Year	Definition
1. Duttagupta (2005)	TM is a strategic management of the flow of talent through an organization.
2. Blass <i>et al.</i> , (2006)	TM is a collective approach to recruiting, retaining and developing talent within the organization for its future benefits.
3. McCauley and Wakefield (2006)	TM is a process that includes workforce planning, talent gap analysis, recruiting, staffing, education and development, retention, talent reviews, succession planning, and evaluation.
4. Pascal (2004)	TM is a process of managing the supply, demand and flow of talent through the human capital engine, which is used respectively to define human resource planning, succession planning and talent management.
5. Jackson and Schuler (1990)	TM is to ensure that the right person is in the right job at the right time.
6. Rothwell (1994)	TM is a deliberate and systematic effort by an organization to ensure leadership continuity in key positions and encourage individual advancement.
7. Cheloba and Swan (2005)	TM is a key component to effective succession planning.
8. Redford (2005)	TM is an attempt to ensure that everyone at all levels works to the top of their potential.

Duttagupta (2005) supported the second stream of talent management when he defined it in its broadest sense as a strategic management of the flow of talent through an organisation. Similarly, Blass *et al.*, (2006:1) noted that talent management is a collective approach to recruiting, retaining and developing talent within the organisation for its future benefits. McCauley and Wakefield (2006:4) define talent management as a process that includes workforce planning, talent gap analysis, recruiting, staffing, education and development, retention, talent reviews, succession planning and evaluation. This definition of talent management seems to include functions that are associated with traditional HRM (Baron & Kreps, 1999:506; Byham, 2001; Burkholder, Edwards Sr, & Sartain, 2003:162; Heinen & O'Neill, 2004; Lewis & Heckman, 2006:140; Nel, Werner, Haasbroek, Poisat, Sono, & Schultz, 2010:6; Olsen, 2000). It can be seen that although there are some variations in understanding, the above definitions support stream two.

All the definitions in one way or another refer to the future staffing needs of the organisation and managing the progression of employees through positions.

From the definitions above, most scholars aligned to stream two of talent management generally define talent management as a method for attracting, identifying, recruiting, developing, retaining, motivating and promoting of talent within the organisation for its future benefits (Berger & Berger, 2004; Fegley, 2006; Laff, 2006; Schweyer, 2004; Uren, 2007). However, talent management extends beyond the domains listed above to include high-level strategy (which shapes the way in which TM systems are viewed and implemented), organisational culture (mind-set and the belief that talent is needed for success) and change management (change readiness) (Blass *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, talent management requires a systematic approach that ensures that there is an interaction between many functions and processes (Cunningham, 2007).

The third stream of talent management focuses on the management of talented people (Smart, 1999). This stream of talent management views talented employees as valuable goods (“high potentials”), which need to be sought after in order for the organisation to compete for them favourably. This school of thought argues that there are always a limited number of talented people in an organisation. This stream of talent management classifies employees as “A,” “B” and “C performers” and therefore suggests that developmental activities should concentrate solely on top performers (Michaels *et al.*, 2001; Smart, 2005).

It is generally agreed among academics and practitioners in the third stream of talent management that “A performers” are the organisation’s best or star performers and “B performers” are the second best while “C performers” are mediocre (Axelrod, *et al.*, 2002; Delong & Vijayaraghavan, 2003; Huselid, Beatty & Becker, 2005). According to Walker and LaRocco (2002:12), this perspective on talent management seems to suggest that “an organisation is only as strong as its top talent.” However, this line of thinking has also received a great deal of criticism in practice. Its applicability has been questioned because it is not desirable to fill all positions in an organisation with top performers (Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

According to Axelrod *et al.*, (2002), the success of an organisation depends on a pool of managerial talent to drive the business. They argue that the war of talent is not just about the ability of an organisation to recruit and keep people, but it is also about (1) investing and growing “A performers”; (2) making sure that “B performers” are adequately prepared to take over the places of “A performers”; while (3) “C performers”, considered as most difficult to handle, are not only prepared to take over from “B performers”, but could also be dismissed on grounds of continuous underperformance if they fail to achieve desired levels after training and development interventions. Delong and Vijayaraghavan (2003) warn that it should be noted that sometimes “C performers” could be employees that were once “A” or “B performers” but their performance dropped over the years during their career. According to Axelrod *et al.*, (2002), such players are considered most difficult to handle, especially when they are at managerial level, because they have given up and barely create anything bold or innovative and they do not inspire others.

Delong and Vijayaraghavan (2003) maintain that while “A performers” create significant value for an organisation directly through their leadership of others, “B performers” are often many in numbers, and are also solid contributors of the organisations’ workforce. They argue that “B performers” are the organisations’ long-term performers, and the survival of the organisation therefore often depends on their commitment and contribution. Research conducted by Guthridge, Komm and Lawson (2008) also supports the argument advanced above by Delong and Vijayaraghavan (2003) regarding “B players.” In their research, Guthridge *et al.*, (2008) found that the strategies of any organisation should not only focus on “A players”, but they should also recognise the valuable contributions made by “B players” who constitute the majority of the workforce at any given time. On the basis of this understanding, they argued that leaders must therefore address the needs of talent at all levels of their organisation. In order to address the problems of “C performers”, Axelrod *et al.*, (2002) suggested that organisations should develop and agree on explicit action plans for them while holding their managers accountable for not offering instructive coaching to help them. In this regard, Axelrod *et al.*, (2002) warns that keeping C performers has a negative effect on

themselves because of the way others view them. They feel rejected by the organisation and become isolated. Furthermore, Axelrod *et al.*, (2002) suggests that keeping C performers also has detrimental effects on other employees if efforts to bring them to the required standards have failed. They argue that the continued presence of C performers may discourage other employees and in the process make the organisation a less attractive place to work for. It is for this reason that Axelrod *et al.*, (2002) suggest that organisations should find a legal manner on how to separate with C performers. However, in order to do so, such organisations should have properly documented evidence to support their claim that an employee is indeed an underperformer, and that efforts were made for them improve, but without success (Axelrod *et al.*, 2002).

The fourth emerging stream of talent management emphasises the identification of key positions in an organisation, which have the potential to make a difference and create a competitive advantage for it (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Collings & Mellahi 2009). While taking into account the fact that all positions in the organisation are important, this school of thought takes a view that some positions are more strategic and therefore more important than others. In this connection, Huselid *et al.*, (2005) recommend that organisations should first identify strategically critical jobs and invest in them. Furthermore, Hartman *et al.*, (2010) also observed that this school of thought points out the importance of identifying internal key positions, which should be supported by an identified internal pivotal talent pool. Strategic jobs could also be referred to as “A positions” (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Becker & Huselid, 2010; Huselid *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, strategic jobs, or positions, are those that exert critical influence on the organisation’s activities strategically, operationally, or both (Huselid *et al.*, 2005). These are positions needed to deliver on the key mandate of the Organisation. According to Becker and Huselid (2010), strategic jobs are usually rare and have a strategic impact because they generally affect the organisation’s ability to execute its strategy. Furthermore, Becker and Huselid (2010) are of the view that such jobs are considered strategic because the value creation process in their organisations relies heavily on their contribution. In line with this approach, Becker and Huselid (2006) argued that there is a need to identify strategic positions whose value is derived from the value of a strategic business process. They argued that positions located in strategic business processes have

more value than those located in other areas of the same business even if they have the same title. Simply put, their basic point of departure is that some positions in the same organisation are more strategic and important than others. This approach aims to ensure that the right people doing the right things are in those positions. Such identified positions should be carefully managed.

The recent work of Becker and Huselid (2010) gave particular theoretical prominence to what they referred to as strategic jobs. According to Becker and Huselid (2010), strategic jobs make a significant and valuable contribution to the effective implementation of the organisation's strategic capability. They are of the opinion that strategic jobs share the common characteristics of: (1) rarity (i.e. generally less than 15 per cent of a firm's jobs); (2) strategic impact (i.e. they generally directly affect a firm's ability to executing its strategy through its strategic capability); and (3) incumbent performance variability (i.e. the gap between high and low employee performance) in these roles is usually substantial. This provides the context for intervention and improvement (Huselid *et al.*, 2005; Becker & Huselid, 2006; Becker *et al.*, 2009). This point is also supported by an uncovered set of best practices for identifying and managing talent. Amongst these best practices is the need to identify the riskiest and most challenging positions across the organisation and assign them to rising stars or "A performers" (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Martin & Schmidt, 2010).

Huselid and Becker (2011) in their more recent research argued the fact that workforce differentiation plays a key component in successful strategy execution, which ultimately results in an organisation performing well. Their findings support the earlier argument made by others (Becker & Huselid, 1998, 2006; Becker *et al.*, 2009; Beatty *et al.*, 2005; Martin and Schmidt, 2010; Huselid, Beatty, & Becker, 2005; Huselid, Becker, & Beatty, 2005) that some jobs in any organisation are more valuable or strategic than others. Organisations should therefore make informed decisions about the level of talent that they need in positions considered to be less strategic so that they make less investments in them (Huselid & Becker, 2011).

Huselid, Becker and Beatty (2005) supported the view of the fourth stream of talent management when they argued that the best approach to managing talent should not only be on identifying critical positions in the organisation, but also identifying “A performers” and investing heavily in their training and development needs. Furthermore, they pointed out that the process of improving the performance of “A players/performers” through targeted training and development is as important as the process of identifying critical positions in the organisation. Therefore, it is these critical positions that should be matched with “A performers” once they are identified. In this connection, organisations should devote much of their time to identifying, developing and retaining who they consider to be “A players”. However, in order to achieve this, Hartman *et al.*, (2010) argued that organisations should anticipate future needs and create an integrated HR architecture that enhances the motivation, commitment and the development of talent pools. This is said against the background that organisations cannot afford to have “A performers” in all positions (DeLong & Vijayaraghavan, 2003; Huselid *et al.*, 2005; Guthridge *et al.*, 2008). This is due to the heavy financial and managerial resource burden that is associated with attracting, selecting and retaining high performers.

As a result of the heavy financial burden that is associated with attracting, selecting and retaining high performers that could be considered as a barrier, Axelrod *et al.*, (2002) advised that organisations should adequately prepare “B performers” so that they can take over the places of “A performers,” while “C performers” are prepared to take over from “B performers”. In this regard, Huselid *et al.*, (2005) as well as Iles, Chuai and Preece (2010) advised that the effective management of “A positions” of organisations requires an intelligent management of the organisation’s “B” and “C positions” as well. With the above in mind, Huselid *et al.*, (2005) and Iles *et al.*, (2010) maintain that “A performers” are the ideal for “A positions” for the organisation to deliver maximum performance. Furthermore, according to Groysberg, Nanda and Nohria (2004), retaining “A players” requires more than merely providing an attractive salary. They also require that the organisation understands what motivates “A players” and then takes appropriate steps to satisfy their interests.

Several authors argued that “A players” are expensive to keep in all positions of the organisation, and hence the need to rely more on “B players” occupying “B positions” (Axelrod *et al.*, 2002; Delong & Vijayaraghavan 2003; Huselid *et al.*, 2005). Delong and Vijayaraghavan (2003) in their many years of research found that the long-term performance of organisations also depended more on the commitment and contributions of “B players” in “B positions” than those of “A” players and positions. “B” players were found to be more stable, knowledgeable, capable and steady performers who could be depended on for the long-term survival of the organisation. They also found that the most valuable “B players” in organisations were former “A players” who had dropped down the line during their career life as a result of several factors, including change in family life. Furthermore, Delong and Vijayaraghavan (2003) found that “B players” in organisations were capable, steady performers who were often seen as forming a solid “corporate backbone” that was good at supporting “A players” in “A positions.”

In accordance with stream four of talent management, Collings and Mellahi (2009:304) also defined TM as “...activities and processes that involve the systematic identification of key positions which differentially contribute to the organisation’s sustainable competitive advantage, the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill those roles, and the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation.”

Although stream four of talent management seems to suggest that the process starts with the identification of key positions, this study has chosen a working definition that is flexible taking into account the fact that the process of talent management does not necessarily start with the *identification* of key positions, but could be initiated with the *creation* of key positions. The activities of talent management then continue with the process of attraction, recruitment and selection, succession management planning, retention of talent, and concluding with training and development. Taking the above-mentioned into consideration, there was a need for this study to develop its own

working definition of talent management that would describe the activities of talent management while supporting stream four.

The definition by Collings and Mellahi (2009:304) was adapted by the researcher for the purposes of this study to define talent management as follows: *“talent management as a process of (1) identification and/or creation of key positions, which differentially and strategically contribute to the organisation’s performance, (2) the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill those strategic roles, and (3) the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation, through activities of recruitment and selection, succession management planning, attraction and retention, and training and development.”*

The above definition, as adapted by the researcher, is considered important to the fourth stream of talent management because it does not offer a rigid prescription of what procedures could be followed in terms of arriving at what the organisation may consider as having satisfied the requirements of talent management. It is a general definition that does not only outline the important activities of talent management, which forms the basis of this study, but also accommodates some of the important findings of the study.

To summarise the four streams of talent management, Table 3 below compares and contrasts them to give the reader a better understanding of each stream.

Table 3: Comparison of the Four Streams of Talent Management (Source: Own Compilation).

STREAM ONE	STREAM TWO	STREAM THREE	STREAM FOUR
1 Collection of typical Traditional HRM functions and Practice re-branded as Talent Management. (Lewis Heckman 2006); Garger 1999; Conger and Fulmer	1 Development of talent pools, flensing on future staffing needs and managing the progression of employers (Lewis & Heckman 2006; Kesler, 2002)	1 Focuses on management of talented people that are regard as valuable goods which needs to be sought after (Smart, 1999)	1 Focuses on the identification of key positions in the organisation, which have the potential to make a difference and create a competitive advantage for it (Bourdreau & Ramstead, 2005; Collings & Mellah, 2009)
2 HR functions which are strategic and future-oriented and in line with corporate strategic goals. (Lewis & Heckman 2006; Schweyer 2004	2 Puts more emphasis on success planning or human resource planning (Barlow 2006; Groves, 2007; Jackson & Schuler, 1990; Lewis & Heckman 2006)	2 It classifies talented people as "A"; "B" and "C" performers. A: Best Performers B: Second Best C: Mediocre (Michaels <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Smart 2005)	2 Takes a view that some positions in the organization are more strategic and therefore more important than others
3 They are of the view that talent management can be differentiated for traditional HRM by being more strategic and future-orientated.	3 Focuses on internal rather than the external labour market to build the talent pool (Boundreau & Ramstad 2005; Bryan <i>et al.</i> , 2006)	3 It empasizes the development of those classified as "A" "B" "C" performers (Michaels <i>et al.</i> , 2001; Smart 2005)	3 It also takes a view that heavy financial investment in the form of training should be made to these positions identified as key in the organisation.
	4 Talent pool improves succession planning by creating leadership pipline for the future (Byham <i>et al.</i> , 2002)		4 Defines strategic jobs as those that exert critical influence on the organisation to deliver on its key mandate and are also rare Huselid, <i>et al.</i> , 2005; Becker & Huselid, 2010)

The fourth and last stream informs the theoretical orientation of this research. This theoretical orientation was taken because it was aligned with the challenges that were faced by the DCA in creating a talent pipeline for critical positions. In the case of the DCA of Namibia, the strategic importance of these positions is not about its ability to compete favourably in the market, but rather to enable the organisation to meet its statutory safety oversight responsibility over the Namibian airspace in order comply with aviation safety requirements. The theoretical approach of this research is informed by a modified definition from the work of Collings and Mellahi (2009:305) who defined TM as "...a process of (1) identification and/or creation of key positions, which differentially and strategically contribute to the organisation's performance, (2) the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill those strategic roles, and (3) the development of a differentiated human resource

architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation, through activities of recruitment and selection, succession management planning, attraction and retention, and training and development.”

2.4. TALENT MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

This study is associated with the fourth stream of talent management. This stream suggests that the success of talent management in an organisation depends heavily on the process of identification of key or strategic positions first, which differentially and strategically contribute to the organisation’s performance (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Beatty & Becker, 2005; Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi 2009; Hartman, Feisel and Schober 2010). This particular stream further states that once these key positions are identified, organisations should invest heavily in them through targeted training and development (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi 2009; Huselid, Becker, & Beatty, 2005).

This section takes an in-depth study of key issues raised in the fourth stream of talent management. Although the new definition of talent management as adopted by this study was already introduced in the preceding paragraphs, this section also aligns the adopted definition to stream four of talent management and explains its relevance to the stream. These key issues in stream four of talent management include: (1) the question of how strategic positions of the fourth stream are identified (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). This includes the question of how key positions could also be created; (2) how a differentiated HR architecture approach could facilitate the process of filling positions that were identified as key (Becker, Huselid & Ulrich, 2001; Becker *et al.*, 2009; Huselid & Becker, 2011); and (3) what strategies could be adopted to train and develop talent to fill the identified strategic positions (Huselid, Becker, & Beatty, 2005).

Although several definitions of talent management offered by different authors have been discussed above, this study has modified and adapted the definition by Collings

and Mellahi (2009:304) which defined talent management "...as a process of (1) identification and/or creation of key positions, which differentially and strategically contribute to the organisation's performance, (2) the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill those strategic roles, and (3) the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation, through activities of recruitment and selection, succession management planning, attraction and retention, and training and development." This definition was adopted because it was found to be in support of the research findings that are discussed later in this study.

The concept of talent management cannot be discussed in isolation from the concept of competitive advantage. Although the term competitive advantage was more a private sector concept, it also found its application in the public sector. Its relevance to the public sector, particularly to the civil aviation industry is also explained in this section. Competitive advantage is an old management concept that Michael Porter further developed in the early 1980s. According to Porter (1985), the excellent performance of an organisation lies with its competitive advantage that should be displayed at every level. Broadly speaking, there are two perspectives and views in defining competitive advantage, namely, the outside-in perspective and the inside-out perspective (Day & Wensley, 1988; Castanias & Helfat, 1991; Hamel & Prahalad, 1994; Porter, 1985). For the purposes of this study, only the work of a leading outside-in theorist, Porter (1985), is discussed. He argued that an organisation's efficiency of strategic business unit is mainly determined by industry attractiveness based on the five forces model which comprises (1) the rivalry among the competing firms; (2) bargaining power of suppliers; (3) bargaining power of consumers; (4) threat from potential entrants; and (5) threat from potential substitutes. He further argued that as a result of the above, the competitive position of a strategic business unit could be achieved through cost and differentiation position. According to Porter (1985), organisations should continuously adapt to the external environment when determining their strategies. He argued that if a company makes above-average profits for its industry, it has a competitive advantage over its rivals. Porter (1985) identified cost leadership and differentiation as the only two

fundamental strategies with which to achieve competitive advantage. According to Porter (1985), a company pursues a cost leadership strategy when it delivers the same level of quality as its competitors but at a lower cost, while with a differentiated strategy, the company offers a product with unique qualities and therefore the customer is prepared to pay extra for it.

However, Porter (1985) acknowledged the importance of organisation resources as market opportunities could only be seized with the availability of such resources in order to ensure the implementation of the best market strategy. In support of Porter's (1985) view, Goksoy, Vayvay and Ergeneli (2013) emphasised the need for organisations to differentiate and distinguish themselves from other players in the market.

There are different definitions used by several authors to describe competitive advantage (Hill & Jones, 1998; Smith, Kotler, 1997; Kotler, 2000; Vasudevan & Tanniru, 1996; Porter, 1985; Peteraf & Barney, 2003). For example, Pitts and Lei (1995) defined competitive advantage as an ability to produce products or offer services different to what competitors do, by utilising the strengths that organisations possess so as to add value in a way that competitors find it difficult to imitate. Similarly, Kotler (1997:53; 2000) defined competitive advantage as an organisational capability to perform in one or many ways that competitors find difficult to imitate now and in the future. According to Peteraf and Barney (2003:314), an organisation has a competitive advantage "if it is able to create more economic value than the marginal competitor." A careful look at the above-mentioned three definitions indicates that they all include Porter's strategies of cost leadership and differentiation. They all have a common purpose of offering unique products at reduced prices that no one else in the same industry could beat.

According to Barney and Wright (1997), there are three basic types of resources that can provide competitive advantage to an organisation. The first one is the physical capital resource that includes elements such as the organisation's plant, equipment and finances. The second one, which also has an indirect bearing on the subject of talent management, is the organisational capital resource, which consists of such elements as the organisation's structure, planning, controlling, coordinating and HR systems. The third one, and most important one for the purposes of this study, is the human capital

resource, which includes skills, judgment and the intelligence of the organisation's employees. Taking into account Barney and Wright (1997)'s classification, one would argue that HR practices, including all of the programmes, policies and practices that are used to manage their human resources are important elements that shape the skills, judgment and intelligence of employees to enhance the competitive advantage of an organisation. In this regard, it could be argued that skilled, judgmental and intelligent employees could aid in either decreasing costs or increasing revenues of an organisation. Furthermore, some HR practices can impact both costs and revenues of an organisation. Therefore, the importance of both HR practices and skilled people in enhancing the organisation's competitive advantage cannot be over-emphasised. Today's organisations have almost equal access to the key success factors. For example, financial resources are available to almost any organisation with a viable business model. Access to technology is equal. Similarly, businesses also have the same access to customers. However, what makes the difference is the human capital, the talent, of an organisation.

In this regard, there is recognition of the growing importance of the fact that talent management practices provide competitive advantage to an organisation (Lado & Wilson, 1994; Schuler & MacMillan, 1984; Wright *et al.*, 1994). The talent management process of an organisation should therefore be designed in a way that is aimed at building competitive advantage through people (Wolfe *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, King *et al.*, (2001) pointed out that the process of talent management should identify and foster competencies that help organisations compete in today's challenging business environment.

As a result of the above developments, competitive advantage has become popular in the contemporary literature of management. Porter (1980; 1985; 1990) has recognised the fact that organisations should aim to achieve their competitive advantage as their strategic goal if they aspire for good performance. Taking this into account, Goksoy *et al.*, (2013) argued that the concept of competitive advantage is rooted in the logic of value creation and distribution. According to Prahalad and Hamel (1990), the competitive advantage value is created through the acquisition of superior skills through a process of recruitment and selection. However, such recruitment and selection

processes should find their origin in the organisation's core competencies that are an important source of competitive advantage (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990).

Matthews and Shulman (2005) presents Kay (1995)'s notion of sustained competitive advantage in organisations obtained through relational architecture, reputation, innovation and strategic assets. They argue that the notion of sustained competitive advantage is also applicable to public sector organisations whose objective is not to make profit, but to serve the community for the public good. The purpose for the establishment of the DCA of Namibia as a government organ was not to make profit out of its operations, but to be the Regulatory Authority in the civil aviation industry in the country. It is the government statutory authority that is required to effectively perform the State's regulatory and oversight functions as contained in the Chicago Convention of 1944. According to Matthews and Shulman (2005), the sustained competitive advantage in organisations is obtained through relational architecture, reputation, innovation and strategic assets. By architecture, Matthews and Shulman (2005) refers to internal, external and network relationships that organisations may use to create opportunities to gain a sustained competitive advantage. Innovation is about an organisation developing new ideas that are efficient and effective in order to add value to its operations. According to Matthews and Shulman (2005), the reputation, which an organisation holds in eyes of the public it serves, plays a major in creating a sustained competitive advantage. This is the case because a good reputation reflects the extent of the organisation's positive relationship with its stakeholders. Also, the reputations of several Aviation Safety Inspectors in the DCA of Namibia add to the sustained competitive advantage of the organisation. The four principles of sustained competitive advantage as advance by Matthews and Shulman (2005) could also be applicable to the DCA since it is not profit making. The DCA of Namibia as a result of its mandate creates knowledge and services about the civil aviation industry and educates the aviation community for public good with either no or little cost to the aviation community. As a national authority in aviation, it examines and assesses the on-going performances of pilots, aircraft maintenance engineers, air traffic controllers and many other participants in civil aviation. Such people are required to be highly trained and technically skilled specialists in order to maintain aviation safety.

Therefore, competitive advantage in this context would refer to the ability of an organisation to recruit and select based on its core competencies in order to deliver on its given mandate. The process of acquiring superior skills to gain competitive advantage in the market forms part of the talent management activities. The various components of talent management, such as Identification and/or creation of strategic positions; Attraction, Recruitment and Selection; Succession Management Planning; Retention of Talent; Training and Development, are discussed below.

2.4.1. Identification of/ and creation of strategic positions

One of the first key activities or process of talent management is the identification and/or the creation of strategic positions in an organisation. This study has modified and adapted the definition by Collings and Mellahi (2009:304) which defines talent management "...as a process of (1) identification and/or creation of key positions, which differentially and strategically contribute to the Organisation's performance, (2) the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill those strategic roles, and (3) the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation through activities of recruitment and selection, succession management planning, attraction and retention, and training and development."

The definition of talent management by Collings and Mellahi (2009) was adapted and chosen because it does not only align itself with the fourth emerging stream of talent management, but was also derived from the literature related to the fourth stream. The definition as well as the fourth emerging stream of talent management requires that strategic positions in an organisation either be created or identified first before it is decided which top talent would occupy such positions. This line of thinking suggests that strategic/key positions in an organisation, which have the potential to make a difference and create high premium, are to be identified or created first before all other positions (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005).

With regard to the process of identification of strategic positions, Huselid, Beatty and Becker (2005) recommended that organisations should first identify such positions before they invest in them. However, the study found that such strategic positions could also be created first where they did not exist. Strategic positions are those that exert critical influence on the organisation's activities strategically, operationally or both. These are positions needed to deliver on the key mandate of the organisation. These strategic positions could also be created, as it will be seen from the findings of this study.

The process of identifying strategic positions is described as follows. Becker *et al.*, (2009), state that the first step to identification of strategic positions is for the organisation to clarify its strategy and the strategic capabilities it needs to deliver its strategy. After clearly defining the strategy of the organisation and assessing its strategic capabilities, the second step would be to engage in the process of identifying strategic positions that would be needed to actually deliver the strategy of the organisation (Becker *et al.*, 2009). Strategic positions are referred to by several authors supporting this line of thinking as those positions in an organisation that have significant impact on one or more of the organisation's strategic capabilities (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Becker & Huselid, 2010; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Therefore, strategic positions are not necessarily senior positions, but may exist at any level of the organisation where competitive advantage could be created (Huselid & Becker, 2010). These positions may also lie at the core of conducting everyday business or be central to a long-term new product strategy (Armstrong, 2014). According to Becker *et al.*, (2009), the process of identifying strategic positions starts with the organisation developing a clear statement of how it intends to create a competitive advantage over others in the same market as well as a clear definition as to what the organisation intends to do exceptionally well.

Becker *et al.*, (2009) points out that there are two general elements that are critical to the identification of strategic jobs. The first one is that work performed in a particular position should have a strategic impact and directly affect one of the organisation's primary strategic capabilities. Boudreau and Ramstad (2005) as well as Huselid and Becker (2010) also observe that, the type of impact a particular job is able to exert on

the organisation determines whether it is strategic or not. The second characteristic is that the job must have a high level of performance variability among incumbents in those positions. According to Becker *et al.*, (2009), this means that the gap between those employees considered as low performers and those considered, as high performers in the same role should be substantial. The advantage of performance variability is that it allows for an opportunity for improvement of the individual occupying a strategic position. In this regard, Becker *et al.*, (2009) identified the following as general guidelines to the process of identifying strategic positions in an organisation:

First and foremost, the organisation should define its strategic capabilities of the and list all jobs that are considered to have the potential of being strategic to creating competitive advantage over others in the same or similar market. When drawing up such a list, one should consider the following as basic characteristics of strategic jobs:

- a) The work performed in a particular position should have a strategic impact on the organisation;
- b) The job should have a direct impact on one of the Organisation's primary strategic capabilities;
- c) The job should have a high level of performance variability among its incumbents;
- d) The job should have a top-talent impact that should significantly improve the performance of the organisation;
- e) The job should be scarce and should present some level of difficulties to attract and retain incumbents; and
- f) The job should require a high level of expertise.

Secondly, after compiling a list of strategic positions that meet the above-mentioned characteristics, then follows the process of assessing each position on the present and future value-creation potential. The assessment should be done based on key elements such as: *strategic impact* (determine if the position will have appropriate capability to create value for the company); *performance variability* (determine to what extent there is a significant performance gap from the highest to the lowest role as well as to what extent poor performance is immediately detected in this role); *top-talent impact* (to what extent would improve employee performance in this role significantly improve the company's

performance?); and *top-talent scarcity* (determine if top talent in this role is difficult to attract and retain).

Thirdly, identify the performance variability of strategic positions. Performance variability refers to a substantial gap between low and high performers in this particular role. One may obtain information pertaining to performance variability by asking the following two basic questions:

- a) To what extent are there significant performance gaps between the highest and the lowest in that particular role? This approach assumes that the more significant the performance gaps between the highest and the lowest in that particular role, the more strategic the job is perceived to be.
- b) To what extent is poor performance in that particular role immediately detected? If poor performance in this particular role is easily noticed, then that particular role could be regarded as strategic. However, if all employees perform at a high level within a given role, then that particular role cannot be regarded as a strategic position.

Fourthly, finalise the strategic positions by allowing key subject matter committee of experts to evaluate each of the positions that meet the characteristics as well as the basis of the key elements mentioned above. The committee of experts on the subject matter should be in the position to identify top jobs and document the rationale for such a decision.

The fifth and final step is the review of the other positions that are not in strategic capability for value-creation potential. This is done to ensure that no strategic position is overlooked during the classification process.

Once the strategic positions for the organisation have been identified following the process described above, Becker *et al.*, (2009) believe that there is a need for a fundamental change in a particular organisation's workforce strategy. That change should involve the process of developing a differentiated workforce that has strategic capabilities to deliver the strategy of the organisation (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Huselid &

Becker, 2011). Although it is often believed that people are the most important assets of the organisation, the approach of differentiated workforce puts the strategy first, then people second (Collins, 2001; Boudreau and Ramstad, 1996; Farley 2005; Huselid, 1995; Lancaster, 1995). This line of thinking arises because Becker *et al.*, (2009) are of the view that talent has a strategic value only when it drives the execution of the organisation strategy.

With a differentiated workforce approach, organisations should develop an overall HR architecture that is structured to provide the unique human resource requirements of a specific business process (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Collings & Mellahi 2009). In this regard, it is worth pointing out that several authors in this field use the term HR architecture to describe HR practices, systems, employee competencies and employee behaviours that can help to implement the strategy of the organisation (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Becker *et al.*, 2009; and Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Therefore, an HR architectural approach is important because it is able to pinpoint the location of positions that create value in organisations. It is against this background that Becker and Huselid (2006) argue that there should be a differentiated HR architecture as required by key business processes. This means that the HR architecture should be such that it is able to provide human resource attributes and employee performance behaviours required in the identified strategic jobs of a particular organisation (Becker & Huselid, 2006).

According to Becker *et al.*, (2009), a differentiated workforce strategy involves making disproportionate financial investment in those strategic positions that have the potential to help create the strategic success of the organisation. In this connection, Becker *et al.*, (2009) state that a workforce differentiation strategy is important because it is concerned with creating new ways of doing business which the organisation's customers value in new and different ways. It is also important because it encourages different and specific HR practices to be introduced for different and specific jobs in terms of their design, recruitment, selection, development and compensation. The workforce differentiation approach, which leads to the development of a differentiated HR architecture, defines

the one-size-fits-all approach advocated by most HR practices in terms of job design, recruitment, selection, development and compensation.

Becker *et al.*, (2009) argue that workforce differentiation should take place at all levels of jobs in the organisation. The reason for their line of argument is because the workforce differentiation allows for the organisation to focus on strategic jobs that provide a clear strategic alignment for the workforce strategy. Based on this reason, Becker *et al.*, (2009), are of the view that it is important to offer a differentiated treatment and management to strategic jobs and employees occupying strategic jobs in an organisation, even if their education and training is similar to others.

However, in order to allow for the above-mentioned to take place, organisations should have effectively widely consulted other stakeholders on the talent management strategies that should support their corporate strategies (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings *et al.*, 2011). In fact, Becker *et al.*, (2009) point out that strategy should come first before anything else. This approach will make it possible for the talent management strategy to inform the organisation in terms of which positions are strategic (Axelrod *et al.*, 2002; Becker *et al.*, 2009; Handfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001). In this regard, Ringo *et al.*, (2008) note that the most important issue is that the organisation should have its own corporate strategy in place before a talent management strategy is developed. The organisations' talent management strategies should support the corporate strategies and guide the identification and planning process for future talent needs (Becker *et al.*, (2009; Collings *et al.*, 2011). It is against this background that Ringo *et al.*, (2008) suggest that talent management strategies should form part of the whole strategic vision and mission of the organisation. It is further argued that when talent management programmes form part of the overall strategic plan of the organisation, they allow for their discussion at every management meeting that reports on the progress of the strategic plan (Ringo *et al.*, 2008). This also allows talent management strategies to be internalised by all members of the management team in the organisation. In that way, talent management strategies become a permanent feature of the management agenda. According to Bluen (2013), Ernst and Young (2011) in their survey of 340 global leaders found that companies whose talent management programmes were aligned with their business strategies

delivered a return on investment that was, on average, 20% higher over a five year period than those of companies without such alignment. Similarly, a study of global talent management by Stahl *et al.*, (2007) confirmed that the high performing organisations they studied followed a top talent pool strategy.

Best practice in terms of identification of strategic positions following an agreed upon talent management strategy requires that HR Professionals of the organisation be familiar with both the strategy and the job contents of the strategic positions (Boudreau *et al.*, 2002). In this regard, Collings and Mellahi (2009) admit that the development of a pivotal talent pool where talent could be drawn from to fill strategic positions when they become available is best practice. However, in view of the limited availability of talent pools, Bluen (2013) suggests the possibility of several organisations with common talent needs creating a common central top talent pool where organisations are able to deploy resources appropriately and fairly amongst each other to be included in their talent management strategy. Collings and Mellahi (2009), who refers to creating a pool of high potential and high performing incumbents that organisations can draw upon to fill pivotal talent positions, support the idea of a common talent pool for many organisations.

The research findings also suggested that in addition to identification of strategic/key positions, such positions could also be created in situations where they did not exist before. According to Becker *et al.*, (2009), the process of creating strategic/key positions, just like the one of identifying strategic/key positions is informed by a clear statement of strategic intent on how the organisation intends to create a competitive advantage for itself in the industry it operates in. The process of designing/creating positions, be it strategic or non-strategic positions, requires that a person must thoroughly understand the job itself (through job analysis) and its place in the larger work unit's workflow process (through work flow analysis). Having a detailed knowledge of the tasks performed in the work unit, one may have many alternative ways of creating a position in an organisation (Hulin and Blood, 2008). This process is commonly known as job design. There are several definitions of job design by several authors (Asensio-Cuesta *et al.*, 2012; Nel *et al.*, 2010; Parker; 2014; Scott, 2012). Armstrong (2014) defines job

design as the process of deciding on the contents of a job in terms of its duties and responsibilities, on the methods to be used in carrying out the job, in terms of techniques, systems and procedures, and on the relationships that should exist between the job holder and his superior, subordinates and colleagues.

Although stream four of talent management emphasised the identification of strategic positions in an organisation, which differentially and strategically contribute to the organisation's performance (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009), it seems to ignore the fact that organisations are dynamic in nature. The literature reviewed in the fourth stream of talent management failed to acknowledge the fact that organisations are living institutions that change depending on various factors within the environment in which they operate. According to Gouillart and Kelly (1995), organisations, just like people, are living beings, complete with body, mind and spirit. Organisations are born; they think, they choose, they learn, they work and they grow old. In other words, every growing organism grows to maturity one day, levels off, and dies unless there is new life, new blood, a new activity and new ideas. Based on Gouillart and Kelly (1995)'s model that confirms that organisations are not stable, there was a need to create new strategic posts or positions, informed by the strategic plan of the DCA, rather than only identifying existing strategic positions. Furthermore, Saslow and Larcker (2014) state that because an organisation and its strategy are constantly evolving, the skills needed to run the organisation in the future might not be the same as they are presently. This line of thinking takes into account the fact that in the life span of an organisation, positions that were previously identified as strategic could one day not be regarded as such.

According to the public service staff rule A.11, the public service of Namibia does not make a distinction in the procedures of creating strategic positions versus non-strategic ones. The procedures are standard. Since the Directorate of Civil Aviation was part of the larger public service of Namibia, the procedure that was followed in creating their strategic positions was the same as the one that was followed when creating other ordinary positions. The only difference was that strategic positions in a civil aviation are already classified as such by the International Civil Aviation Organisation and member countries already know which positions are strategic for their country operations. On the basis of this arrangement, the Directorate of Civil Aviation approached the Public

Service Commission for the creation of their positions with the full knowledge of which position was strategic and which one was not. Public Service Staff rule A.11 sets out a general policy framework and directives on how organisation establishments and their respective positions are created. The rules that regulate the general policy framework were issued in terms of Section 35 of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995), and were approved by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission in terms of Section 5 of the said Act. When issuing such directives, the provisions of the Labour Act, 2007 (Act 11 of 2007), Public Service Commission Act, 1990 (Act 2 of 1990), the Regional Councils Act, 1992 (Act 22 of 1992) and the State Finance Act, 1991 (Act 31 of 1991) are also adhered to.

The Department of Public Service Management (DPSM) in the Public Service of Namibia is responsible for creating all strategic and non-strategic positions in the public service, including the ones at the DCA. It is important to mention that the creation of positions in the public service of Namibia is an inclusive process that involves several role players before such a position is finally approved by the Prime Minister or his/her delegate. These role players include the following:

- The Prime Minister, who approves the abolition and creation of posts and components in terms of Section 5 (2) (a), (b), (c) and (d) of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995), on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission;
- The Public Service Commission (PSC), which recommends the abolition and creation of posts and components;
- The Deputy Permanent Secretary: Public Service Management (Office of the Prime Minister - OPM), who validates submissions for organisation and establishment amendments by Director Organisation Development and Grading (DODG);
- The Director Organisational Development and Grading (DODG - OPM), who validates submissions for organisation and establishment amendments by the DODG;
- The Human Resource Policy Analysts in the Department Public Service Management (OPM), who gives advice on requests/proposals for organisational development and prepares substantiated requests;

- The Permanent Secretary of the requesting OMA or the Chief Regional Officer of a Regional Council (RC), who through the Permanent Secretary concerned initiates the request, validates its feasibility, ensures that funding is available and ensures implementation;
- The Head of the Human Resource Office (Human Resource Practitioner – HRP), who is employed in the requesting OMA and RC and advises on organisational development, co-ordinates requests for the abolition and creation of posts and components, and ensures that submissions are fully substantiated; and
- The Line Manager, who is responsible for the particular line function in the institution and motivates a request for organisational development,

According to the public service staff A.11, the process of creating establishment and positions in the public service of Namibia is as follows:

- A small team is appointed comprising representatives from the Department Public Service Management (DPSM) in the Office of the Prime Minister, HRPs from the OMAs and RCs and staff members from various functional areas to work together to develop a business plan for the proposed re-organisation; ensure compliance with the organisation and establishment checklist and design process in planning and implementation of the work; assigns a numerical value of High, Medium and Low to the assessments in order to create a rank order of positions; assessment of the impact of the envisaged position based on a prioritized list of the particular Office/Ministry/Agency (OMA) 's mission, goals, objectives and strategic plan; and do the costing and obtain the requisite budget figures prior to implementation.
- The small team also works on documenting the education, experience, key competencies and other factors necessary for the success of positions being created. These elements are assigned a numerical value of High, Medium and Low to the assessments in order to create a rank order of various components that defines the created positions.
- The Permanent Secretary of the OMA submits to the Deputy Permanent Secretary: DPSM a business plan, and signed organisation and compliance checklist for the project.

- The proposal and supporting documents are reviewed and submitted by the DODG (OPM) to the PSC who will oversee the integrity of the staffing system and ensure non-partisanship before a recommendation is made for approval. This oversight role will include maintaining and interpreting data on the public service, commissioning audits that provide assurance, making recommendations for improvements and conducting investigations that can lead to corrective action in the case of errors or problems.
- A human resource audit by the Division Monitoring and Evaluation, Department Public Service Commission Secretariat is conducted of the organisation and establishment project once it has been implemented (or prior to full implementation if appropriate).

2.4.2. Attraction, recruitment and selection

Attraction, recruitment and selection are three important functions of human resource management. Therefore, an effective and efficient attraction, recruitment and selection process is generally believed by human resource practitioners and academics to have a significant impact on survival, growth and development of an organisation (Lado & Wilson, 1994; Kumari, 2012; Shrimali & Gidwani, 2012; Wright *et al.*, 1994; Ofori & Aryeetey, 2011). Furthermore, Ongori (2010) pointed out that the recruitment and selection process is the function of human resource management, and brings the human resource into the organisation.

Attraction, recruitment and selection for strategic positions require that organisations use various methods or techniques of selecting the right talent that reflects the culture and value of that particular organisation (Armstrong, 2006). The process of attracting, recruiting and selecting of talent to strategic positions in an organisation is different from attraction, recruitment and selection for ordinary positions (Armstrong, 2006). Therefore, the attraction, recruitment and selection of people to strategic positions needs to be carefully planned in advance and should not be treated as emergencies. According to Fernandez-Araoz, Groysberg, and Nohria (2011), the ideal process in practice involves the following steps:

First, the needs of the organisation should be anticipated. In order to have an effective attraction, recruitment and selection process for strategic positions, it is important to recognise that the pool of existing top performers occupying strategic positions in one's Organisation are at all times is inadequate to cover its needs. This is said against the background that despite any organisation's best retention strategies, some top talent will leave at some stage to pursue other opportunities. Taking this reality into account, there is a need for organisations to review their high-level strategic jobs after a defined period of time, say two to three years in line with their strategic business plan. In this regard, Saslow and Larcker (2014) state that, because an organisation and its strategy are constantly evolving, the skills needed to run the organisation in the future might not be the same as they are presently. Therefore, strategic positions should be evaluated in terms of their ability to meet the future, not just past or current needs. This process involves answering to questions such as: How many people will the organisation need in a given year, and how many of those will be required to fill strategic positions? What will the organisational structure look like in the near future? Based on the projected future outlook of the organisational structure, today's talent pipeline should ensure that the organisation could find and develop tomorrow's talent.

Secondly, organisations should specify their job competencies. According to Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, (2011), organisations make mistakes by taking one-size-fits-all approach when filling strategic positions. One of the mistakes most organisations make is to rely on general requirements when they are looking for people with specific skills set and competences. When advertising and selecting for strategic positions, there is a need to define specific attributes the organisation wants for the particular position. According to Bluen (2013), these could include job-based competencies defining specific job requirements such as the type of skills and experience that are relevant, in addition to formal educational qualifications. Bluen (2013) asserts that where a skill based recruitment and selection approach is adopted, skills-based pay may also be considered, where top talent is paid for the number of skill units they can demonstrate. When making selection decisions for strategic positions, it is important for organisations to decide upfront on whether they will choose people who have specific skills required to

fill such position or rather opt for talent with high potential (Bluen: 2013). This decision has to be made upfront because a successful talent management may also be obtained by recruiting for potential, rather than focusing on the current skills needed (Bluen: 2013).

Thirdly, organisations should create a pool of appropriate applicants. Attracting, recruiting and selecting for strategic positions require that an organisation to create a pool of talented people to choose from. According to Ballesteros *et al.*, (2010), a talent pool is a group of employees with special traits and could be a source of future senior executives in an organisation. It is suggested that talented employees in the talent pool should get 'special treatment' in order to accelerate their development and performance (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). The talent pool should develop talent with a particular succession or career path in mind or within a broader organisational context (Stahl *et al.*, 2007; Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

When creating a talent pool, Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, (2011) suggested that organisations should not limit the pool of interested candidates. It is advised that organisations should rather develop a large talent pool to allow greater choices. The sources of talented employees can be internal or external. However, David *et al.*, (2007), suggested that the best way to create a talent pool is through internal sources since the employees have already the knowledge of how business processes work and can be incorporated directly into the new strategic position while the morale of the workforce is uplifted. However, internal potential applicants that should form the talent pool should have defined set of skills and capabilities that are comparable to their scope of responsibility and relationship to the organisational strategy (Saslow & Larcker, 2014). Furthermore, applicants considered for the talent pool should be evaluated not only in terms of their ability to achieve the requirements of their current role, but also in terms of their potential to assume different or larger roles in the organisation.

While it advisable to consider talent from both inside and outside the organisation to develop a talent pool, McDonnell and Collings (2011) advise getting the correct balance between internal and external talent. Pfeffer (2001) sees some shortcomings with bringing talent from outside to the talent pool and warns about the possible glorification of the talents of those outside the organisation while playing down the talents of

insiders. He further warns of such an approach as having the potential of paying particular special attention to few individuals over teamwork, and the failure to correct deep cultural problems that affect the performance of the majority of employees. While outsiders have the advantage of bringing new thinking into the organisation, it is argued that it is not known if they are able to meet the high expectations (Groysberg *et al.*, 2004).

Lastly, organisations should assess and select the candidates. Assessment and selection of people for strategic positions is inherently a difficult process. This is so because strategic jobs are ever changing in nature and character as the organisation evolves (Saslow & Larcker, 2014). Some strategic positions are characterised by intangible traits, which are naturally difficult to assess. Therefore, finding the right interviewers who are also able to keep pace with the changing nature and character of strategic positions is a challenge in itself. Some of the problems that arise during recruitment and selection process for strategic positions are when an organisation uses unstructured or generic interviews or use wrong people to interview top talent (Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2011). The process may also go wrong when too many unreliable filters and bureaucratic steps are taken during the process. This approach can easily frustrate top talent. According to Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, (2011), the assessment and selection process of top talent to strategic positions will yield better results if an organisation uses the following four elements:

First, they should choose the right interviewers. An interview is a specialised form of conversation conducted for a specific task-related purpose (Whetton & Cameron, 2002). The primary objective of interview is to predict whether a candidate will meet the performance expectation on the job (Camp *et al.*, 2001). Therefore, a panel of interviewers is formed when two or more people are gathered to interview one candidate. This involves a situation in which an HR specialist and line managers, including other people, see the candidate at the same time (Armstrong, 2009). The interviewing panel forms a joint opinion on the suitability and employability of the candidate. The result is often based on consensus. In general, interviewers should be trained and be familiar with various interviewing method before they are allowed to

engage in the process. Furthermore, it is also expected that interviewers should possess advanced interviewing skills to conduct interviews. However, interviewers of people intended to occupy strategic positions should in addition to the above-mentioned, have the ability to employ rigorous behavioural event interviews. A behavioural interview is more effective because it predicts a candidate's future behaviour based on his /her life history experiences (Green, 1991). Research indicates that behavioural interviews are nearly eight times more effective for predicting successful job performance (Merritt, 2003). Ideally, the interviewers, in such a particular situation, should have the necessary experience and appropriate skills set of the strategic position being interviewed.

Secondly, Organisations should choose the right number of Interviewers. Despite the availability of several forms of interviews, an important element to the success of interviews for strategic positions is the ability to put together a qualified and credible interviewing selection interview panel. Traditionally, the more people are involved in an interview process, the more the risk of hiring a wrong candidate is reduced. But it is also correct that the more people are involved in an interview process, the risk of rejecting the right candidate is increased. As a general principle, a small number of high-calibre, but well trained and properly motivated interviewers could be best suited for strategic positions. The interviewing selection interview panel should also have the ability to differentiate between people who have skills to fill key positions and those who have the potential (Bluen, 2013).

Thirdly, interviewing panels should choose the right interviewing techniques for particular interviews. A difference exists between someone who is able to answer all questions during the selection interviews and someone who is unable to answer all questions but has the ability to perform and deliver. Oral selection interviews have a tendency of being biased towards those whose speaking performance is regarded as good compared to those whose speaking performance is generally regarded as not impressive. Therefore, deciding on the right interviewing technique for strategic positions upfront is important. There are many interviewing techniques that are meant to get more information from a candidate. However, interviewing for strategic positions requires that certain type of information be obtained from a candidate to assist in the

selection decision. In this regard, Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, (2011), recommends the use of structured interview called a “behavioural event interview,” followed by thorough reference checks. Generally, behavioural event interviews ask open-ended questions that require the job applicant to provide timelines of their behaviour, thoughts, values and character in a story form (Green, 1991). These kinds of interviews attempt to gauge the behavioural competencies where traditional interview questions cannot. Although many forms of getting reference checks of potential candidates are available, it is suggested that for strategic positions, one of the top executives of the organisation should meet in person with the referee. Ideally, interviewers should ask candidates the type of questions that would describe their specific experiences in the past that could be similar to the ones they could face in your Organisation. In this manner, the interviewer will find out whether the candidate’s past reveals the specific competencies and skills the interviewing panel is looking for.

Fourthly, organisations should ensure that the right support is available for the new hire. There is often an assumption that an impressive educational background or years of experience in senior positions elsewhere almost guarantee the success to a strategic position. With this in mind, Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, (2011) advise that it may be helpful to consider exposing the top two to three candidates to a few key stakeholders who have been properly briefed, for further evaluation. Furthermore, Saslow and Larcker (2014) also advise that other professional third-party could also be engaged to bring an outside perspective and degree of objectivity to the development process of the newcomer. However, the immediate supervisor is the one who should make the final decision and create a conducive environment for the newcomer in the organisation.

Lastly, is the finalisation of the appointment and induction of the newcomer. After the correct candidate has finally been selected and the appointment letter given, the organisation should continue to demonstrate active support for the candidate’s interest. One of the simple ways to provide this kind of support to the newcomer could include senior people in the organisation finding time to describe the job realistically to the candidate. This process should involve the line manager concerned, and not just HR. Furthermore, it is also important to ensure that the agreed upon compensation is fair to

other employees. In addition to the above-mentioned, a formal induction or orientation course is necessary for new recruits, which is an investment in employee morale, productivity and retention (Armstrong, 2009; Aspridis, 2013). The use of veteran top performers as mentors to the new recruits that are meant to occupy strategic positions is essential (Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2011). It is also important to make sure that the newcomer checks in regularly with his manager, mentor, and HR staff even when no problems have arisen.

In addition to the above-mentioned, Bluen (2013) is of view that psychometric assessments should form a cornerstone of selection decisions, especially when recruiting for potential. However, he warns that such psychometric tools should not only comply with legislation, but should also have reliability, predictive validity, and cultural fairness.

In addition to observing the talent management activities as discussed above, it is important that organisations should also understand their own needs and the industry they operate within, in order to develop well-articulated attraction, recruitment and selection strategies. Boxall and Purcell (2008) highlight five different questions an organisation has to answer to have an effective attraction, recruitment and selection strategy in order to pursue its survival and success. An attraction, recruitment and selection strategy is a plan devised in an effort to conduct an efficient and effective recruitment process. Those questions are “Whom to recruit?”, “Where to recruit?”, “What recruitment sources to use?”, “When to recruit?” and “What message to communicate?” When correct answers to these questions are found, organisations will be in a better position to formulate their attraction, recruitment and selection strategy. According to Windolf (1986), attraction, recruitment and selection strategies adopted by organisations depend on factors such as resource availability and its environmental dynamics, as well as organisational intelligence and its ability to handle complex labour markets in terms of using professional knowledge to gather and process information and to devise complex labour market strategies. Becker *et al.*, (2001) advise that the best attraction, recruitment and selection practice strategy should include other HR practices that might generate superior outcomes at the organisational level. It is for this reason that Ahlrichs (2000) advises that the process of attracting, recruiting and selecting

employees to strategic positions is very important and should not be left in the hands of HR alone, particularly junior employees. A well-planned attraction, recruitment and selection process leads to business success and could therefore be regarded as the foundation for a good talent management programme for an organisation.

While it is important for organisations to have their attraction, recruitment and selection strategies in place, it is equally important that they also look at good practices. According to Appelbaum and Fewster (2003), the selection criteria for a pilot for example should not only be based technical skills, but should also include interpersonal skills. Benoff (2001), on the other hand, suggested helpful selection tips in the aviation industry that included issues as how to target job announcement locations, what to look for in a resume, how to assess the applicant's work experience and career path, how to prepare for the interview, and how to conduct the interview and reference checks. According Ellis (2001), the primary role of the selection officer in the aviation industry is to make sure that there is cultural fit for the person been hired. Furthermore, the selection process should include a personality test as well as interviews by a recruiter, the candidate's potential supervisor and a peer employee. Furthermore, Ellis (2001) states that aviation companies should differentiate between different job categories. For example, he is of the view that for frontline jobs in the aviation industry, companies should consider appointing on the basis of the attitudes that the candidate portray and then train them for specific skills because of the belief that skills can be taught but attitudes cannot be changed. Part of the interview process should involve testing for "a sense of humor, ability to work with others, and friendliness" (Czaplewski *et al.*, 2001, p. 15).

Several researchers consider the following as good attraction, recruitment and selection practices (CIPD, 2007; Beardwell, 2007; Cober & Brown, 2006; Grobler *et al.*, 2006; Madia, 2011; Tucker, 2012; Zottoli & Wanous, 2000; Pollit, 2005; Tong & Sivanand, 2005; Madia, 2011; Tucker, 2012; Stone *et al.*, 2006):

First, best practice requires the process of designing the job advertisement for strategic positions be different from those of ordinary positions. In this regard, best practice

requires that the design of strategic positions should first be analysed in terms of their employee value proposition so that the advert is clearer and does not confuse potential top talent (Aspridis, 2009; Becker, *et al.*, 2009; Dessler, 2009; Martin *et al.*, 2002). It is argued that a good recruitment process for a strategic position should begin with properly designed job advertisement requirements that are specific to the strategic job (Armstrong, 2009). In order to achieve this, it is good practice, that the design of the job advertisement requirements for strategic positions be verified by a manager in situations where the responsibility to draw such was left to junior employees.

Secondly, several authors note that there are many different advertisement methods that could be used to attract suitable candidates to strategic positions. These include walk-ins by individuals actively looking for jobs, university and school campus recruiting, career fairs, recruitment agencies, newspaper advertising and head-hunting of suitable candidates (Beardwell, 2007; Cober & Brown, 2006; Grobler *et al.*, 2006; Madia, 2011; Tucker, 2012; Zottoli & Wanous, 2000). However, literature suggests that using e-recruitment methods such as radio, television, twitter, cell phones and internet recruitment that are modern, efficient, popular and cost-effective could be regarded as best practice for attracting suitable candidates to strategic positions (Pollit, 2005; Tong & Sivanand, 2005; Madia, 2011; Tucker, 2012; Stone *et al.*, 2006).

Thirdly, as for Pilbeam and Corbridge (2002), the best recruitment and selection practice should always extend to attracting suitable candidates and eliminating unsuitable candidates and converting the successful candidates into top talent.

Fourthly, instead of the traditional method of interview selection committee, many organisations now use online selection and testing which seems to be growing in popularity (Cappelli, 2001; Madia, 2011; Tucker, 2012).

Fifthly, best practice requires that HR staff involved in the process of shortlisting potential candidates for interviews should have a good understanding of the job content and the educational requirements that match the job (Ahlrichs, 2000; Armstrong, 2009). It also requires that officials doing the shortlisting develop shortlisting criteria to help

with the fairness and transparency of the process. It is advisable that people qualified to perform these tasks be allowed to do so to avoid compromising the shortlisting process (Ahlrichs, 2000).

Lastly, it is best to have experienced and trained senior employees conduct interviews in order to improve the quality of the hiring of top talent, (Ahlrichs, 2000; Bluen, 2013; Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2009). In this regard, Barber (1998) and Taylor and Collins (2000) suggest that individuals designated as interviewers in an organisation should possess greater interpersonal skills and warmth that may be an important reason why applicants decide to accept job offers.

2.4.3. Succession management plan

According to Sharma, Agarwal and Ganjiwale (2011), succession management planning is a process that should be aligned with the business plan to understand and meet the requirements for strategic positions in the organisation. As the organisation evolves and changes, there is a continuous need to move people into positions that are identified as strategic and crucial for its operations. Therefore, succession management planning is a very important function that enables managers and individuals to identify the right candidates for strategic positions.

The traditional succession management planning style of allowing only one person to understudy a senior should be avoided. This process, which is referred to as replacement planning, focuses narrowly on identifying specific back-up candidates for given senior management positions (Kesler, 2002). According to Charan, Drotter and Noel (2001) (cited in Kesler, 2002), effective succession management planning concerns itself with building a series of feeder groups up and down the entire leadership pipeline or progression. The concept of accelerated pools of talent is encouraged. In this regard, Chhabra and Mishra (2008) suggest that there is a need to develop a group of high potential candidates to understudy certain identified executive jobs and focus on increasing their skills and knowledge.

Several authors have echoed the importance of the process of succession management planning (Garman & Glawe, 2004; Giambatista *et al.*, 2006; Fegley, 2006; Rothwell, 2005). For example, a study conducted by Rothwell in 2004 involving over 500 Human Resources Management (HRM) professionals of different organisations revealed that all respondents (i.e. 100%) agreed that succession management planning was important to their organisations (Rothwell, 2005). In another study, it was found that organisations with formal succession management planning were 80 per cent prepared to immediately fill leadership positions (Fegley, 2006). This level of preparedness also enhances the opportunities of organisations to prevent some unknown business risks.

Succession management planning is an essential activity of talent management because it addresses the imminent critical talent shortage in most organisations (Binard Carlson, 2007; Heuer, 2003; Hull, 2005; Mackey, 2008; Rothwell, 2002). However, it should be noted that succession management planning is not a process of replacing those that leave the organisation. It is a very important strategy for the long-term sustainability and viability of the organisations (Mandi, 2008). When senior and experienced officials retire, organisations are drained with technical and cultural knowledge (Kesler, 2002). However, if succession management planning is in place as the organisation strategy, it can prevent loss of the organisational knowledge and culture (Lynch, 2006).

To emphasise the importance of succession management planning, several studies have also found that there exists a link between succession management planning and organisational performance (Khumalo & Harris, 2008; Rowe *et al.*, 2005; Rothwell, 2005). For example, in the business world, experience has shown that investors tend to value companies that have a known heir when a CEO leaves (Behn, Riley, & Yang, 2005).

In this regard, stream four of talent management literature suggests that organisations following this approach have a succession management plan in place by virtue of their classification of employees into categories of A, B and C. By this classification “A performers” occupy strategic positions. However, organisations need to prepare “B performers” so that they can take over the places of “A performers,” while “C performers” are prepared to take over from “B performers” (Axelrod *et al.*, 2002;

Huselid, *et al.*, 2005; Iles, Chuai & Preece, 2010). This in itself could be seen as succession management planning.

It is important that an organisation should have a strategy to implement their succession management plan effectively, particularly for strategic positions that are essential to their long-term existence (Conger & Fulmer, 2003). Part of the strategy should be for organisations to decide if their succession management plan is to be considered as an activity of simply replacing those who leave (Conger & Fulmer, 2003) or the one where organisations need to identify, track and develop specific back-up individuals so that they may eventually assume top-level positions (Kesler, 2002). Other strategies include those of Chhabra and Mishra (2008) that suggest that there is a need to develop a group of high potential candidates to understudy certain identified executive jobs and focus on increasing their skills and knowledge. This approach encourages accelerating general pools of talent (Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Yarnall, 2010). Furthermore, this strategy advocates for the identification of strategic positions in an organisation and attracting talent from a pool of B performers to fill A positions makes an organisation succeed (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Collings & Mellahi 2009; Iles *et al.*, 2010).

Some of the best practices for talent management when it comes to succession management planning include the following:

First, several authors identify as best practice the idea of having a formal succession management plan that clearly indicates the type of activities to be undertaken before, during, and after the envisaged transition, as well as the predecessors and envisaged successors (Behn *et al.*, 2005; Hansen & Wexler, 1988; Sharma *et al.*, 2003; Lee *et al.*, 2003). The formal plan should also include the process of how the successor could be identified as well as initiatives to minimise the risks that are caused by the relationships with those involved with succession (Beckhard & Dyer, 1983; Schleifer, 1999). In this regard, Hadelman *et al.*, (2005) propose that in order to find an appropriate successor, potential candidates should be allowed to present their vision and goals of the company's future, the company's future needs, and the short and long term responsibilities of the position in question.

Secondly, other authors see the process of building a talent pool in an organisation as best practice for succession management planning (Armstrong, 2009; Axelrod *et al.*, 2002; Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Bhatnagar, 2008; Charan, Drotter, and Noel, 2001). As early as 2001, Charan, Drotter, and Noel, (2001) argued that an effective succession management planning concerns itself with building a series of feeder groups up and down the entire leadership pipeline or progression. In this context, Axelrod *et al.*, (2002) argue that the success of an organisation depends on a pool of managerial talent to drive the business. Furthermore, Boudreau and Ramstad (2005) advocate for the identification of pivotal talent pools where human capital has the potential of making the biggest difference to the strategic success of the organisation. Also, referring to the concept of building talent pools Chhabra and Mishra (2008) suggest that there is a need to develop a group of high potential candidates to understudy certain identified executive jobs and focus on increasing their skills and knowledge. In this regard, Armstrong (2009) underscores the fact that the talent pool should be developed with a sufficient supply of good people who have the potential to take over key roles from retiring people in the longer term. These people should also possess the right skills and competencies for the future.

Thirdly, while appreciating the idea of creating talent pools, Sharma *et al.*, (2011) argue that best practice should call for strategic alignment between succession management planning and the organisation's business plan. Furthermore, Sharma *et al.*, (2011) state that succession management planning is a process that should be aligned with the business plan to understand and meet requirements for key positions in the organisation. In this way, progress on succession management plans of the organisation gets discussed and reviewed regularly at management meetings and it will regularly form part of the management agenda.

Fourthly, it is suggested that organisations should reinforce their senior leadership support by assigning responsibilities for succession efforts (Carey & Ogden, 1997; Fulmer, 2002). This is suggested against the knowledge that senior leadership usually actively participates in meetings that regularly ensure that the needed financial and staff resources for key succession management planning initiatives are available. Therefore, it is important that senior leadership should understand and buy into the importance of

succession management planning and contribute to the plan, so that they have ownership and approval to the succession management plan (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2001; Morris *et al.*, 1997; Sambrook, 2005).

Finally, the coordination and evaluation of training and development efforts of the organisation to help leverage the scarce resources should be enhanced and are seen by many authors as best practice of talent management (Bernthal & Wellins, 2006; Dyck *et al.*, 2002; Fulmer, 2002). One of these activities could be developing a formal training and development plan that is agreed to by the successor (Dyck *et al.*, 2002). The training and development plan should thus be easy for the successor to follow (Fulmer, 2002). Although there are many training and development activities that could be used to prepare a successor, Bernthal and Wellins (2006) suggest specific development programmes that organisations may consider utilising to prepare successors. These include formal workshops, special projects within one's own job responsibilities, tests, assessments or other measures of skills, coaching with internal coaches or mentors, as well as special projects outside of one's own responsibilities (Bernthal and Wellins, 2006).

2.4.4. Retention of talent

The research described that employee retention is a challenging notion and there is no particular method to retain employees within the organisation (Jehanzeb & Bashir, 2013). However, Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2000) believe that the key role of Human Resources Development professionals in an organisation is to lead the war for talent. They must design systemic retention processes but must be strategic thinkers in order to achieve this. They should see the big picture and then identify and point out the ramifications and real cost of talent loss. Retaining top talent makes an organisation succeed in both good and bad times. The war of talent is all about retaining the highest quality of candidates that adds to the organisation's competitive advantage (Guthridge, Komm and Lawson, 2008). In order to retain the best talent to strategic positions, organisational branding is a useful strategy that should be used to gain advantage in the highly competitive global market place (Ana, 2009; Anthony, 2013). Employer branding includes development of an organisation's image, good enough to retain top talent to

strategic positions of an organisation. Without the good brand image, it is difficult to attract the right talents (Ana, 2009; Anthony, 2013). One common characteristic of top rated companies is that they give clear and consistent messages about themselves and that translates into a strong pull on top talents (Tanuja, 2007). In this regard, the employee value proposition for top talent is determined by the potential employee's perception of the reputation of an organisation seeking to recruit him. Based on the above, the top talented employees measure the organisation's value proposition based on the challenge the job possesses, work environment, training opportunities, flexibility and reputation of the organisation (Oehley, 2007).

With regard to retention of top talent in strategic positions, it should be noted that high employee turnover could have a direct impact on the organisation's bottom line. Not only does high employee turnover cost the organisation in terms of recruitment and training, but it also impacts on the organisation's ability to provide consistent, high-quality service to its clientele (Zikmund, 2000). In order to avoid high employee turnover, organisations should ensure that those prospective employees' attitudes and values are aligned to those of the strategic position and organisation on the whole (Vance, 2006).

Most talent management programmes offer organisations proven and practical ways to significantly improve employee satisfaction and retention in order to reduce turnover and its associated costs. Therefore, no discussion of talent management is complete without reference to retention strategies. Taking the above-mentioned into account, if managers do not pay attention to retention, high turnover of key talent may occur (Horwitz, Heng and Quazi, 2003; Lockwood, 2006). High turnover of key talent occupying strategic positions has the potential of affecting the business of the organisation severely, because it limits organisational productivity and could lead to customer dissatisfaction, which affects the organisational growth and compromise profits (Curtis & Wright, 2001). Top talent retention is also important because finding a replacement is not only expensive, but also hard when markets sometimes become tight (Cappelli, 2000; Curtis & Wright, 2001; Thornton, 2001).

According to Hytter, (2006) several factors appear to influence retention. Some influence retention directly while others seem to do so indirectly. Kaye and Jordan-Evans (2000), in a 1999 Hay group survey of more than 500,000 employees in 300 companies in the United States of America, found that out of the 50 retention factors (direct or indirect), the most important included the following: pay satisfaction, employee engagement, nature of the job, career development, working conditions, pride and recognition, flexible working conditions, flat hierarchy, open communication, employee motivation, employee engagement, employer branding as well as the leadership factor. In their studies Ramlall (2003), Hytter (2006) and James and Mathew (2012) have confirmed some of these retention factors. Factors such as pay satisfaction, motivation, job autonomy, career development, employee engagement, leadership, and employer branding have been identified as elements that organisations could use as retention strategies for top talent in strategic positions and are discussed as follows:

Firstly, with regard to pay satisfaction it has been argued that money alone is not a positive motivator in terms of keeping talent in strategic positions. However, it can be a major de-motivator if the organisation does not pay at market or at the level that people believe is reasonable (Bluen, 2013; Cappelli, 2000). Therefore offering of a competitive remuneration package is considered as best practice retention practice for top talent in the organisation (Bluen, 2013; Hytter, 2006; James & Mathew, 2012; Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2000; Ramlall, 2003). There is a general understanding that a competitive remuneration package makes strategic employees stay in strategic positions. The package could include a good pension, healthcare, housing allowance, car allowance and even children's education. It is argued that if organisations do not offer top talent competitive remuneration packages, they will decline the offer, especially when there are other organisations that could offer the same or even better. Furthermore, there is sufficient evidence from several surveys and research findings that suggests that paying competitive compensation is always less expensive than paying the turnover costs of rehiring and refilling positions (Ahrichs, 2000; Bluen, 2013; Bernthal & Wellins, 2001; Nel *et al.*, 2010). In this regard, Stahl *et al.*, (2007) claim that creating and delivering a compelling employee value proposition and highly competitive compensation and a

healthy balance between personal and professional lives are some of the elements that will keep talent in an organisation.

Secondly, Hytter (2006) argues that motivation of top talent occupying a strategic position in an organisation is an important activity of talent retention. As early as in 1959, Herzberg (1959) argued that employees stay longer in the organisation when they are motivated. He further argued that employees are motivated by internal values instead of values that are external to the work. Therefore, motivation, which is a retention strategy, according to Bassett-Jones and Lloyd (2005), is generated internally within the organisation and is guided by intrinsic variables such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement and growth. According to Herzberg (1959) these are called “the motivators.”

Groysberg, Nanda and Nohria (2004) argued that retaining top performers in strategic positions requires more than good salaries. Groysberg *et al.*, (2004) advised that it is important for organisations to understand what motivates high performers occupying strategic positions, and then take necessary steps to satisfy their needs in order to keep them. Similarly, James and Mathew (2012) suggested that in order to avoid top talent loss, the most effective talent retention strategy in an organisation requires an on-going examination of the nature and causes of turnover. They are of the opinion that once the reasons for leaving are known, ways and means of keeping top talent, particularly in strategic positions, should be a lot easier to work out. Furthermore, Groysberg *et al.*, (2004) suggested that in order to retain top performers in strategic positions requires that organisations should establish support systems for them. These support systems and processes include the willingness of organisations to establish procedures and routines that encourage individuals to succeed.

Thirdly, job autonomy is important because people look for reasonable degree of autonomy in order to be able to be innovative and to deliver results they can own. In this context, the key is to provide a degree of structure so that they can be innovative within certain limits (Bluen: 2013). In Herzberg’s two-factor model, work itself is an important motivational factor. The greater the responsibility, the more the individual

feels the satisfaction of advancement (Heller, 1998). Exit interviews conducted by the Canadian Public Service in 2004 indicated that increasing number of public servants who opted to leave before retirement age felt that their talents were underutilised, and that the public service environment frustrated attempts to serve the public interest (Burkholder *et al.*, 2004). The Canadian research also showed that talented public servants derive intrinsic motivation from the scope of their work, the range of duties and the autonomy of making quick, independent decisions (Burkholder *et al.*, 2004). It is generally believed that public sector jobs are boring and routine in nature. It is because of this perception that the image of the public sector is one of the key challenges facing governments today.

Fourthly, in terms of career development, most top performers are worried about the future and would like to advance their careers on a continuous basis. In order to keep top talent in an organisation, there is a need for management to create individual development plans that link personal objectives to the organisation plans for growth, rather than following a generic competency model (Martin & Schmidt, 2010; Saslow and Larcker, 2014). Furthermore, management is advised to hold regular, open dialogues between top performers occupying strategic positions and line managers to monitor employee's development and satisfaction. Some studies have revealed that one of the ways to retain talent in the organisation is to expose them to training and development activities that enhance their career development (Logan, 2000; Stahl *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, there is strong relationship between employee career development and employee retention (Rosenwald, 2000).

Peppitt (2004) argues that career advancement, which comes as a result of career development, and the opportunity to realise job growth are two important motivational factors. However, since promotion opportunities are always limited in most of the public sector organisations, career advancement in the hierarchy for most of the public service employees may not be so satisfactory. In many public services, upward mobility of a civil servant largely depends on the death or retirement of the person in the next senior position. This situation limits the retention capacity of talent in the public sector.

Fifthly, employee engagement has emerged over the years as an important retention strategy to strategic positions in organisations (Bhatnagar, 2007; Bluen, 2013; Hughes & Rog, 2008; HR Focus, 2006; HR Focus, 2007; Trevor, *et al.*, 2003). The term “employee engagement” refers to employees’ level of emotional and intellectual involvement in their work that motivates them to give their best efforts. Employee engagement, according to Vance (2006), includes the degree to which employees fully occupy themselves in their work, as well as the strength of their commitment to the employer and role. Studies have found that high levels of employee engagement is a crucial factor in retaining high-value employees and reducing staff turnover, fostering customer loyalty and improving organisational performance and stakeholder value (Bluen, 2013; Frase, 2013; Joo & Mclean, 2006; Lockwood, 2007; Simpson, 2009; Martel, 2003; Vance, 2006; Wollard, 2011). According to Bhatnagar (2007), employee engagement has a substantial impact on employee productivity and talent retention. In fact, Lockwood (2006) is of the view that employee engagement can make or break the bottom line of an organisation. Therefore, organisations that make a concerted effort to engage with and listen to their employees will benefit from improved staff retention and better business performance. In this regard, Lockwood (2007) argues that employee engagement is a key business driver for the success of an organisation.

In their study Harter *et al.*, (2002; 2003) found that there was a relationship at the business-unit level between employee satisfaction-engagement and the business-unit outcomes of customer satisfaction, productivity, profit, employee turnover, and accidents. Based on the results of their study, they defined employee engagement as the “individual’s involvement and satisfaction as well as enthusiasm for work” (Harter *et al.*, 2002: 269). Therefore, engaging employees basically refers to giving them an opportunity to participate in meaningful work by allowing them the freedom to think, show their passion to work, and in the process, earning each their trust. Martel (2003) believes employees should be allowed to actively participate in the affairs of the organisation in order to make them happy and stay in it. In order to retain top performing employees in key positions, Bluen (2013) suggests that employers should engage each person individually so that they are motivated to perform optimally over a period of time. Organisations should refrain from adopting generic engagement plans

for everybody and instead differentiate them depending on individual skills of employees. A survey conducted by Strategic Human Resource Management (SHRM) found that talented employees with the highest levels of commitment performed 20% better and were 87% less likely to leave the organisation, which indicates that engagement is linked to organisational performance (Lockwood, 2007).

While recognising the work of Harter *et al.*, (2002; 2003) in this area, in their study, Hewitt and Associates (2004) defined employee engagement as a measure of the energy and passion that employees have for their organisations. They argued that engaged employees are individuals who take action to improve business results for their organisations. These employees are optimistic and committed to the organisation, say positive things about their workplace, and strive to go above and beyond to deliver extraordinary work. It has been found that when an organisation involves people in the planning of their work, their minds are liberated and become creative. Creative minds are a source of innovation that can quickly respond to challenges when they are given more autonomy (Lockwood, 2007; Wollard, 2011). Engaged employees have consistently been shown to be more productive, profitable, safer, healthier, and less likely to leave the organisation that engages them (Fleming & Asplund, 2007; Wagner & Harter, 2006; Wollard, 2011).

Martin and Schmidt (2010) confirmed in their study that top talent with high potential was inclined to stay if they were highly engaged. Furthermore, Martin and Schmidt (2010) advise that the employer should not delegate down the management of top talent. This should be the responsibility of senior members of the organisation. When delegation by management of top talent happens, it demoralises top talent and they will eventually leave. Similarly, Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, (2009) advises that incompetent supervisors and managers should have high-level interpersonal skills to avoid causing stressful working environment to top talent.

Sixthly, good organisational leadership has been described as another employee retention strategy (Chaminade, 2006). This highlights the impact that leaders and managers can have on attraction and retention. People, including talented ones, will put

in more discretionary effort for personal/social recognition received from their peers and immediate supervisor. Employees will stay if they have a good relationship and open communication with their immediate supervisor (Institute, 2001). The key reason employees leave within a short period of between six and twelve months of commencing in a new role, is the relationship they have with their supervisor (HRI Institute, 2001).

In this regard, several South African studies have shown that the extent to which managers (leaders) apply talent management practices in organisations have a significant impact on employees' intention to leave the company (Barkhuizen *et al.*, 2014; Barkhuizen & Veldtman, 2012; Du Plessis *et al.*, 2010; Mpofu & Barkhuizen, 2013; Mtila *et al.*, 2013). Furthermore, research by Barkhuizen *et al.*, (2014) in the South African aviation industry highlighted the importance of effectively applying talent management practices in an industry where talented employees are scarce. The research concluded that leaders needed to be equipped with the necessary business acumen to make talent management both a strategic and operation priority in organisations. Therefore, organisations should also provide appropriate leadership in order to retain talent. It should be noted that even talented employees occupying strategic positions still need leadership in the form of coaching and mentoring to excel (Groysberg, *et al.*, 2004). By investing in employee growth on an on-going basis, employees are more connected with the organisation as they see the potential for long-term growth and understand the organisation has invested in their on-going success (Ramsay, 2006).

Seventhly, it was also found that rotation of those in strategic positions encourages their stay in an organisation. In a survey conducted by AMA Enterprises in the USA, it was found that best retention practice included the idea of a multi-disciplinary rotation programme in an organisation (Kelly, 2013). The study found that rotating talent across disciplines, divisions and location helped high potential employees to understand the business of the organisation from a different functional and geographical perspective (Kelly, 2013). For example, IBM sends a limited number of senior leaders from mature markets to emerging ones in order to enhance IBM's reputation in these markets. In this way, IBM's international experience helps to develop a pool of globally competent

employees while at the same time helping employees to adapt different culture and situations (Kelly, 2013). This experience makes talent stay longer in an organisation.

Eighthly, the issue of induction is considered important for retention purposes. In the United States of America, Duncan Aviation was a leader in aviation service and maintenance, which had received top class rating for 25 years in Professional Pilot magazine's annual survey for avionics and maintenance. Falter (2000), writing from her experience with Duncan Aviation stated that for their company to remain on top, they had developed the practice which compelled that within one week of hire, the president of the company would meet with all new employees as part of their orientation and to learn about the new people. This approach made the new recruits comfortable and felt that they were welcome to stay.

Lastly, employer branding is another retention strategy (Brewster *et al.*, 2005). To adopt new strategies to retain talent, organisations need to accept the new reality that markets, and not them, ultimately determine the movement of employees (Cappelli, 2000; Horwitz *et al.*, 2003). Therefore, leadership should make their organisations pleasant and rewarding places to work in. The design of talent management programmes could be a decisive factor in the employees' decisions to work for specific employers. In this connection, employer branding is one of the most important retention strategies of an organisation, which identifies human capital as the unique and differentiating factor from the rivals (Anthony, 2013). According to Bhatnagar (2007), talent retention is achievable when organisations build a fierce employer brand. However, this would be possible if organisations provide employees with a passion to work, and an engrossing environment, which maximises their performance and gives a continuous work experience that is difficult for competitors to replicate (Bhatnagar (2007). Therefore, organisations should start to invest in employer branding because such an approach builds an image confirming the Organisation as a good place to work. Naturally, talented people would like to work for good employers.

2.4.5. Training and development

According to Nel *et al.*, (2010), training and development are important for preparing employees of an organisation with the required knowledge and skills so that they contribute meaningfully to the success of the organisation. It is on this basis that training and development has become important to organisations seeking to gain an advantage among competitors (Brum, 2007; Hossain *et al.*, 2012). Holland and De Cieri (2006) see training as a situation where an employer facilitates the employees' learning of knowledge, skills, and behaviour required to perform their jobs. On the other hand, Holland and De Cieri (2006:5) describes development as the formal education, job experiences, relationships, and assessment of personality and abilities to help the employees prepare for the future. Aguinis and Kraiger (2009) defined training as the systematic approach for affecting individuals' knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to improve individual, team and organisational effectiveness whereas development is the systematic effort affecting individuals' knowledge or skills for purposes of personal growth or future jobs and/or roles. This means that training means the activities that are designed to provide learners with the knowledge and skills needed for their present jobs whereas development is the learning that goes beyond today's job and has more long-term focus (Mondy, 2008; Hameed & Waheed, 2011, Holland & De Cieri, 2006; Jehanzeb & Bashir, 2013).

According to Niazi (2011), there are three generic approaches to training and development of talent in an organisation. The first one is the reactive approach, which is more the traditional one driven by tactical delivery of technical skills, and where training is seen as an event-oriented activity. The second approach is proactive, where all learning activities in a learning organisation are aligned to the corporate business strategy and its focus is on developing competencies. The last one is the active learning approach where trainees play a leading role in learning by exploring issues and situational problems under the guidance of their facilitator. In this training approach, the trainees learn by asking thought-provoking questions, searching for answers, and interpreting various observations made during the process. This is sometimes referred to as on the job training (OJT).

Training and development initiatives have an advantage to both an individual and the organisation (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Barlow, 2006; Gratton & Ghoshal, 2003; Krewson, 2004). As a result of this, it is difficult to separate an individual's training and development plan from his/her career development when it comes to talent management (Blass & April, 2008). In this connection, Blass and April (2008) believe that the training and development of an individual supports one's future career development, rather than simply developing them for their current job role and performance improvement. Blass and April (2008) also believe that development path, development focus, support, influence on career and connected conversations are the five dimensions that impact how top talent is developed in the organisation. They are discussed as follows:

Development Path: This dimension looks at how people in an organisation are trained and developed once they have been identified as talent. It discourages generic training and development plans that seem to take a one size fits all approach. It takes the approach that recognizes people have different backgrounds and different skills, and therefore organisations need to have personalized training and development plans for each individual (Barlow, 2006; Krewson, 2004).

Development Focus: This dimension suggests that organisations should focus their attention on specific issues when preparing individual training and development plans. For example, decisions should be made if the particular training and development plans should concentrate on the individual's weaknesses or strengths. The traditional approach to training and development is to focus on the individual's weaknesses and to develop them into strengths. Digeorgio (2004) advises that development plans of an individual should focus on the strengths, while an effort to work around the weaknesses is also put in place. Digeorgio (2004) claims that weakness fixing prevents failure while focusing on strengths leads to world-class success.

Support: This refers to how much specific support is provided to the talent pool within the organisation. Some organisations take the approach that is caring and nurtures talent in new positions while others leave their newly recruited talent to discover things on their own and are left to sink or swim. Such support could include mentoring and one-

to-one coaching of potential talents in the organisation (Pollitt, 2005; Scheck McAlearney, 2005). This could also include teamwork while personal ambition is also important if an individual wants to progress.

Influence on Career: It is important to establish who, and what, have the most influence on an individual's career in an organisation. Some approaches suggest that the individuals themselves have a responsibility towards making their career a success, while others suggest that it is the organisation. Gratton and Ghoshal (2003) are of the view that the employee him/herself has a responsibility his/her career and s/he will choose where to invest their time to develop it. On the other hand, talent management activities require individuals to stay within the organisation and be developed for critical roles in the future (Blass & April, 2008). Taking these two opposite sides, there should be a reciprocal relationship between the needs of an individual and those of an Organisation when designing training and development plans (Schoemaker & Jonker, 2004).

Connected Conversations: This is concerned with the number of people with whom individuals can discuss their career plans when making decisions about their own career development and progression. Some people may choose to discuss their career options with their line manager only, while others may work with a much wider group of people.

According to King *et al.*, (2001), greater understanding and awareness of the organisation's key competencies can provide several benefits. Identifying key competency gaps in an organisation can undoubtedly point out to areas of training and development in order to enhance the organisation's competitive position in the market. In their study of 17 companies from two industries, namely textile manufacturing and hospitals, King *et al.*, (2001) found that there were linkages between competency characteristics and the success of the organisation. Competency-based training is a training philosophy that has become well established in many countries around the world, predominantly in the vocational education and training sector (Todd & Thomas, 2013). It has been recently introduced in the aviation industry. The objective of competency-based training is therefore to demonstrate the ability of the candidate to "perform" a task after training, rather than the candidate simply claiming to "know" the task.

Literature reviewed on training and development in civil aviation with special reference to aviation safety indicates that this is a specialised form of training and cannot be dealt with as a generic approach (Abeyratne, 1998; Amankwah, 2011). This is said against the background that safety is the basis on any civil aviation industry. The importance of safety in civil aviation is signified by the fact that safety and efficiency of international civil aviation featured prominently as the basic strategic objective of the ICAO Strategic Action Plan since its adoption by the ICAO Council on 7 February 1997 (Abeyratne, 1998). Aviation safety depends greatly on the efforts of everyone in the system. Unfortunately, there are several risks that could be associated with a system where human beings are involved. It is well known that human factors, which can be causal factors, are the main causes of aviation accidents. Therefore, a special type of training that aims at minimising human errors is best suited for the aviation industry (Atak & Kingma, 2011).

The African Civil Aviation Commission (AFCAC) at its Thirteenth Plenary Session (Abuja, 11—18 May 1995) also made an important decision on matters of safety oversight in Africa. This decision compelled African states to take appropriate measures in order to ensure compliance with international safety standards contained in the relevant Annexes to the Chicago Convention (Abeyratne, 1998). Areas considered as aviation safety in civil aviation are Personnel Licensing; Operations of Aircrafts; Aircraft Airworthiness; Air Traffic Control and Airport Operations.

Several authors also agree that the issue of safety in the aviation industry is undoubtedly important (Abeyratne, 1998; Janic 2000; Lee, 2006). Therefore, the design of training related to aviation safety should comply with international safety standards contained in the relevant Annexes to the Chicago Convention (Abeyratne, 1998). It is for this reason that the International Civil Aviation organisation (ICAO) guides the civil aviation training of contracted member states worldwide. The role, responsibilities and ICAO's obligations to member states were discussed in Chapter 1 of this study.

On the basis of the above, the ICAO has adopted a Training Policy to better support its efforts of implementing standards and recommended practices (SARP) through courses, seminars and workshops on emerging issues. According to ICAO (2008; 2009; 2010)

Training Reports, the Training Policy applies to all training provided by ICAO Bureaus, Regional Offices and training organisations issuing a certificate of completion or a certificate of achievement accompanied by the ICAO logo. The Training Policy also defines ICAO's role in the provision of aviation safety and security training (ICAO, 2008; 2009; 2010). In order to ensure harmonisation, coordination and standardisation to all contracting member states, training and development in the civil aviation industry is highly regulated.

The severe shortage of aviation personnel and the complex nature of the aviation industry require highly qualified and competent personnel. Therefore, competency based training and assessment of aviation personnel have been found by ICAO as representing an appropriate and timely strategic approach (Amankwah, 2011; ICAO, 2011; Todd & Thomas, 2013). The ICAO adopted a competency-based training system in civil aviation because it is student centred and progress is measured through a trainee's achievement of learning objectives (ICAO, 2011; Todd & Thomas, 2013). A competency is the combination of Knowledge, Skills and Attitudes (KSAs) required to perform a task at a prescribed standard (Amankwah, 2011; ICAO, 2011; Prahalad and Hamel (1990). Competencies represent both the underlying knowledge base and the set of skills required to perform useful tasks in a specific job. Competencies therefore represent how a person should perform in order to achieve the objectives of their job (Amankwah, 2011; ICAO, 2011; Todd & Thomas, 2013).

For an organisation to succeed, it needs to put in place its training and development strategy on how it plans to train and develop those that are to occupy strategic positions. The following are advanced by various authors as best practice of training and development:

First, it is suggested that training and development should include the initial process of identifying training needs analysis before the content and the method of delivery of the particular training to the top talent is agreed upon (Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Jehanzeb & Bashir, 2013; Nel *et al.*, 2010).

Secondly, Nel *et al.*, (2010) suggest another best practice in which organisations take an approach where training becomes an instrument that is linked to the development of an organisation's workforce through the strategic plan. If training and development plans are an integral part of the organisations' strategic plans, they become a subject of review at every management meeting, and in that way, ensuring their success (Nel *et al.*, (2008).

Thirdly, Bluen (2013) states that learning and development opportunities are important talent attractors; therefore, Bluen (2013) and Kleiman (2000) suggest as best practice, that new talent should be exposed to induction and orientation training where they have the opportunity to learn and understand the company strategy, procedures and processes as well as the company's cooperate culture. Bluen (2013) also suggests that mentoring be used to develop junior and upcoming top talent. He further suggests that an effective way of developing top talent is to send them to some high profile business school to obtain good and quality training.

Fourthly, continuous training and development opportunities in order for employees to improve their knowledge and skills so that they can remain relevant for the ever-changing job market are advocated (Garger 1999; Moses, 1999; Kottke, 1999). In order to do this, Moses (2000) suggests that employers should identify specific jobs that would be required in future and the particular skills set that would be needed to manage those jobs.

Finally, in the survey conducted by AMA Enterprises in the USA it was found that offering unlimited training and development opportunities for high potential employees and mentoring them was good talent management practice (Kelly, 2013). The survey found that top performing organisations does not limit the training and development opportunities for their high potential employees (Kelly, 2013).

2.5. TALENT MANAGEMENT CHALLENGES

Several authors believe that the success or profitability of an organisation depends on the success of the talent management programme that the organisation runs (Ahlrichs, 2000; Becker *et al.*, 2009; Bluen, 2013). Similarly, the success of the organisation's talent management programme also determines its competitiveness in the market environment (Lado & Wilson, 1994; Schuler & MacMillan, 1984; Wright *et al.*, 1994). Using the case under investigation, one would argue that if an aviation authority of a country, for example, cannot find and retain qualified and experienced aviation officers of all types; such an authority may have difficulties meeting its organisational goals as well as its international obligations. It remains the business of each employer therefore to face the on-going talent management challenges (Bluen, 2013). Although talent management has become a business imperative, it continues to face some implementation challenges.

The challenges of talent management are encountered on both local and international environments. In this regard, the challenges of talent management faced by multinational enterprises (MNEs) particularly those operating in emerging markets are significant (Beechler & Woodward 2009; Mellahi and Collings, 2010; McDonnell *et al.*, 2011; Schuler *et al.*, 2011b). These challenges include the limited availability of qualified personnel and the high turnover rates as a result of inadequate retention strategies amongst many (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Farndale *et al.*, 2010; Hartmann *et al.*, 2010). While challenges for talent management are significant in Europe and the U.S., they are even more acute in emerging markets such as India and China (Bhatnagar, 2007; Budhwar & Varma, 2011; Farndale *et al.*, 2010). It is for these reasons that talent management will remain a critical issue for top managers in international companies, particularly those operating in the emerging markets (Sparrow, Scullion, & Tarique, 2014). It particularly affects business success in multinational enterprises operating in emerging markets as companies compete for qualified staff across national borders.

According to Cappelli (2008), one of the most serious general challenges of talent management is limit of management attention. Cappelli (2008) argued that most executives in organisations have short attention spans and therefore their ability to focus

attention and efforts on initiatives is limited, particularly when there is no clear connection between those initiatives and the overall goals they are pursuing. This is worsened by the fact that talent management is by nature dependent on the labour market. When economic situations are good, recruitment and retentions issues are at the top agenda of most organisations, but when economic situations are worse, recruitment becomes easy and retention issues become less of a concern (Cappelli, 2008). As a result of these fluctuations, many organisations would abandon talent management initiatives when markets are worse because recruitment and retention are easy and only pick up the initiatives again once the markets are good.

However, some scholars have identified several talent management challenges, which are discussed below within the context of the main activities of talent management (Bluen, 2013; Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2009; Martin and Schmidt, 2010; Vidyeeswari and Nair, 2009).

2.5.1. Identification/creation of strategic positions

The assumption is that there are no inherent strategic positions in organisations and therefore they should be identified following a specific process (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005, 2007; Huselid *et al.*, 2005). The challenge really lies in what could be classified as the primary characteristics of a strategic position. Therefore, the question is how do organisations identify strategic positions and the competencies they require? Traditionally, HR practitioners have focused on the level of skills, efforts and responsibilities the job entails, together with the working environment for the job to be classified as a strategic position (Becker *et al.*, 2009). Others identified strategic positions from an economic point of view. This approach saw strategic positions as those that pay more money to employees occupying such positions arguing that such high premiums reflect the value they create for the organisation (Becker *et al.*, 2009). This line of thinking suggests that a strategic position is that which is paid more than others in an organisation. As for Becker *et al.*, (2009), the primary characteristic of a strategic position is the ability of that position to deliver part of the organisation strategy and the quality of work displayed among the employees in such strategic position. This approach suggests that the starting point is the organisation's strategy, and not the skills, efforts

and responsibilities of the job. The first challenge in this regard is agreeing on what constitutes strategic positions. Since there are two approaches defining what constitutes strategic position, one in terms of level of skills, efforts and responsibilities the job entails, together with the working environment and the other one that identifies strategic positions from an economic point of view (Becker *et al.*, 2009), challenges may be experienced in the actual identification process of such strategic positions.

The second challenge in the identification of strategic positions is the emphasis of Collings and Mellahi (2009)'s definition on the development of a large talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill these positions both from inside and outside the organisation. There are two challenges created by this approach. The first one is the challenge posed to organisations to actually find the high potential and high performing incumbents to fill the strategic positions in markets that seem to be competing for the same limited talent (Fernandez *et al.*, 2009). The second one is the existence of organisational silos in most organisations that have the potential of limiting the creation of a large talent pool (Fernandez *et al.*, 2009). This challenge is particularly true in the public service where the luxury of creating large talent pools may not be allowed by existing staff rules and other policies. Furthermore, such talent pools may not be possible to create because of unattractive employment attributes for top performers, which include rules, regulations, policy manuals, long meetings and vague job descriptions as well as unclear duty sheets.

2.5.2. Attraction, recruitment and selection

Serious challenges in attracting, recruiting and selecting new talented employees for strategic positions could be faced if particular attention is not given to adequate planning. The first challenge in attracting, recruiting and selecting of talented people to strategic positions is about public service and corporate rules, policies and procedures that one needs to deal with (Anyim, Ekwoaba & Anthony, 2012; Yang, 2005). Most organisations have rules, policies and procedures in place that guide the attraction, recruitment and selection process. These rules, policies and procedures are often put in place with good intentions but their unintended consequences are often severe. For example, in the interest of transparency, most organisations may have rules and policies

in place that suggest that all vacant positions must be advertised externally. In this case it becomes a challenge to use a targeted method of attraction, recruitment and selection for strategic positions referred to as headhunting. Doing that could be seen as operating outside the scope of the existing rules, policies and procedures and therefore violating them. It is important to understand that public service and corporate rules, policies and procedures are there to maintain order in an organisation. However, in order to overcome the challenges created by public service and corporate rules, policies and procedures, it is advisable to figure out how to work around them without violating them. In the case of the public service of Namibia, there are provisions in the public service staff rules that allow for deviation on the approval of the Public Service Commission upon making a justifiable case to them for consideration.

The second challenge of attraction, recruitment and selection to strategic positions relates to the different types of personalities in terms of employee attitude (Anyim *et al.*, 2012). Some people who apply for jobs, be it ordinary or strategic positions have other negative tendencies, which employers must contend with. These negative tendencies are very difficult to detect during attraction, recruitment and selection. Such negative tendencies may also influence the operations of the organisation and lead to these individuals leaving early. However, to prevent attracting, recruiting and selecting problematic employees, organisations must use valid and reliable screening instruments.

The third challenge relates to the difficulties often experienced in matching the applicant skills and the job (Anyim *et al.*, 2012). Organisations find it difficult to fill strategic positions on their own due to pressure or more demand within the organisation. There is always limited time to deal with these important matters that are often considered as HR issues as a result of equally competing matters. HR is often put under pressure from internal candidates who have an inherent interest in specific strategic positions. Consequently, this leads to organisations engaging the services of an external consultant to enhance efficiency and promote transparency in the recruitment and selection process of people to strategic positions. When this happens, it is likely that the recruiting agency may not attract the right talent because their brief about the position might have been inadequate or they are not familiar with the job content at all.

The fourth challenge of attracting, recruiting and selecting talent is diversity management (Baruch, 2006). Diversity management can be defined as a management philosophy of recognising and valuing heterogeneity in organisations with a view to improving organisational performance (Bridgstock, Lettice, Zbilgin & Tatli, 2010). This issue includes the following three groups whose representatives in the labour workforce should be increased: women, the previously disadvantaged blacks, and people living with disabilities. As a result of this recognition, several organisations have put in place rules, procedures, policies and activities that compel them to recruit and select people from different cultural backgrounds (Yang, 2005). This is a challenge when it comes to attracting; recruiting and selecting people from previously disadvantaged groups for strategic positions. Because of historical reasons in Namibia, the limited educational backgrounds and experiences of people from previously disadvantaged groups, their inclusion for consideration to strategic positions becomes a challenge. In an effort to solve this challenge, many countries, including Namibia and South Africa, have even gone to the extent of legislating the aspect of diversity.

The fifth challenge of attracting, recruiting and selecting talent for strategic position is that of the generation gap between generation X and Y (Anyim *et al.*, 2012; Frank & Taylor, 2004). It is known that people in generation X move frequently between employers and markets in the interest of developing their careers. They are most often described as materialistic and are motivated by transactions (Nicholson & Nairn, 2006). On the other hand, generation Y employees are opportunity driven, seeking new chances for career enhancement over greater salary or more job security (Deloitte, 2009). Furthermore, generation Y employees want and are willing to receive more responsibilities (Deloitte, 2009). These employees differ from previous generations in a number of ways and therefore their attraction, recruitment and selection could present some challenges (Busine & Watt, 2005). As a result of changing employee expectations, organisations are compelled to periodically review their attraction, recruitment and selection strategies and practices (Busine & Watt, 2005).

Finally, research shows that the changing workforce demographics present some challenges to the attraction, recruitment and selection process of talent management (Bluen, 2013; Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Frank & Taylor, 2004; ILO report, 2013;

Schuler, Jackson & Tarique, 2013). These include demographic changes characterised by a seemingly irreversible trend of a rapidly aging population in developed countries while those of emerging economies are expanding and getting younger (Strack, Baier, & Fahlander, 2008). Furthermore, the effect of HIV/AIDS on the population especially in the third world countries, migration dynamics, as well as inadequate educational programmes in some cases also have an impact on recruitment and selection of talent to strategic positions (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; ILO report, 2013; Schuler, Jackson & Tarique, 2013).

2.5.3. Succession management plan

Succession management planning is generally referred to as a systematic process of identifying and developing internal people who show evidence of the potential to fill strategic positions in an organisation (Luna, 2012; Rothwell, 2010). An organisation's succession management plan is very important as it seeks to create a smooth transition in situations where senior and experienced executives leave their positions for whatever reason.

However, despite several cited advantages of succession management planning, other studies on succession management planning (Aberdeen Group, 2006; Abdulwaheed, 2013; Muhoho, 2014; Conger & Fulmer, 2003; Conger & Nadler, 2004) revealed some of its challenges as follows:

First, the study by Aberdeen Group (2006) and Abdulwaheed (2013) found that the challenges with the process of succession management planning included the inability of most organisations to create a pool of talent to serve as a reservoir for replacing retiring professionals. Therefore, in the absence of talent pools to feed the talent pipeline, succession management faces a challenge.

Second, Conger and Fulmer (2003) and Conger and Nadler (2004) state that leadership succession planning, for example, and its implementation processes often fail to meet the desired result because of failure of many organisations to invest money, energy and

time in people. This is particularly true in the case where the CEO entrenchment tendencies and is reluctant to vacate his or her position (Cannella & Shen, 2001; Vancil, 1987; Walsh & Seward, 1990).

Third, the study conducted by Aberdeen Group (2006) found the absence of technologically driven tools to work within the process of succession management as another challenge. It found that the process of succession management planning lacked essential assessment tools and succession planning tools, and career development. The study expressed concern that the absence of tools specifically meant to assess the potential of the successor, created a challenge for succession management planning.

The fourth challenge facing succession management planning is with implementation. Although research indicates that several organisations have established the importance of proper succession management planning (Ibrahim *et al.*, 2001; Handler & Kram, 1988; Leibman, Bruer & Maki, 1996), many still continue to operate without a formal succession plan. This position is explained by the results of a 2004 survey of 711 human resource managers conducted in the USA. This particular survey found that although 80 per cent of the managers believed that succession management planning was critical; less than half of their companies had a succession management plan in progress (Taylor & McGraw, 2004). Furthermore, studies have shown that most executives are reluctant to plan for succession for multiple reasons such as: fear of retirement, fear of the unknown, fear of losing control, fear of death, lack of interests outside of work, and a strong sense of personal attachment to the company (Ibrahim, *et al* 2001; Handler & Kram, 1988). In some cases, senior employees are staying on in their positions, despite the fact that the skills needed for the job may have changed or they are no longer making meaningful and productive contributions to the Organisation (Aberdeen Group Report, 2006). These factors create serious challenges for the success of succession management planning.

The fifth challenge is inherent weaknesses related to some corporate leadership succession models (Chung- Herrera *et al.*, 2003). The case of the public sector organisation in Nigeria is an example in this regard of where the geopolitical

arrangement of switching top management positions around the zones, irrespective of successor suitability often results in appointing incompetent leaders. Such weakness in the succession model of an organisation may lead to succession failure, especially at the CEO level (Abdulwaheed, 2013).

The sixth challenge of succession management plan is associated with the inability of an organisation to ensure the alignment of the succession plan with its future (Aberdeen Group Report, 2006). As discussed in this study, traditional succession management planning efforts usually identify one high-potential candidate as a possible replacement for each strategic position. However, in today's rapidly changing work environment and the world at large, the Aberdeen Group Report (2006) argues that this approach may not be the best to ensure success. It is argued that the challenges associated with predicting and identifying future requirements such as knowledge and skills for key positions for the succession management planning in today's changing work environment is a daunting task. It is reported that many organisations surrender without making efforts (Aberdeen Group Report, 2006).

The seventh challenge relates to the fact that even where accurate prediction and identification of future requirements such as knowledge and skills for strategic positions has been done, analysing and selecting the correct successor for the organisation presents problems on its own (Aberdeen Group Report, 2006). In this connection, Rothwell (2010) argues that analysing; selecting and developing the right candidate for key positions are a large part in succession management planning. He warns that if specific steps are not followed, there is likelihood that succession transition will also be reduced significantly. Therefore, the selection of unprepared or inappropriate successors can damage the success of the organisation's succession management plan. In this regard, He *et al.*, (2010) warn that the challenges and difficulties of succession management planning should not be overlooked by organisations if they desire continuous success.

Eighth, the Aberdeen Group (2006) asserts that another challenge of succession management planning relates to the issue of fairness. The report raises questions of how

the succession management plan ensures that the processes of succession are open and fair. It questions if employees understand the succession process including the methods used to judge potential successors (Aberdeen Group, 2006). The issue of fairness is further complicated by the fact that even where a candidate might have been considered fairly for promotion, such promotion cannot be guaranteed since a lot depends on timing and the needs for the organisation (Armstrong, 2009; Tabatabaee *et al.*, 2014). In some cases, inadequate training and developing programmes are offered to the successor, resulting in an employee who is not prepared for potential promotion because of inappropriate selection procedures (Armstrong, 2009; Tabatabaee *et al.*, 2014).

Ninth, Charan (2004) cites the considerable length of time it takes to train, develop and groom a successor as another challenge to succession management planning. Charan (2004) compares the long path that is often taken in producing a successor to the fact “it takes a ton of ore to produce just an ounce of gold”. Training and developing of successors for specific key positions take a long time and many organisations do not allocate enough time and resources to deal with the issue of succession planning. Some leaders in organisations do not understand the value of succession planning while many will claim that they are too busy with current issues in their business and do not think about the future (Charan, 2004).

The tenth challenge faced by succession management planning is whether to consider people from within the organisation or those from outside the organisation (Bower, 2007; Davis, 2008). Bower (2007) and Davis (2008) point out that both insiders and outsiders have strengths and weaknesses in entering new positions. This situation makes it difficult for employers to make a decision on who should be considered for succession planning. For example, insiders know the organisation and its inner workings, but may not recognise the need for change. However, new ideas can come from the outsider, but many times these newcomers do not know the organisation well enough to foster the changes needed. In this regard, Garg and Van Weele (2012) argue that there is no right or a wrong choice to make when deciding which route to take when implementing a succession plan.

Eleventh, in a study that investigated the knowledge of the respondents on different challenges, which were facing succession planning in several work organisations in Tanzania, Muhoho (2014) found that awareness of the concept itself was a problem to several employees. Therefore implementing succession planning in the selected organisations in Tanzania remained a myth.

Finally, the size of the organisation may give rise to challenges in succession management planning (Tabatabaee *et al.*, 2014). Some organisations may have so few strategic positions to an extent that they do not have the ability to offer opportunities for advancement. Therefore, talented employees with the potential and the desire to advance their career may move to larger organisations as a result.

2.5.4. Talent retention challenges

The challenge of retaining high quality candidates for strategic positions comes as a result of the following factors: The first one has to do with the limited pool of available talent (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Axelrod *et al.*, 2002; Michaels *et al.*, 2001). As a result of this, many employers compete for and try and attract talent from the same pool (Becker *et al.*, 2009). This makes competition fierce and renders the concept of retaining high quality candidates almost impossible. While Axelrod, Handfield-Jones and Michaels (2002), and Michaels, Handfield-Jones and Axelrod (2001) advocate that organisations should manage performance pools of talent generally rather than succession pools for specific jobs, Collings and Mellahi (2009) argue for the development of strategic talent pools made up of star performers to fill strategic positions. The arguments presented by Axelrod *et al.*, (2002) and Michaels *et al.*, (2001), and those of Collings and Mellahi (2009) above, suggest that there are no agreed criteria of creating talent pools. Therefore, the challenge in this regard is twofold: The first one is the limited number of people that could be considered for the talent pool, which causes competition in terms of retention (Axelrod *et al.*, 2002; Michaels *et al.*, 2001). The second one is the challenge caused by the absence of agreed criteria of what type of talent could be considered for the talent pool (Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

Furthermore, the challenge today is not just retaining talented people, but fully engaging them, capturing their minds and hearts at each stage of their work lives (Lockwood, 2006). Talented people's attitudes towards work are changing because there are numerous options available to them (Martin & Schmidt, 2010). Many of the talented people set themselves high targets to achieve as they enter the organisations. They work harder than their peers and expect organisations to treat them well in return by providing stimulating work and other incentives. When these do not come by since most organisations are struggling in these difficult economic times, they are the first to get disappointed and leave (Martin & Schmidt, 2010). Therefore, the challenge really is to adopt new strategies to retain talent to strategic positions since people choose organisations that fulfil their own career needs. In this regard, the challenge is to balance between the interests of the organisation and those of talented individual occupying strategic positions, particularly the needs of individuals focusing on their career development (Baruch, 2006; Butler & Waldroop, 1999; Martin & Schmidt, 2010).

In a survey conducted by McKinsey and Company (2008), in the USA, it was found that attracting high quality candidates required that the organisation should offer interesting work assignments, attractive benefits, job security and upward mobility. However, these conditions of service are not easy to offer during times of economic hardship. Taking the above-mentioned into consideration, the question of affordability to keep high quality candidates is a challenge to talent management on its own, particularly in the public service where salary packages and benefits are fairly standard. Furthermore, many civil services are seen as unprofessional; too corrupt; not caring about measurement of their performance; too bloated in size in relationship to their outputs, and as a result of this, the governments, even those that can afford to do so, are unwilling to provide attractive conditions (Hope, 2001). These perceptions about the civil service, makes a public sector organisation not to survive the fierce competition of attraction and retention of talent. Furthermore, civil services will not be able to attract and retain talent if there is a failure to reward appropriately and assure the integrity of highly skilled civil servants (Hope, 2001; World Bank, 2000; Kettl *et al.*, 1996).

The other talent retention challenge comes as a result of the tendency of most organisations to adopt generic engagement plans for everybody instead of differentiating them depending on individual skills of employees (Axelrod *et al.*, 2002; Becker *et al.* 2009; Michael *et al.*, 2001). The worst-case scenario is when employers assume that their top potential talents were highly engaged (Martin & Schmidt, 2010). Talented people are enthusiastic about their jobs and therefore should be engaged and treated differently from other employees. The generic approach to the treatment of employees makes talented people leave the organisation early in order to go and look for jobs that would not bore them but occupy their minds and keep them busy (Martin & Schmidt, 2010).

Several studies have identified good compensation as one of the incentives that could be used to keep employees longer at a single workplace (Hytter, 2006; Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2000; Ramlall, 2003; James & Mathew, 2012). Furthermore, there is sufficient evidence from several surveys and research findings that suggest that paying competitive compensation is always less expensive than paying the turnover costs of rehiring and refilling positions (Ahlrichs, 2000; Becker, *et al.*, 2009; Bluen, 2013; Nel *et al.*, 2010). Although not topping the list, issues of good compensation were found to be an important retention factor for many (Bernthal & Wellins, 2001).

However, the challenge with compensation is that there are no set benchmark levels of remunerations to which the market players should comply with (Bluen, 2013). As a result of high demand for top talent, companies end up offering to pay for the services of such talent at exorbitant salary packages in order to keep their top employees or recruit from another company (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Bluen, 2013). However, what makes the issue of compensation a talent management challenge is the way in which companies poach and give counter offers to prospective candidates (Bluen, 2013). Companies that have the financial capacity to offer more money stand the chance of getting the best people to serve their business objectives for the time being, until they are defeated by another with more financial capabilities (Bluen, 2013; Becker *et al.*, 2009; Schuler *et al.*, 2011). This process is commonly referred to as poaching. According to Bluen (2013), poaching are the processes where, as result of skills shortage and high demand for high

levels talent, companies buy top talent from one another at lucrative pay offers. This situation makes employee retention difficult for many companies.

Furthermore, the problem of talent retention is also worsened by the fact that corporate workforces are becoming more global, yet talent management is not keeping pace. Today, many companies operate at national, regional and international levels and therefore face global competition of talent retention (Bluen, 2013; Jaiswal, 2014). This means that competition for talent has moved from national to regional and international levels. According to Bluen (2013), this situation requires a global talent management focus even at local levels if companies at country level are to remain competitive. Consequently, the demand on the talent market in companies at local level greatly outweighs the supply, making the limited talent pools more vulnerable.

Another serious retention challenge faced by most organisations is their tendency to delegate the management of top talent (Martin & Schmidt, 2010). In most organisations, talent management issues are delegated to the Human Resources Department or line managers. The challenge of retaining talent can no longer be seen as the sole domain of the human resources function, it is clearly a business issue as well (Patterson, West, Lawthom & Nickell, 1997; Lockwood, 2006). Human resources teams need to work closely with the business and conversely, businesses need to recognise the value that can be added by paying serious attention to HR initiatives (Lockwood, 2006). The approach where talent retention issues are left with the HR department causes retention challenges. This is so because the Human Resources Department has very little time to prepare future leaders of the organisations. While it could be argued that line managers are appropriate because they know their people best and have concrete views about their strengths and weaknesses, unfortunately, their interest is limited to the success of their business unit only, and to that of the entire organisation (Butler & Waldroop, 1999; Martin & Schmidt, 2010). In this regard, it is important to mention that talent management issues should be the business of the general managers and the chief executive officer of the organisation (Martin & Schmidt, 2010).

Furthermore, the management of transitions for new top talent, which many organisations failed to address, is another talent retention challenge (Groysberg *et al.*, 2004). In most cases, newly hired top talent is isolated and not welcomed by those that were in the organisation before them. In their research, Groysberg *et al.*, (2004) found that when newly hired talent tried to learn few routine company procedures from those that were there before them, including wanting to make friendship, they were resented by the older colleagues who were, in most cases, jealous of their attractive employment conditions. Their findings were that there was a tendency for the older employee to cut off information to the newly recruited talent; the older employee also refused to cooperate with him/her. Eventually, the star employee left (Groysberg *et al.*, 2004).

2.5.5. Training and development

Training and development are very important for the success of talent management programmes. However, there are several challenges associated with training and developments and are discussed as follows: The first challenge is the length of time that it takes to train a person to an extent that s/he is able to function optimally. According to Charan (2004), it takes a considerable length of time to train, develop and groom talent. The second challenge is that as a result of the considerable length of time it takes to train and develop talent, the results and benefits associated with training and development are usually not immediate, but are often deferred for the future (Becker *et al.*, 2009). As a result of training and development benefits that are often realised after a considerable length of time, most employers are not patient enough to wait that long (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). Although research results show that there is a positive relationship between the amount of money spent by an organisation on training and its performance, these studies do not account for the quality of training (Anis, Rehman, Nasir and Safwan, 2011). As a result of this challenge, Becker *et al.*, (2009) believe that what is important is how an organisation spends its training and development budget instead of how much it spends. Furthermore, as a consequence of the above-mentioned challenge, employers may decide not invest more in training and development efforts, but rather have policies in place that allow them to buy talent at high prices (Becker *et al.*, 2009).

The third challenge of training and development is the issue of high costs associated with such activities (Anis *et al.*, 2011; Niazi, 2011). Training and development can have a considerable negative impact on the Organisation's financial position (Anis *et al.*, 2011). These costs include the direct cost to training and the cost that may come as a result of the instructor's salary, materials, and follow-up supervision. Another indirect cost of training relates to worker output and productivity during the training as the result of their absence from the workplace (Niazi, 2011).

The fourth challenge relates to the frequent developments in the area of information and communications technology. According to Niazi (2011), the frequent changes in technology and job design have transformed training and development process into an increasingly important facet of human resource development. This aspect has proved to be problematic particularly to line managers who seem to think that human resources issues are purely in the domain of the HR department (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). The real challenge here when line managers do not make themselves familiar with the technological advances of the organisation and leave it to the HR department.

Finally, Batool and Batool (2012) cite the quality of a trainer as well as the course design for the training as key challenges to the success of a training programme for top talent. He states that just as organisations compete for general talent, so do they compete for specialist and qualified trainers. The market is characterised by limited availability of specialist trainers and the situation compromises the quality of training, particularly for key positions. Although the market is full of people who are qualified to design curricula for schools and other general courses, there are very few people who can design special and quality training courses for key positions (Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Batool & Batool, 2012).

2.6. CURRENT RESEARCH ON TALENT MANAGEMENT

Based on the four streams of talent management discussed and having reviewed the most recent literature on the subject matter, it is apparent that there are still areas of on-going research on talent management. In order to demonstrate the relevance of this study, these areas are discussed as below.

The first area of current research relates to the definition of talent management (Vaiman, Scullion & Collings, 2012). Several authors in the literature consulted accept that there is no common and agreed definition of talent management (Ashton, 2005; Bhatnagar *et al.*, 2010; Lewis and Heckman 2006; Vaiman, Scullion & Collings, 2012). The subject of the definition has become a current area of research given the absence of a common definition of talent management. Defining and agreeing on a specific definition is important. The on-going debate and research around the definitions of talent and talent management focus on the conceptual and intellectual boundaries of the concept (Scullion and Collings, 2011; Vaiman & Collings, 2013). The area of research on the definition of talent management also takes into account the work of analysing different concepts of talent and talent management in the literature (Van den Brink, Fruytier and Thunnissen 2012).

Although research findings have not yet agreed on the definition of talent management, researchers in this area are beginning to understand that activities around talent management put more emphasis on issues such as: performance versus the potential of an individual, the importance of pivotal positions, the importance of making a judgment between developing talent internally or buying it from the external labour market (Vaiman & Collings, 2013). In particular, the issue of performance versus potential of talented individuals needs further research (Groysberg *et al.*, 2004; Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2009; Vaiman & Collings, 2013). There is an interesting debate that needs to be addressed in terms of how talented individuals are selected to strategic positions. The question of whether talented people are considered to strategic positions on the basis of the potential they show during the selection interview or by virtue of the history of their past performance in other previous positions needs further research (Groysberg *et al.*,

2004; Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2009; Vaiman & Collings, 2013). Furthermore, there is ongoing research investigating the relationships between talent management, corporate culture and business strategy as well as examining the internal consistency of talent management (Vaiman & Collings, 2013).

The second area of the current research is how talent management is considered in different national contexts (Scullion & Collings, 2011; Vaiman, Scullion & Collings, 2012). It would appear that talent management receives different interpretations at different levels. There is a need to establish whether talent management is considered the same everywhere or it could be considered differently from national, regional and international points of view (Bhatnagar *et al.*, 2010; Scullion & Collings, 2011; Vaiman, Scullion & Collings, 2012). A similar position needs to be established if talent management is influenced by different cultural and institutional contexts on national, regional and international bases (Hartmann, Feisel & Schober, 2010; Iles, Chuai & Preece 2010; Li and Scullion, 2010; Doh, Stumpf & Tymon, 2011). This area of research is relevant to establish if, for example, the growth of the emerging markets has significant implications for talent management strategies, and whether local or foreign solutions are appropriate for such challenges. This area of future research is important because it is hoped that this study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge when, in the later chapters, it will describe the talent management programme (TMP) and also analyse the talent management strategies that were adopted in managing strategic positions within aviation safety at the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia. This contribution will underscore how talent management is considered in Namibia and at the Directorate of Civil Aviation in particular.

The third area of current research is the exploration of what constitutes talent management in different organisations and industries, or professional organisations such as finance and law firms (Vaiman, Scullion & Collings, 2012). In this regard, Dries (2013:269) states that “talent can mean different things to different people (e.g., researchers, companies, HR practitioners, individual employees), and considering the immature state of the field, it is difficult at this point in time to evaluate which meanings of talent are ‘more valid’ than others.” In Dries’ (2013) view, depending on the

theoretical framework one uses, the population one wishes to study, and the academic discipline one aims to contribute to, one's talent management project might look very different from other existing works. The views expressed by Dries (2013) are supported in this case study of the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia, which is undertaken from an HR Practitioners' point of view. Two important aims of this study, which will be unpacked in the later chapters are to analyse the experiences of individuals who underwent the talent management programme for strategic positions in aviation safety and to identify key lessons learnt from the process at the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia. It is hoped that the experiences of the participants in this case study will contribute to the existing body of knowledge in understanding of what constitutes talent management at the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia

The fourth area of on-going research is in the practice of talent management (Collings *et al.*, 2011; Scullion *et al.*, 2007; Schuler *et al.*, 2011; Scullion & Collings 2011). This area of research is important to build an understanding of which elements of talent management practice are most associated with effective talent management. There is a need for research to help organisations to develop performance measurements to effectively manage their talents (Collings *et al.*, 2011; Scullion *et al.*, 2007; Schuler *et al.*, 2011; Scullion & Collings 2011). In their contribution to this area, Thunnissen, Boselie and Fruytier (2013) pointed out that they supported the usage of talent management practices where a number of organisations use one common talent pool for their mutual benefit, in view of the limited talent that would be available to each organisation on their own.

In order to place talent management practices in a broader perspective, Thunnissen *et al.*, (2013) added new perspectives to talent management that originated from organisational theory and strategic human resource management (SHRM). The first dimension makes a distinction between talent as people (subject approach) and talent as a characteristic of people (object approach) (Thunnissen, *et al.*, 2013). Scholars supporting the object approach regard talent as individual attributes, such as abilities, knowledge and competencies. The second dimension makes a distinction between inclusive (all employees) and exclusive (a specific employee group) approaches to talent management. It is the considered view of Thunnissen *et al.*, (2013) that these two

dimensions would offer an in-depth discussion of the potential economic and non-economic value of talent management at the individual, organisational and societal levels.

The final area of current research is the area of talent management as an academic inquiry (Gallardo-Gallardo, Nijs, Gallo, & Dries, 2015). There appears to be a large discrepancy between practitioner and academic interest in talent management, most likely caused by a lack of clear definitions (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). However, because of on-going research work in this area, there are signs that the field is rapidly growing (Dries, 2013). Up to this point in time, the majority of articles that have appeared on talent management have been largely reflective of the United States of America or the United Kingdom business contexts, although global talent management is also becoming an increasingly popular area of research (Scullion *et al.*, 2010; Thunnissen *et al.*, 2013).

One of the objectives of the research was to identify and describe the key challenges that informed the talent management programme that was designed to meet international civil aviation safety requirements in terms of the Namibian education system and in a context of diversity. The issue of diversity management within the context of talent management at the DCA was discussed in Chapter One from the perspective of the effects of colonial apartheid policies. The matter was also introduced in the early sections of this chapter in terms of the challenges of attracting, recruiting and selecting talent in a diverse environment. However, it is important to emphasise in this section what actually constitute diversity management. According to literature reviewed, diversity management (DM) is a management idea which is underpinned by a belief that managing difference in the workplace can contribute to organisational performance (Bridgstock, *et al.*, 2010; Pitts *et al.*, 2010). It can be defined simply as a management philosophy of recognising and valuing heterogeneity in organisations with a view to improving organisational performance (Wright, *et al.*, 1995; Gilbert, Stead & Ivancevich, 1999; Orlando, *et al.*, 2004).

Diversity management is an old philosophy that has its origin in the historical imbalances that were a result of racial discrimination in the past (Bridgstock, *et al.*, 2010).

The relevance and importance of diversity management to talent management has increased over the years. To signify the importance of diversity management, many countries, including Namibia, have introduced legislation that compels organisations to deal with this matter. To comply with the legislative framework of their countries, many organisations today have started instituting new approaches to take advantage of their increasingly diverse employee base (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). Several organisations have introduced measures that emphasise on personal accountability for diversity considerations by incorporating it into employee performance and compensation reviews (PWC, 2007a, b). Other organisations have also introduced measures to assess their management teams on how well they retain and advance previously disadvantaged persons because they believe that effective diversity management is an imperative for the success of talent management and the organisation as the whole (PWC, 2007b).

According to Beechler and Woodward (2009), benefits of managing diversity effectively go beyond attracting and retaining talent for organisational success. Furthermore, research also shows that interventions that use integrative methods for encouraging and learning from diverse cognitive perspectives have a significant impact on organisational performance (Van de Ven *et al.*, 2008).

However, research conducted by PWC (2007) on diverse teams showed that the success rates on heterogeneous work groups are less than those of homogeneous groups. The research cited reasons such as social integration and communication problems that could be experienced in heterogeneous work groups, which are more likely to cause conflict and higher turnover rates than in homogeneous groups. As a result of this, Chatman *et al.*, (1998) is of the opinion that creating an organisational culture in an organisation plays an important role in the outcomes associated with diversity management. To leverage diversity, it is advisable that organisations should put efforts in changing the mind-sets of individuals as well as their policies and practices in the workplace.

This particular study is about talent management at the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia. The aim of the research is, from the perspective of talent management, to analyse the corrective action plan of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) as a

process of securing talent for strategic positions in aviation safety in Namibia. Therefore, the key research question is: “How did the corrective action plan of the DCA actually translate into securing talent for aviation safety?” When this research question is answered in the later chapters of this study, it is hoped that this will fill the existing gap of the absence of literature on talent management from an African perspective. It is evident from the above discussion that talent management is current and relevant, and that this particular study can potentially contribute to the body of knowledge on the subject.

2.7. CONCLUSION

Because of different theoretical approaches to the study of talent management, scholars of management science have not agreed to a single, consistent, concise and commonly acceptable definition of talent management (Ashton & Morton, 2005; Collings & Mellahi 2009; Garrow and Hirsch, 2008; Lewis & Heckman 2006). As a result of the above, four schools of thought of talent management have emerged over the years.

Although all four streams of talent management are important, the fourth and last stream informed this study’s theoretical orientation. The fourth stream suggests that talent management emphasises the identification of key positions in an organisation, which have the potential to make a difference and create a competitive advantage for it (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Collings & Mellahi 2009). Stream four of talent management was chosen because it aligned itself with the challenges faced by the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia in creating a talent pipeline for critical positions. Furthermore, the fourth stream of talent management as well as the adapted definition were chosen because it is believed that they were able to assist in providing the most appropriate perspective to the main research problem which seeks to understand how the corrective action plan of the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia was actually translated into a programme that secured talent for the occupational group of aviation safety.

This study's theoretical orientation was also informed by the definition of Collings and Mellahi (2009) which was adapted as follows for the purpose of this study: *“talent management as a process of (1) identification and/or creation of key positions, which differentially and strategically contribute to the organisation's performance, (2) the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill those strategic roles, and (3) the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation, through activities of recruitment and selection, succession management planning, attraction and retention, and training and development.”*

The chapter also gave an overview of diversity management in the context of talent management. This was done because one of the objectives of the research was to identify and describe the key challenges that informed the talent management programme that was designed to meet international civil aviation safety requirements in terms of the Namibian education system and in a context of diversity.

The next chapter discusses the research methods used to answer the research question as well as to achieve the three main objectives of the research.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHOD

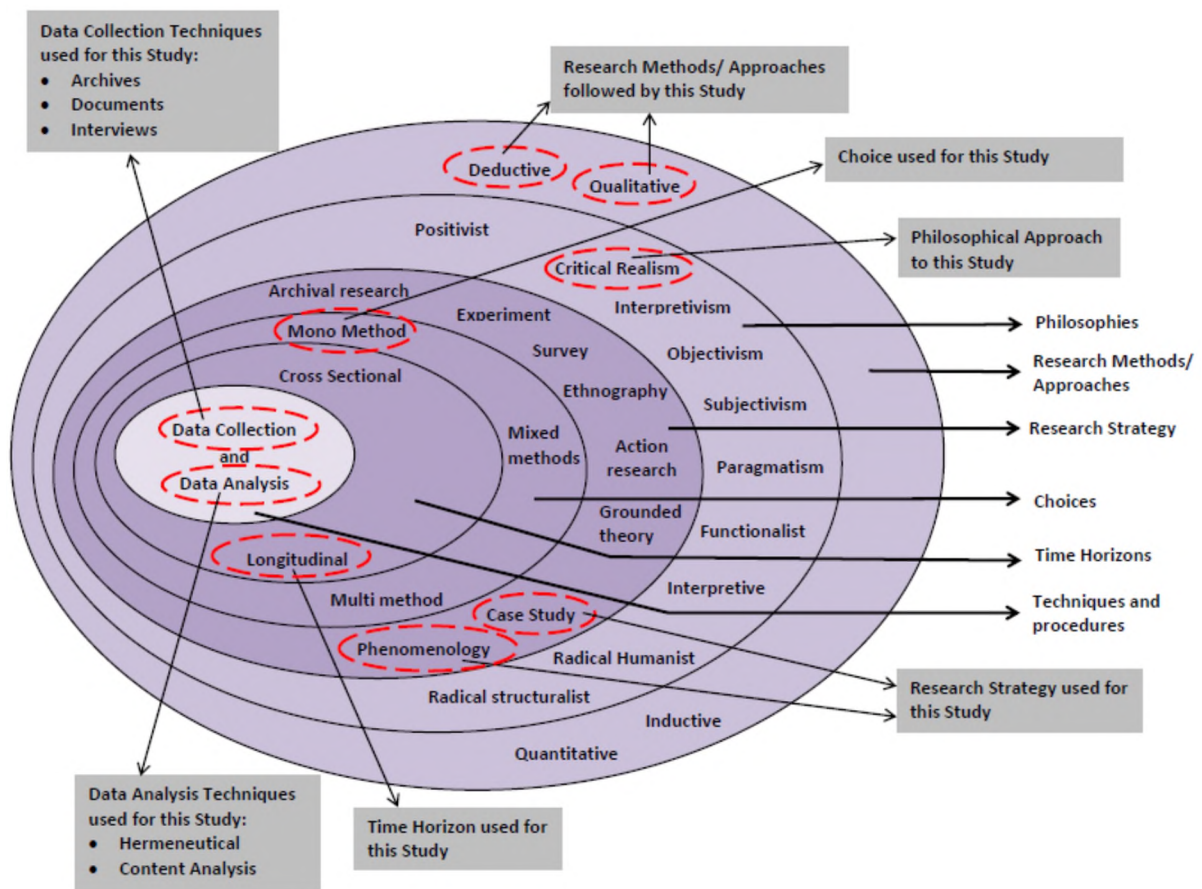
3.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter discusses the research methods used to answer the research question as well as to achieve the objectives of the research. The aim of this research was, from the perspective of talent management in a diverse environment, to analyse the corrective action plan of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA), as a process of securing talent for strategic positions in aviation safety in Namibia. Therefore, the key research question was: *“How did the corrective action plan of the DCA actually translate into securing talent for aviation safety?”* The objectives of the research were:

- Firstly, to explore and describe the key challenges that informed the programme in terms of Namibian education as well as the international aviation safety requirements;
- Secondly, to describe and analyse the talent management strategies that were adopted in managing key positions within aviation safety at the DCA; and
- Finally, to develop a model of sustainable talent management for the DCA.

In order to find answers to the research question as well as achieving the objectives of the study, it was important to find an appropriate research method and paradigm, as well as appropriate data collection tools and data analysis techniques. Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to present, describe and justify matters related to research methods used to answer the above research question, as well as to achieve several research objectives mentioned above. First, the chapter presents the research design that was followed in this study. Second, presents critical realism as the research paradigm and also discusses its relevance to the study (Bhaskar, 1975; Collier, 1994; Mingers, 2001; Mingers *et al.*, 2013; Njihia, 2011). Third, as part of the research paradigm, the chapter highlights both the ontological and epistemological approaches to the study. Fourth, the chapter describes the deductive qualitative research method employed, namely the case study. The reasons for choosing case study research method for the purposes of this study are explained and justified. Fifth, the chapter further presents and describes the data collection techniques

used in the study, as well as justifying the reasons for the particular choice. The advantages and disadvantages of the data collection methods used in this study are also presented, discussed, argued and critiqued in this chapter. Sixth, the data analysis method used during the research is presented, as well as making the case for why such a method was chosen. Seventh, the chapter also deals with how ethics and research quality issues were handled during the study. Finally, the chapter ends with a conclusion that summarises the main issues discussed. In dealing with this chapter, the researcher relied heavily on the useful research onion model developed by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2003; 2007; 2009), which contains different stages of the research method. However, the Saunders *et al.*, (2003; 2007; 2009) model served merely as a guideline and was modified by the researcher to suit this particular study as depicted in Figure 1 below:



Saunders Research Onion, 2009, as adapted by the Researcher

3.2. RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Collis and Hussey (2003:355), research design is “the detailed plan for conducting a research study”. On the other hand, Thietart *et al.*, (2001:111) defines research design as “...the framework through which the various components of a research project are brought together: research question, literature review, data, analysis and results”. From these definitions, it can be seen that research design provides an overall guidance for the choice of the research paradigm, the research strategy, as well as the data collection and analysis methods of a study in advance (Churchill, 1979). It is argued that a proper research design is important because of the critical role it provides as a link between the theory and the argument that informed the research, and the empirical data collected (Nachmias & Nachmias 2008). Therefore, a choice of research design “reflects decisions about the priority being given to a range of dimensions of the research process” (Bryman & Bell 2007:40). These decisions subsequently have a considerable influence on the other methodological procedures such as the determination of the research populations, and how ethical issues are dealt with.

Hartley (2004:236) and Yin (2003) simplify the definition of research design when they refer to it as an argument for logical steps that were taken to link the research questions and issues to data collection, and analysis and interpretation in a coherent way. Another way of viewing a research design is to see it as an action plan for getting from the questions to the conclusions (Rowley, 2002). The case study under investigation is a single case design, which was considered appropriate for this study taking into account the fact that it represents a unique case of the DCA in Namibia. The case was designed in order to signify the importance of the most relevant selected events for examination at the DCA of Namibia. The design of the case was considered as the best case and an area of special interest to both the researcher and the Government of the Republic of Namibia at the time. The case study was designed to illustrate the workings of a programme that was used at the DCA of Namibia. Generally, the design used was particularly driven by the objectives of the research questions which were formed to answer questions of “who, what, where, how and why” (Remenyi, 2013).

While designing this study, attention was given to the components of a case study such as research question, the proposition of the study, the unit of analysis, as well as the criteria for interpreting the findings, as identified by Yin (2003), Bryman (2004) and Creswell (2003).

The objectives of the study were designed to direct the attention of the readers to a specific issue that was to be examined. In this particular case, the issue to be examined was how the DCA of Namibia succeeded in implementing the corrective action plan in order to restore it to its rightful place within the civil aviation industry. In order to do this, defining the unit of analysis and its geographical boundaries became important elements of consideration during the design of this study. It should be noted that the unit of analysis is the basis for the case (Rowley, 2002). The unit of analysis was the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) with particular emphasis on aviation safety within the DCA from 2008 to 2014. For the purposes of this study and by general meaning applicable to the civil aviation industry aviation safety inspectors are those aviation inspectors from the following occupational groups within the DCA: Airworthiness (AWS), Flight Operations (OPS), Personnel Licencing (PEL), and Aerodromes Safety and Certification (AGA). During the period of study, the DCA employed twenty-two Aviation Safety Inspectors broken down as follows: There were six Airworthiness Inspectors (AWS), seven Flight Operations Inspectors (OPS), five Personnel Licencing Inspectors (PEL), and four Aerodromes Safety and Certification (AGA). The majority of these were Staff seconded by ICAO to the DCA, comprised mostly of white foreign males, while a limited number were local black males and females. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the whole staff compliment of twenty-two Aviation Safety Inspectors was regarded as the sample for the study.

In addition to the above, care was taken during the design stage of this case study to satisfy the conditions related to design quality. These included the criteria of conformability, credibility, dependability and transferability (Elo *et al.*, 2014; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Riege, 2003). These issues are explained later on in this chapter.

This was a study of a single case in a particular set up, in this case the DCA of Namibia. Consequently, the impossibility of replicating the same study elsewhere limits both the strength and range of generalization arguments considerably (Gerring, 2004; Jensen & Rodgers, 2001; Kennedy, 1979). However, although one cannot generalize on the basis of the findings of an individual case, the results can be transferred to other similar situations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Therefore, the study is still valid because it was appropriately informed by theory and can therefore be seen to add to the established theory (Rowley, 2002). While design procedures were put in place beforehand and careful attention paid to design details, consistent with the character of a case study, the research had built-in-flexibility to account for new and unexpected empirical material (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

3.3. RESEARCH PARADIGM

It is often said that well-informed research should have a research paradigm (Creswell, 1994; Mason, 1996). According to Creswell (1994) and Mason (1996), the word paradigm can be traced back to its Greek (*paradeigma*) and Latin (*paradigm*) origins, which means a model or example. Therefore, a paradigm, according to Stanage (1987), is a pattern of thinking of a person; a principal example among examples, an exemplar or model to follow according to which designed actions are taken. Denzin and Lincoln (2000) define a research paradigm as a basic set of beliefs that guide the actions of the researcher. McGregor and Murnane (2010:419) define a paradigm as “a set of assumptions, concepts, values, and practices that constitutes a way of viewing reality”. According to McGregor and Murnane (2010), the term paradigm refers to two dimensions: the first one is the philosophical, basic beliefs and assumptions about the world while the second one is technical, namely the methods and techniques adopted when conducting research.

Although there are several definitions of paradigm, the most quoted definition of paradigm is Kuhn's (1962; 1970) who defines it as the underlying assumptions and intellectual structure upon which research and development in a field of inquiry is based. Kuhn (1970) used the term paradigm to refer to assumptions people carry in their heads about the universe, work, issues, and other people. The above views offered by different

scholars seem to have similar characteristics in common. The common themes that emerge from the three definitions suggest that a paradigm is a guideline that directs one how to go about investigating a certain issue.

Furthermore, a research paradigm for a study has both ontological and epistemological bases informed by the research question (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Based on this understanding, research paradigms are differentiated on the basis on their ontological and epistemological principles. Several authors refer to ontology as what counts as nature, reality, feeling, existence or being, while epistemology is that which is worthy counting as knowledge and how people come to know it (Bhaskar, 1978, 1989, 1998; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; McGregor & Murnane, 2010; Miller & Tsang, 2010; Mingers, 2001; Mingers *et al.*, 2013; Sayer, 1992, 2000). The research paradigm for this study is critical realism. It is discussed below:

3.3.1. Critical realism

Critical realism was developed as an alternative to traditional positivistic models of social science as well as an alternative to postmodern approaches and theories (Carlsson, 2005). Its purpose is to recognise the reality of the natural order and the events and discourses of the social world (Carlsson, 2005). Critical realism is a new paradigm that was established by the pioneering work of philosopher, Roy Bhaskar (Bhaskar, 1978; 1989; 1998). It should be noted that critical realism was developed as a result of the hegemony of dominant philosophies and therefore emerged as a paradigm shift in the revolutions of science (Kuhn, 1970). In recent years, the critical realist paradigm has affirmed its position as an alternative in the social sciences, particularly in relation to social change (Miller & Tsang, 2010; Pratschke, 2003). For example, as part of their solutions to problems associated with both, positivists and hermeneutic philosophies, critical realists argue that it is imperative to define ontology before one can continue with epistemology (Pratschke, 2003). They make this argument based on their belief that a reality exists and can be discovered independently of the researcher (Easton, 1998).

The critical realist approach, which this study took, sees a real world that exists independently of human perceptions, theories, and constructions while accepting the understanding of human beings that suggests that this world is inevitably a construction from the perspectives of different people and their standpoint (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). Sayer (2000) confirms this line of thinking by stating that reality exists independently of the researcher. This means that the world exists independently from the knowledge human beings have about it.

According to Marobela (2006), the basis of this belief comes from the fallibility of human knowledge. In terms of this approach, critical realists argue that human beings possess ideas about the nature of our world, which are sometimes true and not true at other times. In this regard, Marobela (2006) gives a practical example to demonstrate this point by providing an example of the case when, at some point, human beings thought the earth was flat but later disproved; instead it was discovered that the earth was round. The fact is that the nature and design of the world remains independent from what human beings think or believe about it. This realisation of the truth about the earth did not change the earth's landscape. It remained what it was, and will remain as such in future when human beings again change their opinion about the earth. Therefore, the critical realist contention of reality existing regardless of human knowledge of it remains valid (Marobela, 2006).

Riege (2003) argues that in critical realism, the researcher and the object being investigated are linked interactively. This close interactive relationship between the researcher and the objective being researched allows the belief of the researcher to influence the inquiry. Taking this understanding into account, it could be claimed that there is no objective or value-neutral knowledge that exists (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Riege, 2003). Therefore, it could be claimed that knowledge generated out of an inquiry, depends on the interaction between and among researcher and respondent(s), aiming at increasing an understanding of the similarities and differences of constructions that both the researcher and respondent(s) initially held in order to become more aware of, and informed about, the content and meaning of these constructions (Anderson, 1986). The fundamental point about critical realism is that it sees objects as having multiple realities,

which are based on the mental constructions of individual persons. Similar to critical theory, assumptions are subjective but they create knowledge.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that critical realism focuses on individual people's initial understanding and reconstruction of the beliefs they hold about specific issues. Those following the critical realism paradigm do so by being open to new interpretations as information and sophistication improve. In this way, they try to achieve a consensus on the meaning of a reconstructed issue.

Furthermore, critical realism advances the form of the argument that is transcendental in nature (Mingers *et al.*, 2013). It should be stated that transcendental realism was Bhaskar's first and most important philosophical innovation (Bhaskar, 1975; Mingers *et al.*, 2013; Njihia, 2011). Transcendental realism begins with some accepted phenomenon and then questions what the world must be like for this to occur (Mingers *et al.*, 2013). It is argued from the critical realist point of view that neither empiricism nor idealism can successfully explain these occurrences and that they necessitate some form of realist ontology. It is with transcendental realism that Bhaskar (1978) sets out the principal critical realist arguments for *depth realism* in social reality, which he called the *transitive* and *intransitive dimensions*, and against what he terms the *epistemic fallacy*.

The transitive dimension is of things that are related or in some way affected by human beings, such as the production of knowledge, which is much the work of humans (Bhaskar, 1989). This distinguishes people's knowledge which is changeable, from the objects of such knowledge, said to be real and that do not depend in any way on people knowing them. Therefore, transcendental realism accepts *ontological realism*, that there exists a reality apart from human knowledge or activity (Mingers *et al.*, 2013; Njihia, 2011).

According to Mingers *et al.*, (2013) and Njihia (2011), the intransitive dimension comprises of things that do not depend on human activity and therefore exist independently of human beings. The intransitive dimensions are also known as the domains of the *real*, *the actual*, and *the empirical* which according to Bhaskar (1975) and Sayer (2000) critical realism also views the world in terms of those three levels.

Bhaskar (1975) and Sayer (2000) describe the *real* component as concerning that, which exists regardless of whether we understand it or whether we have experience of it. Bhaskar (1975) in particular describes the *real* as those underlying mechanisms or structures that are responsible for what human beings cannot see. Therefore, human beings have no direct knowledge of these mechanism or structures. The *real* component maintains that it is for this reason that different human beings attach unique meanings to the same objects. For example, no human being has ever seen gravity, but they know many things about gravity. That is why human beings speak about the law of gravity yet they have not seen gravity. Another example is a concept of justice. Society upholds justice, which they cannot see, but know about. Similarly human beings know that there are imaginary lines of latitude and longitude, which are used as coordinates in aviation, yet the lines are not visible.

Underneath the *real* is the *actual*. According to Bhaskar (1975), the *actual* refers to the outcome when the structure and powers of the *real* are activated. In other words, activities of the *actual* are events caused by mechanisms in the *real*. In this regard, Bhaskar (1975) described the *actual* as events occurring in the world. While human beings cannot observe the *real*, they can observe the *actual*. Using the example of gravity given above, while human beings cannot see or observe gravity, they can observe an event caused by gravity. Similarly, while human beings cannot see or observe justice, they can observe an event caused by justice. What human beings observe as human nature is the *real* that human beings speak about based upon the events of the *actual*.

Finally, underneath the *actual* is the *empirical*. The *empirical* refers to the domain of human sensory experiences (Bhaskar, 1975; Sayer, 2000). This is the observable experience and position of an individual, observing the events on the *actual* level, and making speculations about the *actual*, for example, a researcher. In this regard, critical realism offers exciting prospects in shifting attention toward the real problems that people face and their underlying causes, and away from a focus on data and methods of analysis only (Mingers *et al.*, 2013).

Critical Realists differentiates between *extensive* and *intensive designs* (Danermark *et al.*, 2002; Miller & Tsang 2010; Sayer, 1992; 2000). While extensive research design is

applicable to quantitative methods, intensive research design is often associated with qualitative modes of analysis (Miller & Tsang, 2010). Essentially, an intensive research design deals with the collection of detailed data within one or more cases. This approach is particularly good for the case study research method because it affords it an opportunity to evaluate whether the mechanisms proposed by a theory affect the outcomes as expected (Miller & Tsang, 2010).

Finally, it should be noted that critical realism is one of the several other forms of realism that several scholars advocated for (Archer *et al.*, 1998; Bhaskar, 1989; Campbell, 1974, 1988; Cook & Campbell, 1979). Other forms of realisms are for example, “experiential” realism (Lakoff, 1987), “constructive” realism (Giere, 1999), “subtle” realism (Hammersley, 1992a), “emergent” realism (Henry, Julnes, & Mark, 1998; Mark, Henry, & Julnes, 2000), “natural” realism (Putnam, 1999), “innocent” realism (Haack, 1998; 2003), and “agential” realism (Barad, 2007). What is interesting to note is that, even though not described, the different forms of realism referenced to above agree that there is a single and correct understanding of the world. In general, a realist understanding of science is that certain types of objects exist in the world independent of human beings and therefore researchers can gain reliable knowledge from them (Mingers, 2000).

Based on the understanding that there are several forms of realisms, it is worth mentioning that critical realism was chosen as a research paradigm. This is because it helps to answer the main research question, which is to describe and explain how the talent management programme was designed and implemented at the DCA of Namibia, as well as answering several objectives of the study. Furthermore, critical realism was chosen because the research is underpinned by the belief that social reality is subjective since it is believed that reality is shaped by different interpretations people attach to objects that they observe or see (Saunders *et al.*, 2009; Collis & Hussey, 2009).

3.3.2. Ontological considerations and the relevance to the study

Ontology addresses the principle question of “what is the nature of the reality being investigated”, in this case the talent management programme at the Directorate of Civil

Aviation (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994:13). It also takes interest in knowing details about the particular reality being investigated. For example, is the particular reality being investigated in full or only partially? Ontology also allows the researcher to examine, for example, how different academic groups understand different concepts in the real world. It allows the researcher to unpack and critically understand the key concepts in a particular study.

The researcher does that by looking at the reality of the concepts or phenomena being investigated from two perspectives and makes a choice of one depending on the predetermined objectives of the study. These perspectives are *objective realities* where the researcher can stand apart from what is being studied and *subjective realities* where reality is conceived as being socially constructed by the actors in a given context, such that the researcher cannot totally get disentangled from what is already known (Kuhn, 1970; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994:11; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). In other words, the researcher becomes part of the research process. Therefore, ontology deals with the question of what is real. It is in this regard that Putnam *et al.*, (1993:228) emphasize the point that “every story comes from a point of view that represents particular interests” and therefore the reader has the right to know which interest prevail in a particular research study.

It should also be noted that the reality of the particular phenomena being studied here, namely talent management, could be observable or comprehensible and includes everything that has existed before, that which exists now and that which will exist in future (Kuhn, 1970; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). With this understanding in mind, this research takes *subjective reality* as its ontological approach, which supports a qualitative research study while the *objective reality* would be the ontological approach supporting quantitative research studies (Kuhn, 1970; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Saunders *et al.*, 2009). The *subjective reality* as an ontological approach is chosen because it suggests that the nature of reality, in this case talent management, as a phenomena being studied could be seen as having multiple realities from a point of view of different research participants in a given context (Kuhn, 1970; Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

In this study, there is relationship between critical realism as a preferred research paradigm and the researcher's ontological orientation of subjective reality. Both come from a point of view that suggests that reality can be different from one person to another, based on the individual's unique understanding of the world and their experience of it from a critical realist point of view (Berger & Luckman, 1966). The differences in individual perceptions of reality is as a result of several factors such as, their prior experiences, the socialisation process they were subject to as well as the cultural differences resulting from their different economic positions (Darslaston-Jones, 2007). Reality in this case is completely subjective and need not be something that can be shared by anyone else but at the same time it is independent of the person living it (Darslaston-Jones, 2007).

3.3.3. Epistemological considerations and the relevance to the study

Epistemology is referred to as that which is worthy counting as knowledge and how people come to know it (Bryman & Bell, 2007; McGregor & Murnane, 2010). Saunders *et al.*, (2009), make particular reference to academic research and refer to epistemology as an individual's philosophical beliefs as to what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study. Therefore, epistemology particularly deals with the relationship between the knower, the would-be knower and what can be known (Greene & Caracell, 1997:6; Guba & Lincoln, 1994:108; Saunders, 2009). Furthermore, epistemology questions what knowledge is all about and how the knower goes about to discover or construct knowledge, particularly that which is pertinent to a given subject or entity (Paul & Marfo, 2000; Saunders *et al.*, 2009).

To highlight the point that epistemology is about reliability and quality of knowledge generated by a particular study, Nowotny, Scott and Gibbons (2001:178) state: "reliable knowledge in terms of its disciplinary relevance and validity, like objective knowledge, is not simply to be discarded or ignored. Reliable and/ or objective knowledge continues to provide the foundations on which our knowledge of the natural world depends. But neither is any longer sufficient of itself."

Gergen (1999) emphasises the fact that reality is socially constructed by and between the persons who experience it. It is such socially constructed experience in a given context that shapes knowledge. Furthermore, knowledge is shaped by the cultural, historical, political, and social norms that operate within that context and time (Darslaston-Jones, 2007). In this regard, it is important for the researcher to establish the epistemology of his research because it seeks to explain the researchers' process of thinking and the relationship between what the researcher knows and sees (Bernal, 2002; Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Pallas, 2001). In particular, it is important because it helps to understand what type of new knowledge the research brings. Without some means of understanding how human beings acquire knowledge, how they rely upon their senses, and how they develop concepts in their minds, there will be no coherent path to thinking (Miller & Tsang 2010).

Based on the above understanding, the epistemological position of this study was informed by its ontological approach based on the researcher's perception of the reality of the phenomena being studied. Therefore, the epistemological approach of this study was the one of a close interactive relationship between the researcher and the research participants (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Saunders, 2009). In this regard, the researcher was part of the research process and therefore the relationship with the respondents was close (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994; Saunders, 2009). This particular epistemological approach was chosen because of the high level of theoretical sensitivity it brought into the study. As a result of the close relationship between the researcher and the research participants, the researcher was able to understand data generated by the respondents based on previous personal and professional experience of the phenomena being studied (Glaser, 1978).

It can be said that there is a relationship between critical realism as a preferred research paradigm and the researcher's epistemology orientation. The transitive dimension of critical realism is of things that are related or in some way affected by human beings, such as the production of knowledge, which is much the work of humans (Bhaskar, 1989) while epistemology also looks at the type of knowledge being derived from the object been studied. This type of relationship distinguishes people's knowledge which is changeable, from the objects of such knowledge, said to be real and that do not depend

in any way on people knowing them (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Pallas, 2001).

Finally, understanding the relationship between the researcher's view of reality (ontology) and the meaning the researcher ascribed to knowledge and its creation (epistemology) was an important aspect that helped in articulating the rationale for the research design and methodology of this study.

3.4. QUALITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

Saunders *et al.*, (2003:2) defines a research method as "... a theory of how research is undertaken." Literature suggests that there is considerable debate among scholars about what is the most appropriate or suitable research method to use on a topic (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Saunders *et al.*, 2003). Ticehurst & Veal, (2000) argue that the decision on what approach to take is often aligned with differing philosophical positions or paradigms. According to Bryman & Bell, (2007) there are two categories of research methods, namely quantitative and qualitative research methods.

According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), a quantitative research method is any type of research that produces findings arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification, while qualitative research refers to any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or other means of quantification. Various authors have explained the differences between qualitative and quantitative research, and therefore this study did not go into such detail (e.g. Maxwell, 1998; Thomas, 2003; Corbetta, 2003). Since this study takes a qualitative approach as a research method, the researcher has confined it to details related to the qualitative research method and is now discussed further.

According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011), the qualitative research method has a well-established history in various fields. In this regard, Denzin and Lincoln (2011) view qualitative researchers as those that study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of meanings people bring to them. However, Strauss and Corbin (1998) are of the opinion that qualitative research refers to any type of research that produces findings not arrived at by statistical procedures or

other means of quantification. Polkinghorne (2004) simplifies qualitative research by referring to it as a research method where language is used instead of numbered data. The purpose of such language is to “build a complex, holistic picture” (Creswell, 1998:15) and to describe and clarify “human experience as it appears in people’s lives” (Polkinghorne, 2004:137). In qualitative research, knowledge is not passively observed, but actively constructed and evolves from an exploration of people’s internal constructions (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999).

A study of the above definitions by several scholars suggests that qualitative research is about feelings, perceptions, meanings and the interpretation of the why and how of human behaviour (McGregor & Murnane, 2010). Therefore, a key objective of qualitative research is to get a holistic understanding of the phenomenon. In order to have a holistic understanding of the phenomenon, a qualitative approach requires multiple sources of evidence when collecting data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Some of the methods used for data collection in qualitative research collection are observation (which could also be quantitative), interviewing including listening to groups, ethnographic fieldwork, discourse analysis, and textual analysis (Travers, 2001). This study took a qualitative approach because it takes place in a natural setting and gives meaning to issues. This natural setting is the DCA of Namibia. Furthermore, a qualitative approach was chosen because it emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data (Bryman *et al.*, 2007:28). During the interviews at the DCA, words, and not numbers were collected as data from various informants. The qualitative approach was also chosen because it takes into account the feelings of the researcher while offering the researcher an opportunity to explore the organisation under investigation. In this particular case under investigation, this characteristic could be associated with the idea of the researcher getting more information about the DCA from various documents accessed. Therefore, a qualitative approach was chosen because of several characteristics of this study that closely resembles the characteristics of a qualitative study. Furthermore, a qualitative approach was chosen because it seeks to describe, decode and help translate the meaning of a naturally occurring phenomenon such as the one being studied (McGregor & Murnane, 2010). A qualitative case study research method was adopted and is discussed next.

3.4.1. Case study

Case study, as a systematic research tool and strategy was used in this study (Yin, 2003). The concept of a research strategy is used in this study to refer to a set of methods, techniques and procedures that were used for generating and analysing the research material (Verschuren, 2003). The use of a case study method has become very popular in social research, especially for students researching institutions. The case study method is an example of a qualitative method, which gives meaning to issues (Verschuren, 2003). The case study research strategy may be used in two different ways, either as an evidence collection strategy and/or as a knowledge creation strategy. It should be noted that the aim of the case study is always to provide a rich, multi-dimensional picture of the situation being studied (Eisenhardt, 1989). It is on this understanding that it was used as a research strategy in this study.

There are several definitions of a case study (Bell, 1993; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Denscombe, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2003). Some of them are cited and explained as follows: Eisenhardt (1989:534) defines case study as a “research strategy, which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings”. The above definition addresses three important issues. The first is that it refers to case study as a “*Research strategy*”. As a research strategy, the distinguishing characteristic of a case study is that it attempts to examine a contemporary phenomenon (Eisenhardt, 1989). Therefore, case study is a plan of intended actions by which the researcher goes about conducting the business of research. Second, the definition focuses on the “*understanding the dynamics present.*” In other words, it focuses on the understanding of the current situation of the phenomena being investigated, and how it unfolds. Third, the definition also emphasizes the fact that a case study deals with issues “*within single settings.*” This element talks to the issue of the clearly defined territorial boundaries under which the case study research method operates. According to Eisenhardt (1989), a case study can involve either single or multiple cases. A single case design was adopted here, focusing on the DCA.

According to Bell (1993) the case study approach is an umbrella term for a family of research methods having in common the decision to focus on an enquiry around a specific instance or event. Although this definition looks shallow, it nevertheless provides basic guidelines of what constitutes a case study. Bell (1993) in his definition of case study puts more emphasis on two areas, namely, “*that it is an enquiry*” and that this particular enquiry takes place around a “*specific instance or event.*” This means that a case study research method is an investigation (enquiry) of a matter that has taken place in a particular location (specific instance or event).

Stake (2005), on the other hand suggests that a case study is research, which addresses a specific, ‘bounded system’ within a unique context that is studied through a variety of methods as appropriate to the specific situation. This definition places more emphasis on “*bounded system*” pointing out to the fact that case study research method takes place within defined boundaries of a specific location.

Bryman & Bell (2007) defines a case study as a research design that entails the detailed and intensive analysis of a single case. Bryman and Bell (2007) also acknowledges that the approach is sometimes extended to include the study of just two or three cases for comparison purposes. This definition introduces a new element. This element refers to the fact that it is not necessarily true that case study research method only deal with one single case, but deals with multiple cases.

Denscombe (2007), on the other hand, sees the case study method as an extensive examination of a perceived problem situation and focuses on one or a few instances of a particular phenomenon with a view to providing an in-depth understanding of events, relationships, experiences or processes occurring at that particular instance. It is also a way of organising social data and looking at the object to be studied as a whole. Here the emphasis is placed on an “*extensive examination*” referring to the extent to which the investigation may be extended. This is particularly important because it suggests that all details relating to the case are being investigated and examined.

According to Yin (2003:23), a case study may be defined as “an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, when the boundaries between the phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and in which multiple sources of evidence are used”. The above definition addresses five important issues. These are: First, is *empirical enquires* which he describes as pointing to the fact that a case study based on primary data collected from the source and not secondary data obtained from libraries. Second, is a *contemporary phenomenon*, which suggests that case study should deal with current and relevant issues, and not the ones that are outdated. Third, is *real life context*, which refers to the fact it takes place in natural settings and deals with real life and not experimental or laboratory setting. Fourth, is that the *boundaries are not clearly evident*, which suggests that there are several variables at play in case study which could demand the attention of the researcher at any time. Finally, there are *multiple sources of evidence*, which refers to the fact that any type of data, which could be used to answer the research question, could be accessed. The above-mentioned definition also seems to suggest that case study is often associated with a particular location, such as a workplace or organization. This definition is accepted as a working definition for the purposes of this study because it is comprehensive and all-inclusive.

From the above-mentioned, it is evident that despite several definitions offered by different authors, most of their definitions appear to have key common characteristics among them. Using the common characteristics offered by several authors cited above, one could define the case study as an enquiry or method of extensive examination or as a research strategy (Bell, 1993; Denscombe, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2003) around specific instances or events (Bell, 1993; Denscombe, 2007) that take place around defined boundaries of a specific location (Eisenhardt, 1989; Stake, 2005; Yin, 2009) and deal with current issues (Denscombe, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2009) of real life situations (Denscombe, 2007; Yin, 2009) in one single case, or more (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989).

The case study method was chosen because the case under investigation refers to a specific case and location, namely, the DCA of Namibia. Furthermore, the case study method is generally viewed as a helpful method in the generation of an intensive and

detailed examination of a case, particularly when using its traditional data collection tools such as interviews. Secondly, the case study method was chosen because the unit of investigation was a specific process within the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia as an organisation. Thirdly, it has a more powerful evidence collection framework (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Remenyi, Money, Price, & Bannister; 2002). Besides, it allows the researcher to focus on one case, in this case, the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia, with a view to providing a more detailed account and analysis of occurrences from 2008 to 2011 (Denscombe, 2007). Additionally, because the case study method relies on multiple sources of evidence, the integrity of the study's results is maintained.

Furthermore, case study was chosen as a research strategy because of its obvious advantages. In addition to several reasons advanced below, a case study design was chosen because it can be used to accomplish various aims such as providing description, testing theory and generating theory (Eisenhardt, 1989). In addition, the interest in this study is to provide a description in the form of a case study of what happened at the Directorate of Civil Aviation with the implementation of the talent management programme. According to Denscombe (2007), a case study has the following advantages: First, many researchers use the case study method because it focuses on one particular geographical location. In this particular case, the geographical area chosen was the DCA of Namibia. The case study as a research strategy was chosen because of its uniqueness of concentrating on a particular geographical area with clearly defined boundaries. The approach taken by case study is that if the investigation is on a particular institution, it concentrates only on that particular institution. In this manner, it allows the researcher to deal with the subtleties and intricacies of a complex social situation. Second, because of the fact that the researcher concentrates only on a particular institution; the researcher in the process acquires in-depth knowledge about that particular institution. This gives the researcher a better understanding of the situation, thereby enhancing the reliability of the results. Furthermore, it makes the researcher very knowledgeable about that particular institution. Third, case studies occur in natural settings and not in laboratory situations. They do not occur in a situation that is artificially generated. Fourth, the case study method allows the researcher to use a variety of sources of data and methods of information collection as part of the

investigation. In this way, the reliability of the outcome of the investigation is guaranteed (Eisenhardt, 1989). Fifth, the case study was chosen because it can be used in situations where the researcher has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon, which is the case in the matter of the DCA of Namibia, that was investigated. Finally, the case study was preferred because it helps in answering questions of “how” or “why” that is raised by the research questions (Yin, 2003).

Although the case study method of research was chosen because of its advantages, it also has disadvantages. According to Denscombe, (2007) the major disadvantages of case study approach are as follows: Firstly, the concern by both critics and advocates of the case studies is that it lacks generalisation (Gerring, 2004; Jensen & Rodgers, 2001). As a result of this perceived limitation, the generalisation of an individual case study to a larger population is always called into question because the study focuses on a single entity (Jensen & Rodgers, 2001; Meredith, 1998; Verschuren, 2003). Secondly is that the boundaries of the case studied could prove difficult to define at times (Denscombe, 2007; Jensen & Rodgers, 2001; Verschuren, 2003). In other words, the beginning and the end of a certain geographical area, as well start and end point, in which the study is to take place, may sometimes be difficult to establish. If the boundaries are not clearly articulated, the results of the study could be challenged. Thirdly, due to the fact that case studies occur in natural settings, the research will take a considerable length of time (Denscombe, 2007; Meredith, 1998). During this period, participants may notice that they are being observed and their behaviour may change to something not original. Should this happen, the results of the research may lose credibility. Finally, negotiating access to an institution to be studied may at times prove very difficult (Denscombe, 2007; Meredith, 1998). In most cases, permission to study an institution is often required beforehand. Because of secrecy and confidential operations some institutions run, researchers may be refused access to such institutions.

There are four disadvantages of case study research method discussed above. Since case study was the preferred and chosen research method, it is essential that a brief explanation be provided on how the researcher mitigated against some of the perceived disadvantages. The first disadvantage that concerns the lack of generalisation as

advanced by both critics and advocates (Gerring, 2004; Jensen & Rodgers, 2001) of case study as far it concerns this research are adequately dealt with in other parts of this research. With regard to the criticism that the boundaries of the case studied could prove difficult to define at times (Denscombe, 2007; Jensen & Rodgers, 2001; Verschuren, 2003), it should be stated that this was a case study of a particular organisation, namely the DCA with clearly defined boundaries. Furthermore, this study was specific to talent management of Safety Aviation Officers at the DCA from 2008 to 2014. Therefore, this perceived disadvantage associated with case study did not exist in this particular case. The criticism that relates to the perceived extended length of time taken in a case study that may result in observed participants changing their behaviour (Denscombe, 2007; Meredith, 1998) did not affect this study since it was not experimental. The research question of this study was to explain what measures were taken by the Directorate of Civil Aviation to actually translate the corrective action plan into securing talent for aviation safety. Therefore, even the objectives of the study did not seek to address the observed behaviour of human beings. Finally, the perceived problem of negotiating access to an institution to be studied (Denscombe, 2007; Meredith, 1998) did not exist in this case. The researcher had an established relationship with the authorities at the Directorate of Civil Aviation. Therefore, negotiating access did not present any problem. The type of relationship that existed between the researcher and the institution being studied is discussed later on under the topics of “Ethical Considerations” and “Research Quality Issues”.

This is a longitudinal case study, providing different types of information that resulted in a time-ordered analysis of events that occurred from 2008 to 2011 at the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Namibia (Jensen & Rodgers, 2001). Traditionally, longitudinal case studies in public administration focus on political entities or public institutions such as the one investigated in this study, namely, the Directorate of Civil Aviation (Wood, 1988). Furthermore, some longitudinal case studies are known to focus more on the dynamics of change in an organization as their primary focus, while others report on the full experience of an entity from its birth to its demise (Jensen & Rodgers, 2001).

Furthermore, the study adopts a deductive approach. Although a deductive approach is often associated with quantitative research methods in social sciences (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Lee, 1989; Yin, 2003), its application to qualitative research methods, although not common, has made it possible to enrich researchers' understanding of social phenomena being investigated and of the explanatory power of the competing theories (Allison, 1971; Langley, 1999; Lee, 1989; Marcus, 1983). The starting point in a deductive approach is the researcher on the basis of what is known about a particular phenomenon, and based on theoretical considerations, deduces a hypothesis that must then be subjected to empirical scrutiny (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In other words, from the concepts employed in the theory, the researcher suggests an outcome or situation, which expresses the understandings inherent in the theory. This outcome is then tested. If the test does not refute the suggested outcome, the outcome is then held to be valid and where appropriate, it is added to the theory, *pro temp*. The deductive theory approach was taken because it has the capability to determine if the steps and activities followed at the Directorate of Civil Aviation when implementing the corrective action plan, using results of data collected supported or refuted the talent management theory discussed above.

3.5. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data was collected using multiple methods and sources such as documentation, interviews and archival records (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Remenyi, 2012; Yen, 1994). A triangulation approach was also taken based on the assumption that no single method can accurately capture the scope of any problem to provide a solid basis that would result in greater confidence of the findings (Voss, Tsikriktsis & Frohlich, 2002; Fisher & Ziviani, 2004; Bryman & Bell, 2007). Triangulation refers to the use of different data collection methods within one study in order to ensure that the data tells the researcher what they think they are telling him/her (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Denscombe, 2007; Remenyi, 2012). The principle behind triangulation is that the researcher can get a better understanding of the thing that is being investigated if he/she views it from different positions (Denscombe, 2007). Furthermore, triangulation of data is critical in case study research that follows a qualitative methodology because it

reinforces the trustworthiness of the data in terms of its conformability, credibility, transferability and dependability (Deves, 1999; Elo, *et al.*, 2014; Johnson, 1997; Lincoln & Guba; 1985; Riege, 2003; Saunders, 1999). The data collection tools used during the research was interviews and analysis of documents.

3.5.1. Document analysis

The document analysis method of data collection refers to the careful study of any written materials that contains information about the subject the researcher wishes to study. According to Denscombe (2007), documents can be treated as a source of data in their own right. In this regard, the use of the term “document” should not be seen in a limited context. When a researcher undertakes research using document analysis as a data collection technique, he/she has a choice between the using primary or secondary documents. The researcher may also wish to use both techniques.

According to Bailey (1987), primary documents are those written by eyewitnesses who experience a particular event or behaviour. These include documents such as personal letters to friends and relatives, diaries, suicide notes and autobiographies. Bryman and Bell (2007), state that these documents are important because they describe events as told by a person who witnessed such activities of lived experience. Therefore, they are a record of a local culture and of a particular communal understanding of events. Secondary documents, on the other hand, are those written by people who were not present at the scene but received information to compile the documents by interviewing those that were present (Bailey, 1987). In this study, documents such as staff rules, financial records, acts, rules, regulations, government publications, letters, memoranda and circulars, announcements and minutes of meetings, and written reports of events as well as administrative documents such as proposals, progress reports, other internal documents, formal studies or evaluations, newspaper clippings and other articles (Yin, 2003) were used.

Scott (1990), cited in Bryman & Bell, (2007) offers the following four criteria for assessing the quality of documents to use: The first one is **authenticity**, which

ascertains if the evidence is genuine and of unquestionable origin. The second one is **credibility**, which assesses if the evidence is free from error and distortion. The third one is **representativeness**, which questions if the evidence is typical of its kind. And if not, is the extent of its non-typicality known? The last one is **meaning**, which questions if the evidence is clear and comprehensible. These guidelines should be helpful when deciding upon the type of documents to be used.

Document analysis was chosen because of its advantages. Bailey (1987) offers the advantages of using this data collection method as follows: Firstly, it allows the researcher access to information, which the researcher may not have had physical access to. For example, information on people that died a long time ago. Secondly, it is well suited to study over a long period of time. For example, the researcher might realise that in the year 2004, fourteen years after Namibia's independence, the attitude of white Namibians has changed, and if interested, might study the trends of these changes over the period 1965 to 2005. In this situation, the researcher cannot go back in time to Namibian whites and observe their behaviour in 1965 because it does not exist anymore, but will rely heavily on what is written. Thirdly, document study can often use larger samples. Larger samples bring more reliability and credibility to the results of the subject being investigated. This is extremely important because in all aspects, the credibility of a document used for analysis is what matters most. Additionally, document study has relatively low costs for researchers. In most cases, documents are gathered together in one place such as a library or archives and thereby travel costs are minimized. Moreover, documents provide a source of information, which is permanent that can be checked by others in case of doubt. Finally, most documents are often of high quality since skilled people prepare them, unlike, for example, poorly written responses to a mailed questionnaire.

Bailey (1987) also explains the disadvantages of document analysis as follows: in the first place, many documents, especially primary documents such as letters, suicide notes and autobiographies, in most cases were not originally written for research purposes. Such documents tend to be biased and their credibility may be questioned. In the second place, document analysis is criticized for selective survival. In most cases, primary

documents about famous people and assumed important events are preserved in libraries, archives or elsewhere and survive longer than, for example, letters and suicide notes left by ordinary people. In the third place, documents such as personal letters and diaries often provide an incomplete account to the reader because he/she had no prior knowledge of the events discussed. These documents are often not written for research purposes and are not able to produce such information. Finally, in addition to being biased and providing an incomplete account of events, documents such as letters and diaries may be hard to obtain since they are personal and private.

Archival records such as service records showing the number of clients, aircrafts and maintenance organisations on the database of the DCA, organisational records such as organisational charts and budgets as well as records related to aircraft accidents and incidents at the Directorate of Civil Aviation were also accessed (Yin, 2003). These included archival documents on various audits done by the International Civil Aviation Organization on the Directorate of Civil Aviation that were studied and analysed. These documents were carefully evaluated against accuracy before using them. Furthermore, documentation such as minutes of meetings, general office reports, training reports, inter-office memos, and files containing various other materials relevant to the maintenance of the DCA were used (Bailey, 1987; Denscombe, 2007). Information in this particular case study was contained in various government documents and the researcher accessed most public service documents that needed to be studied and analysed.

Authentic and credible documents such as job interview schedules and questions that were used during the recruitment of employees at the Directorate of Civil Aviation were used (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Weighing the value of the documents used in this research, as well as considering the advantages and disadvantages of documents (see for example Bailey, 1987; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Denscombe, 2007; Yin, 2009), the researcher is of the opinion that the documents that were accessed at the Directorate of Civil aviation were complete, original and authentic, and therefore did not present any form of bias to the research. For example, even Commissions of Inquiry reports that negatively reported on the Directorate of Civil Aviation were still kept in their original forms. The

advantages offered by documents in this particular case were demonstrated by the following two factors. The first one was the availability of information on the past weak regulatory practices of the Directorate of Civil Aviation that led to the 1996 ICAO audit. The second was the availability of reliable information on the accidents and incidents that occurred in Namibian skies from 1992 to 2014. This was a fairly large sample and consequently brings more reliability and credibility to the results of the subject being investigated. Most importantly, the documents were of high quality since skilled and experienced people had prepared them.

3.5.2. Interviews

Interviews are a common occurrence in social life and they are one of the most widely used tools in gathering data. According to Bryman and Bell (2007) an interview is a situation where the researcher is asking the interviewee or respondent to answer a series of questions. In the context of the kind of research undertaken, an interview is a formal academic technique, which a researcher may use to solicit evidence or data from a knowledgeable person (Remenyi, 2013). Academic interviews are not the same as all other interviews such as interviews for identifying a most suitable candidate for a job. Academic interviews need more skill, which has to be learnt and improved with practice over a period of time. Therefore, the objective of an academic interview is to solicit information from a knowledgeable informant that will be used by the researcher to answer the research questions (Remenyi, 2013).

Interviews are also used for other purposes other than research. In addition to being used in selecting the best person for a job, they are also used by the police to investigate crime and other related occurrences. On a social front, interviews are used on our first dates when we want to know more about each other. In this case, they usually take an informal and casual approach. Therefore, it can be argued that interviews provide in-depth information about a particular research issue or question. It is for this reason that interviews are often described as a qualitative research method because they gather a broad range of information on the subject matter being investigated (Remenyi, 2013). All types of interviews have the common objective of getting information by the

interviewer from the interviewee. Because of their recognised ability to gather a broad range of information on the subject matter being investigated, interviews were chosen as a data collection technique for this study. However, there are several types of interviews, and the choice of a particular interview to be used depends on the type of information needed and its purpose.

3.5.2.1. Types of interviews: According to Bryman and Bell (2007), there are several types of interviews such as structured interviews; standard interviews; semi-structured interviews; unstructured interviews; intensive interviews; qualitative interviews; in-depth interviews; focused interviews; group interviews; oral history interviews and life history interviews. Interviews can be classified as “structured” or “unstructured” although some fall somewhere between the two. These are referred to as semi-structured interviews. The choice of a particular type of interview used in this research and reasons for such a choice are discussed later in this chapter. In the meantime, the different types of interviews as offered by literature are discussed below:

3.5.2.1.1. Structured Interviews: Bless and Higson-Smith (1995), as well as Bryman and Bell (2007) observes that in a structured interview, the wording of the questions and the order in which they are asked remains the same in every case. In this case the interviewer prepares a list of specific questions to be asked without deviation. The respondent also answers the questions in that order. Because of this, Haralambos and Heald (1987) argue that data from structured interviews are generally regarded as more reliable. Bryman and Bell (2007) who note that the structured interview is a prominent data collection strategy in both qualitative and quantitative research further develop this argument. Bryman and Bell (2007) further note that structured interviews, sometimes called standardised interviews, entail the administration of an interview schedule by the interviewer. The purpose is for all interviewees to be given exactly the same context of questioning. This means that each respondent receives exactly the same interview stimulus as any other.

According to several authors, the structured interview approach offers several advantages (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007; Haralambos & Heald,

1987; Remenyi, 2013). One of the strong points of structured interviews is that they are simple and less complex than unstructured interviews. Proponents of this approach also argue that structured interviews can be conducted by anyone with the ability to read and write (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007). All what is required is to read prepared questions and to be able to record the answers provided. They do not require complex training. In this way, structured interviews allow the researcher to use many field workers. The second advantage is that structured interviews are cheap to use because they do not require training and sophisticated skills on the part of the field worker. Proponents of this approach argue that because of its level of simplicity, interviewers need not be exposed to intensive training. In this way the cost of research using structured interviews is kept at a bare minimum. Third, structured interviews are flexible because they allow the researcher to make direct statistical comparison based on the information provided without manipulation of such information. This is possible because of the fact that the same questions are raised with all respondents. Answers to these questions become easy to plot statistically on a graph (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007).

However, despite the advantages cited above, several authors agree that structured interviews have their disadvantages too (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007). The first criticism against structured interviews is that they are rigid and not flexible. This is so because the interviewer has a set of prepared questions to ask the interviewee, which makes the process less flexible. The second criticism is that, this approach does not present an opportunity to generate more information. The fact that the interview should follow certain prescribed questions does not present the interviewer with an opportunity for follow up questions where one feels that clarity is needed. The third criticism is that, the interviewer does not share personal opinion to most questions and answers provided. This makes the interviewer a useless transmission belt without value- addition to the process. The fourth criticism is that, the results of structured interviews could be misleading because they represent a more formal atmosphere that could be characterised by fear on the part of the respondent. The cold atmosphere that may prevail during the session has the potential

of influencing the interviewee to be less open in the discussion. This situation may lead to the respondent not giving the required information (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007).

Despite the above-mentioned advantages associated with the structured interview approach, this study did not use the approach because of its rigidity and lack of flexibility to allow for in-depth follow up on questions. Furthermore, despite the claim of reliability of results from structured interviews by proponents of this approach, it could not be used in this study because the researcher believed that data supplied by one person without follow up questions may not be useful.

3.5.2.1.2. Un-structured Interviews: Unstructured interviews are more like an informal conversation. The interviewer has the freedom to phrase questions as one pleases and the respondent develops answers as one also pleases. Unstructured interviews are those that take the form of a discussion or conversation between the interviewer and the respondent. The interviewer may have a set of issues that merely serve as a guide but not a set of questions. The interviewer adds more questions according to the response received from the respondent. In this manner, it is possible that the interviewee directs the direction to be taken by the interview. It is for this reason that unstructured interviews require much more skilled persons to conduct them, who are familiar with the subject matter, and can handle more complex although far more exciting issues (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007).

The advantages of unstructured interviews as a data collection technique are as follows (Bailey, 1987; Denscombe, 2007; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995): First, they offer in-depth information. This is so because of the high level of interaction that freely takes place between the interviewer and the respondent. Structured interviews are concerned with finding meaning to issues and attempt to develop details about the issue during the interview process. Second, the researcher gains more valuable insight based on the depth of information gathered since the researcher can do follow up questions and the respondent can also seek for clarity where ambiguity exists. The emphasis here

is on acquiring deep knowledge about the subject matter and the authenticity of the information obtained. Third, unstructured interviews provide some flexibility. The fact that interviews involve direct personal contact with the participant who is asked questions, chances exist that the interviewer may re-phrase the question depending on the situation at that time to get an appropriate reply. Interviewees can probe for more specific answers and repeat the question when they feel that they are not satisfied with the type of answer received. Fourth, unstructured interviews tend to have a better response rate than structured ones. The interviewer in a situation could help the respondent where one seems to be stuck. This comes about in a form of a discussion. Finally, during an unstructured interview, the interviewer is also able to study the non-verbal behaviour of the respondents. Some people may have difficulties in expressing themselves if the interviewer is reading questions. This may look like an examination and therefore create tension and fear. Given the informal interaction involved in unstructured interviews, the body language and mood, which the respondent displays, will send a clear message to the interviewer (Bailey, 1982:174). Furthermore, unstructured interviews create an atmosphere of a shared territory of power between the interviewer and the interviewee and therefore create better participation. Unexpected information is also given, since the conversation is authentic and done in a relaxed mood.

The disadvantages of unstructured interviews are as follows (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007): Firstly, they require highly developed skills on the part of the field researcher. Unless well managed, unstructured interviews have the potential of yielding irrelevant data. Secondly, they are expensive to run. Structured interviews require a substantial amount of training and experience for the interviewer to be comfortable to handle. Finding qualified and experienced field researchers to do unstructured interviews may be impossible in developing communities. Thirdly, they are also time-consuming since they cannot be done in a hurry. This requires the interviewer to know how to introduce the subject before going into a substantive discussion. Often interviewees will not notice they have started with the actual interview depending on the skill level of the interviewer. This also applies to the closing session of the interview. In addition, unstructured interviews are criticized

for their level of reliability. Although there is a direct exchange between the interviewer and the respondent, it is possible that some error may occur as far as misunderstanding each other is concerned because of the level of flexibility that takes place during the discussions. In this way, the misunderstood information will be recorded as such without correction. Furthermore, Bailey, (1982:175) argues that a further disadvantage of unstructured interviews is that they do not afford the interviewee an opportunity to consult records or check with family members or other sources of information where doubt arises. Because of this, the respondent may give an incorrect answer for fear of being seen as stupid. Finally, unstructured interviews are criticised for the likelihood of their invasion of individual privacy. This is so because the interviewer has no guideline that regulates the interview. The interviewer is left with total discretion to decide what to ask and what not to ask. In this manner, the interviewer might ask questions that could violate the privacy of the interviewee unknowingly. Therefore, while unstructured interviews may be enjoyable, unskilled and tactless interviewers may upset the respondent by asking questions that are too personal.

3.5.2.1.3. Semi-structured Interviews: According to Bless and Higson-Smith, (1995) semi-structured interviews take some characteristics from both structured and unstructured interviews. Consequently, they have the potential of being perfected as the interviewer moves from one interview to another (Remenyi, 2013). Semi-structured interviews allow the researcher to explore and probe on issues and therefore provide fresh insight that the researcher may want to explore further (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Remenyi, 2013). Furthermore, by using semi-structured interviews, the researcher gradually progresses in relation to answering the research question (Thietart *et al.*, 2001). Semi-structured interviews, like structured interviews, also provide the same set of questions, but the interviewer is allowed to jump the order of questions if issues arise. The interviewer can also follow up on issues raised by the interviewee. In this manner, deviation from existing questions may introduce new issues that may be useful to the research process.

Since semi-structured interviews are a hybrid of the structured and unstructured interviews, several authors suggest that they also pick up advantages from both sides

(Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007). The first advantage is that they help to clarify concepts and problems. In this way semi-structured interviews allow for the establishment of a list of possible answers or solutions, which, in turn, facilitate the construction of multiple-choice questions. In this process, superfluous questions are eliminated and the interviewer is able to re-formulate questions that were ambiguous in the first case. The second advantage is that one may use field researchers, just like in the case of structured interviews. However, it is required that such field researchers should be very skilled. A third advantage is that semi-structured interviews allow for unexpected issues to arise during the process. The unexpected issues could enrich the research findings and outcome. Finally, unlike in the structured interview, semi-structured interviews allow more power for the interviewee. In this case, the interviewee is not placed in an awkward situation that represents fear. The interviewee feels proud and powerful to be interviewed as a source of information. This will allow interviewee to give more information (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007).

According to several authors, semi-structured interviews also have disadvantages (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007). First, the fact that semi-structured interviews are somewhat complicated and require the services of skilled field researchers is an obvious disadvantage. The availability of skilled field researchers to be used could present a problem in some communities and this could render the research unattainable. This is because semi-structured interviews require some level education and skill on the part of the interviewer in order to raise intelligent follow up questions. The second disadvantage is that even where unskilled researchers are available in the community, they still need to be trained. Training by its nature is expensive and time consuming. The third disadvantage is the reliability and effect of training given once off in an attempt to get things done quickly. Since training may be given as a one-off intervention, the level of its effect is not guaranteed and may negatively affect the research results. Since no repeated training may be offered, the field worker may end up as a semi-trained field researcher. The fourth disadvantage is the fact that semi-structured interviews afford the interviewee the opportunity to raise the unexpected during the interview. This has the potential of raising complex issues that

cannot be handled by less experienced interviewers. Unexpected issues raised by the interviewer as a result of deviations and follow-up questions require trained and experienced field researchers. It is also possible that the interviewee may try to outsmart the interviewer. Finally, since questions are already prepared but only allow some degree of flexibility, such structure prevents the interviewer from engaging in a free conversation with the interviewee. Limitations on the conversation also limit the information to be obtained during the interview (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007).

In this study, a semi-structured approach was taken to the interviews despite the disadvantages cited above. This approach was taken based on the advantages derived from semi-structured interviews as discussed above and its particular suitability to the case under investigation. In addition to the above-mentioned advantages of semi-structured interviews, the approach was chosen because it helps to clarify concepts and problems that could arise during the interview. Furthermore, the semi-structured interview approach was chosen because it allows the interviewer some flexibility to follow up on questions to obtain clarity. Such follow-up questions are necessary because they have the potential of raising the unexpected issues, which could enrich the research findings and outcome.

Since semi-structured interviews were preferred and chosen as a data collection technique, it is essential that a brief explanation is provided on how the researcher mitigated against some of its perceived disadvantages. One of the commonly cited challenges of semi-structured interviews is that they are complicated and require the services of skilled field researchers (Bailey, 1987; Haralambos, 1985; Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995; Bryman & Bell, 2007). This was mitigated by engaging the services from the University of Namibia (UNAM) of their top three, fourth-year Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) students as research assistants. These students helped with interviews of the non-management employees. The best three students were chosen after a thorough screening process and were also trained in the art of interviewing. Details of the procedures followed to prepare them adequately for the assignment are provided in the section entitled “The Interview Process” in this study. The fact that

semi-structured interviews allow the interviewee an opportunity to raise the unexpected during the interview has the potential of bringing up complex issues when handled by less experienced interviewers was mitigated against by making sure that the research assistants were knowledgeable on the subject matter. This was possible by making available the research proposal to the research assistants well in advance. The research was also discussed extensively between the researcher and the research assistants so that they were familiar with the background to the research, what was being investigated, and what was expected of them.

3.6. THE INTERVIEW PROCESS

Cassell (2004:11) defines the qualitative research interview as “an interview, whose purpose is to gather descriptions of the life-world of the interviewee with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena.” Because of ethical considerations, the researcher could not undertake interviews of the employees in non-management positions at the Directorate of Civil Aviation in person. The researcher was the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport from 1 April 2008 until 1 June 2012, under which the Directorate of Civil Aviation resorted administratively during the period under review. It was the considered opinion of the researcher that his personal participation in the interviews of non-management employees would have made them uncomfortable. Therefore, it became necessary to engage the services of the fourth-year University of Namibia Bachelor of Business Administration students as research assistants to help with the interviewing process of the non-management employees. A senior lecturer in the Department of Management Science at the University of Namibia was approached to select six of his best final year students from which three were selected of which the six had been taken through a screening process.

Interviews were held with the respondents at the Directorate of Civil Aviation headquarters in Windhoek (i.e. the interviewees’ workplace) in separate meeting rooms in order for the researcher to gain insights into the environment and context. While

research assistants interviewed non-management employees, the researcher interviewed those interviewees who were in management positions, in person. The researcher interviewed members of the management cadre because it was generally considered that given the level of their seniority, and their frequent interaction with the researcher when he was Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transports, the interview would allow the researcher to become theoretically sensitive with the data. According to Glaser (1978) theoretical sensitivity is the ability of the researcher to recognize what is important in data and give it a meaning. It helps the researcher formulate findings that are faithful to the reality of the phenomena under study (Glaser, 1978).

Remenyi (2013) deals extensively with the various stages of the interview: how to plan for interviews, arriving for and starting the interview, the interview itself, as well the manner in which interview sessions should be closed. In compliance with Remenyi's (2013) guidelines in terms of preparation for interviews, two full days of intensive training were provided to the research assistants. Furthermore, as preparation to their training on 16 and 17 March 2014, research assistants were given the research proposal in January 2014 in order to familiarise themselves with the content of the case been investigated. In addition, they were given interview questions in advance towards the end of February 2014. The training that took place on 16 and 17 March 2014 had three objectives. The first one was to prepare the research assistants to understand the nature and scope of the talent management programme that took place at the Directorate of Civil Aviation. This was done to enable them to understand the context into which the study was done so that they were able to build and engage in follow up questions with the interviewees. The second was to build their confidence to conduct the interviews, which included running three twenty-minute mock interviews sessions amongst themselves in order to perfect their art of interviewing. The third objective of the training was to make sure that they were familiar with the prepared research questions so that they were able to engage in follow up questions (Remenyi, 2013).

The researcher developed the semi-structured interview questions that were administered by the research assistants. Semi-structured interviews of about 45 minutes per session took place on 18 and 19 March 2014 in the boardroom of the headquarters

of the Directorate of Civil Aviation in Windhoek with the full assistance and cooperation of the director and her team. The Director of Civil Aviation arranged a schedule with appropriate time slots for various staff members to be interviewed. Semi-structured interviews were chosen because they allowed the researcher to explore and probe issues and thereby provide fresh insights that the researcher may want to explore further (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Remenyi, 2013). By using semi-structured interviews, the researcher's target was to gradually progress towards finding answers to the research question (Thietart *et al.*, 2001). Given the exploratory nature of the study, it became necessary to conduct face-to-face, in-depth-interviews with the target group members based on an interview guide question sheet that was prepared by the researcher (Patton, 2002). Interviews were digitally audio-recorded with the permission of the interviewee, transcribed verbatim by a professional transcriptionist and reviewed for accuracy by the researcher (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Before the interview sessions, interviewers introduced themselves, explained the reasons for the interviews, offered the interviewees an opportunity to ask questions and also informed them of their right to withdraw from the interviews at any time should they so wish, and obtained their permission to continue with the interview by asking interviewees to sign a consent form (Remenyi, 2013).

3.7. POPULATION AND SAMPLE

A purposive sampling technique was used in this case study. According to Koerber and McMichael (2008) as well as Teddlie and Yu (2007), there are four sampling procedures in social and behavioural sciences, namely; probability sampling, convenience sampling, mixed methods sampling and purposive sampling. The first three are briefly discussed, while a detailed discussion is provided for purposive sampling techniques. They are discussed briefly as follows:

Probability sampling technique involves “selecting a relatively large number of units from a population, or from specific subgroups (strata) of a population, in a random manner where the probability of inclusion for every member of the population is determinable” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003: 713). It is a technique that is primarily used

in quantitatively oriented studies and traditionally takes the form of random sampling, stratified sampling, cluster sampling or sampling using multiple probability techniques (Teddlie & Yu, 2007).

According to Teddlie and Yu (2007:78), convenience sampling “involves drawing samples that are both easily accessible and willing to participate in a study.” Two types of convenience samples are captive samples and volunteer samples.

Mixed methods sampling involves the selection of units or cases for a research study using both probability sampling (to increase external validity) and purposive sampling strategies (to increase transferability) (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Mixed methods sampling uses techniques such as basic mixed methods sampling, sequential mixed methods sampling, concurrent mixed methods sampling, multilevel mixed methods sampling, and combination of mixed methods sampling strategies (Teddlie & Yu, 2007).

The fourth sampling technique is called purposive sampling. According to Koerber and McMichael (2008) also Teddlie and Yu, (2007), purposive sampling techniques are primarily used in qualitative studies and may be defined as selecting units (e.g., individuals, groups of individuals, institutions) based on specific purposes associated with answering a research study’s questions. Maxwell (1998:87) further defined purposive sampling as a type of sampling in which, “particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices”. Purposive sampling technique is sometimes referred to as nonprobability sampling or purposeful sampling or qualitative sampling (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Therefore, unlike the other sampling techniques mentioned above, the purposive sampling technique and its various forms are discussed in detail because it has been chosen as a sampling method for this study.

According to Tashakkori & Teddlie (2003), the following are the various types of purposive sampling:

Sampling to Achieve Representativeness or Comparability: These techniques are used when the researcher wants to (a) select a purposive sample that represents a broader group of cases as closely as possible or (b) set up comparisons among different types of cases.

Sampling Special or Unique Cases: This technique is used when the individual case itself, or a specific group of cases, is a major focus of the investigation (rather than an issue).

Sequential Sampling: Uses the gradual selection principle of sampling when (a) the goal of the research project is the generation of theory (or broadly defined themes) or (b) the sample evolves of its own accord as data are being collected.

Sampling Using Multiple Purposive Techniques: Involves the use of multiple qualitative techniques in the same study.

The target population in this case was the Directorate of Civil Aviation. The Directorate of Civil Aviation employed close to 100 employees responsible for approximately 1000 airplanes and other civil aviation facilities at the time of the research between 2008 and 2014 (Simana, 2013). A Director reporting to the minister responsible for Transport in terms of the civil aviation law headed the Directorate of Civil Aviation. Purposeful sampling was used to identify specific groups of people that were interviewed. As a result of this approach, the researcher, with the assistance of the Director of Civil Aviation, looked for employees who possessed knowledge and experience of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (Bernard, 2002; Coyne, 1997; Spradley, 1979). In addition to their knowledge, employees were chosen on the basis of their availability and willingness to participate in the interviews. Furthermore, they were also chosen on the basis of what the researcher considered as their ability to communicate their experiences and opinions freely and also based on the fact that they could articulate, or express themselves well (Koerber & McMichael, 2008; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). In addition to the above requirements, the researcher also considered employees for interviews on the basis of representation on gender and race. Finally, purposive sampling was chosen because in qualitative research interviews, statistical representation is not a requirement since the objective is to understand the phenomena being investigated.

Managers and employees who were interviewed at the DCA were chosen in consultation with the Director of Civil Aviation and were believed to have in-depth knowledge of the DCA and the talent management programme in particular (Koerber & McMichael, 2008; Teddlie & Yu, 2007). The following people were selected for interviews: Firstly,

the Director of Civil Aviation was interviewed, given her integral role and responsibility in the DCA in terms of law, as well for her knowledge on the DCA and the talent management programme in particular. Secondly, five other managers were selected for interviews because of their knowledge of the DCA and their involvement in one or more aspects of the talent management programme. Of these six managers who were interviewed by the researcher, three were appointed at the Directorate of Civil Aviation before the start of the talent management programme in 2008 while the other three were appointed after the programme had started in 2008. The three research assistants who were hired for this purpose also interviewed thirteen other employees. Of these thirteen employees, four were appointed at the Directorate of Civil Aviation before the start of the talent management programme in 2008 while the other nine were appointed after the programme had started in 2008. The questions that were administered to all respondents are attached as annexures.

3.8. DATA ANALYSIS METHOD

This is a qualitative case study that followed a deductive approach. The data analysis method that was used in the study is Content Analysis, which has its origin in analysing bias in newspaper articles and for counting things in print (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Elo, *et al.*, 2014). There are several definitions of Content Analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Cole, 1988; Elo *et al.*, 2014; Kondrachi, Wellman & Amundson, 2002; Kyngas & Elo, 2007). However, Kondrachi *et al.*, (2002:224) define Content Analysis as a set of qualitative and quantitative methods for collecting and analysing data from verbal, print or electronic communication to build support for an argument. Content Analysis is process for systematically analysing messages in any type of communication that is also used to develop objective inferences about a subject of interest (Kondrachi, *et al.*, 2002; White & Marsh, 2006). Analysis here means extracting something systematically from qualitative or quantitative material and creating evidence about the content in order to build or support an argument that will persuade an intelligent reader (Spiggle, 1994). For the purpose of this discussion, the above definition has been chosen as a working one because it addresses the two types of Content Analysis of quantitative and qualitative approaches. It should be noted that sometimes it is not possible to separate the two

approaches. A study that starts with a qualitative type of content analysis could end up as a quantitative one because of its tendency to rely on counting of the repeated words or ideas to determine the theme.

Content Analysis was chosen for two reasons. The first one is because the study collected data using archives, documents and interviews and it is believed that Content Analysis is suited for interpretation of data that was collected through such techniques (Elo, *et al.*, 2014; Spiggle, 1994). Second, it is that content analysis attempts to make sense of or interpret phenomena being investigated in terms of meaning that people bring to the researcher (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000).

Content Analysis recognizes the fact that a coding process is required to organize the contents of a particular communication according to a classification scheme. By its very nature, Content Analysis allows for easy identification and indexing of content relevant to the research question. It is characterized by the fact that the components in the content of a communication to be analyzed could be in the form of words, phrases, theories, topics or concepts (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Kondrachi, *et al.*, 2002). These content components are the ones that could be subjected to either quantitative or qualitative analysis or both. When using quantitative analysis, message elements that use the same words, concepts or ideas repeatedly in the communication are counted to determine explicit themes and emphasis on certain topics. A repeating idea in any such communication becomes a theme or topic (Elo *et al.*, 2014).

On the other hand, in qualitative analysis, one examines latent or inferred meaning of the communication under study, which may lead to the development of constructs or theories (Kondrachi, *et al.*, 2002). The notion of inference is important in qualitative content analysis because the researcher uses the rules of inference to move from the text to the answers to the research questions (White & Marsh, 2006). The constructs that are developed by inferred meaning in a communication that is used for analysis purposes may be derived from existing theories or practices; the experience or knowledge of experts; and previous research (White & Marsh, 2006). For this reason, qualitative content analysis is theory driven (Elo, *et al.*, 2014; Spiggle, 1994). This means that the existing theory determines what the researcher looks for. It is used particularly in

qualitative data that was collected in the form of interview transcripts from research participants (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In data collected from interviews, qualitative content analysis has the capacity to portray the thematic content of the interview transcripts by identifying common themes in the texts provided for analysis. The researcher groups and distils from the texts a list of common themes in order to give expression to the communality of voices across participants (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Elo & Kyngas, 2007). In this manner, qualitative content analysis focuses on creating a picture of a given phenomenon that is always embedded within a particular context (White & Marsh, 2006).

Analysis using qualitative content analysis is integrated into coding. The emphasis in qualitative content analysis is always on answering the research questions but also considering any new questions or themes that emerge during the coding (White & Marsh, 2006). This will result in giving a complete picture of the phenomenon being studied. The goal is to depict the “big picture” of a given subject, displaying conceptual depth through thoughtful arrangement of a wealth of detailed observations (White & Marsh, 2006). In content analysis procedures and rules for data analysis are specified. These standard rules and procedures of qualitative content analysis includes how big a chunk of data is analysed at a time either line by line, a sentence, a phrase, or a paragraph (Spiggle, 1994). While taking the above-mentioned into consideration, the study used Yin’s (2009) data analysis method typically associated with case study. Yin (2009) placed his emphasis more on pattern matching techniques for data analysis using content analysis. This particular technique focuses on the chain of evidence whose results are used in the comparison of predicted (theoretical) patterns with observed (empirical) patterns (Yin, 2009).

3.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical considerations were taken into account at all times during the research. Particularly since the researcher was the Permanent Secretary for the Ministry of Works and Transport under which the DCA resorted, all necessary efforts were made to

conduct this research in an ethical manner. In this regard, the issue of academic research inside the organisation was adequately dealt with in this study. Previous researchers had warned against researchers conducting investigations in the organisations where they are employed because of the fear of several problems that could be encountered as a result of that (Morse, 1998). This line of thinking argued that the researcher is already immersed in the organisation and has built up knowledge of the organisation from being an actor in the processes being studied. Therefore, the study took the approach using the position of the researcher to the advantage of the research that was conducted. This approach was followed taking into account the fact that academic research is primarily focused on theory development and may or may not be concerned about actions or practice in an organisation. In this regard, the following four issues were considered during the research because the researcher was an insider in the Ministry of Works and Transport (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007):

Access: Although there are arguments presented against the practice of inside researcher, there are also advantages associated with being a fulltime employee in one's organisation. In this case the researcher was a Permanent Secretary, which was one of the top three positions of the Ministry of Works and Transport. Obtaining permission to access all forms of information of the organisation was made easy as an insider. A letter was written by the researcher to the Secretary to Cabinet who was also the Head of the Civil Service of the Government of the Republic of Namibia in 2008 to request for permission to conduct research, which was granted. At the time of conducting interviews in the Ministry of Works and Transport in 2013, another request to obtain approval was made to the Permanent Secretary of the ministry at the time and approval was granted (Appendix 1). Therefore, the position of the researcher as an insider of the ministry helped to appreciate the organisational experience, which enhanced the data collection process of the study (Alvesson, 2003).

Pre-understanding: Civil Aviation industry is a complicated to understand particularly for people who are not trained as such of which the researcher was one. However, being an insider of the organisation that was researched helped in the pre-understanding of several issues. In this case pre-understanding according to Gummesson (2000) refers to such things as people's knowledge, insights and experience before they engage in a

research programme. The knowledge, insights, and experience of the inside researcher in this case did not only apply to theoretical understanding of ministry's dynamics but also to the lived experience of the researchers' organisation while employed there. The position of being an insider, gave the researcher an opportunity to acquire a first-hand understanding of the issue that was investigated instead of relying on a reconstituted understanding (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007).

Role duality: When the researcher engages in investigating own organisation, there is a need to balance between their role and members of the organisation and that of the researcher. Despite the careful balance, the insider researcher is likely to encounter role conflict and find himself/herself caught between loyalty tugs, behavioural claims, and identification dilemmas of the organisation (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007). Since the epistemological approach taken by the researcher to this study was the one of a close interactive relationship between the researcher and the research participants, the researcher had to manage his dual role very careful. In terms of accessing documents at the ministry, the researcher requested for information through the Director of Civil Aviation who made an assessment of the nature of information requested before it was handed over. In terms of interviews of several respondents at the ministry and the DCA, the researcher appointed research assistants that were trained to conduct interviews as explained below. This approach was taken to avoid a situation where respondents would have felt intimidated because of their relationship with the researcher.

Managing organisational conflict: The issue of conducting research in one's own organization is a difficult one and might be seen as political at times. So there is a need for the researcher to prepare adequately in order to work the political system. This could involve balancing the organisation's formal justification of what it wants in the project with the researcher's own tacit personal justification for political activity (Brannick & Coghlan, 2007). Fortunately, there was no organisational conflict that arose in this particular research. This claim is made because the organisation had experienced several non-compliance issues with the International Civil Aviation Organisation in the past and was keen to obtain an objective and independent view on how it could solve its in house problems. Therefore, the expectations of the ministry from the research were in line with the research objectives.

Given these ethical considerations, and given the manner in which this research was to be carried out, including the processing of the evidence, as well as the way in which the findings were to be used, a letter granting authority to conduct this study was obtained from the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport (Annex A). In further compliance with ethical requirements, another letter granting permission to conduct interviews to the staff members at the DCA was requested and obtained by the researcher from the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport (Annex B). At the beginning of each interview session, each interviewer greeted and introduced herself by name and further indicated that they were fourth year student at the University of Namibia helping the researcher to collect data for his PhD studies (Remenyi, 2013). In their introductory remarks, the research assistants also explained that the researcher was a PhD candidate at Rhodes University under the supervision of Professor Noel Pearse who was interested in investigating the talent management programme at the Directorate of Civil Aviation that was taking place in collaboration with ICAO since 2008. The research assistants further explained to interviewees that the researcher could not undertake some interviews personally, particularly those of persons in non-management capacities for ethical reasons. They explained that the researcher was previously the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport, under which their Directorate of Civil Aviation resorted, during the period under review. Therefore, the participation of the researcher in the interviews would have made junior staff members uncomfortable (Remenyi, 2013).

The research assistants also explained that the purpose of the interview was to get the opinion, views, beliefs, knowledge and experiences of the interviewees on the talent management programme that took place at the Directorate of Civil Aviation between 2008 and 2014.

During the introductory remarks by the research assistants, interviewees were assured that the information obtained during the interview was used strictly for academic purposes and their identity remained anonymous. As part of their introductory remarks, the research assistants informed the interviewees that the necessary permission to conduct the interviews was obtained from both the Permanent Secretary of Works and

Transport. The research assistants allowed the interviewees to see and study the authenticity of the letter of approval from the Permanent Secretary of Works and Transport.

Interviewees were also informed that the interviews were voluntary and therefore they had the right to withdraw from the interview at any time for any reason. They were also assured that the data obtained would be kept in a secure place but would be destroyed after the period prescribed by the university rules and regulations. Furthermore, permission to digitally audio records the interviews for the purposes of capturing their responses accurately was requested and granted at all interview sessions. After a thorough explanation of these ethical considerations to the interviewees, they were asked if they had any questions to ask before they started with the substantive interview session. After interviewees had confirmed that they understood all that was explained, they were requested to sign a consent form before continuing with the interviews, which lasted for not more than forty-five minutes per session (Remenyi, 2013).

During the interviews, the researcher as well as the research assistants endeavored at all times not to cause harm to both non-participants and participants in the research. Therefore, efforts were made to protect individuals involved in the study against any form of harm or manipulation or malpractice and ethical principles of informed consent and confidentiality were adhered to at all times.

3.10. RESEARCH QUALITY ISSUES

It is important that the results of the research results should be trustworthy. Numerous frameworks have been developed to evaluate the rigor and assess the trustworthiness of qualitative data (Guba, 1981; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). According to Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Riege (2003), *trustworthiness* refers to the authenticity and consistency of the processes and procedures that were followed during an enquiry to such an extent that they would be able to produce similar results in a similar setting. Therefore, the purpose of trustworthiness of the research findings is to support the argument that the inquiry's findings are "worth paying attention to" (Elo *et al.*, 2014; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Several scholars highlight four tests for establishing quality in qualitative research design as conformability, credibility, transferability and dependability (Deves, 1999; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Elo, *et al.*, 2014; Hirschman, 1986; Johnson, 1997; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Riege, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saunders, 1999; Robson, 1993). They are discussed as follows:

Confirmability: Confirmability checks whether the interpretation of data was done in a “logical and unprejudiced manner and questions if the findings are not biased” (Riege, 2003: 81). In order to comply with the requirement of conformability the researcher has provided detailed research design and explained the methods and procedures used during research. Furthermore, the researcher used multiple sources of data such as archives, documents and interviews that could be accessed by anyone. Documentation used during the research, including the electronic recordings of interviews, the transcribed interviews and other ICAO documents were kept safe (Elo, *et al.*, 2014; Riege, 2003).

Credibility: Credibility involves approval of research by interviewees or peers and reflects on whether the research was undertaken in a credible manner (Elo *et al.*, 2014; Riege, 2003). In striving towards archiving credibility, the researcher complied with the principle of member checks. The recordings of the interviews were transcribed and returned to each interviewee for verification and confirmation to the effect that the scripts indeed reflected their opinions.

Transferability: Transferability refers to the extent to which the findings can be generalised beyond the study itself or the extent to which the findings could be transferred to another setting (Elo *et al.*, 2014; Riege, 2003). The research also attempts to highlight the relationships between the theory and the research and in this way also respond to this aspect (Riege, 2003). Furthermore, the research used “rich and meaningful” and “thick” descriptions that led to internal coherence of the findings, which resulted in systematic relationship of concepts (Elo *et al.*, 2014; Riege, 2003). It is assumed that the descriptions may compare with the reader’s experience making the research findings transferrable to any similar settings (Elo *et al.*, 2014; Riege, 2003).

Dependability: According to Elo *et al.*, (2014:2) dependability refers to the extent to which the researcher would produce similar or consistent findings if carried out as described, including taking into account any factors that might have affected the research results. In order to comply with the requirement of dependability, the researcher described the process that was followed in this research in detail above. It should be noted that the research assistants that were utilised to interview various respondents were exposed to the same training and adhered to the same guidelines throughout the study. The question of whether consistent findings were obtained using similar procedures will be dealt with in the subsequent chapters.

3.11. CONCLUSION

To conclude the discussion of this chapter, it is important to note that the research onion of Saunders, (2007; 2009), as modified by the researcher to suit this particular study, guided the layout of this chapter. The researcher modified the research onion referring to the outside layer as “research method/approaches” instead of “paradigm” as traditionally referred to by Saunders. As a result of this modification, the presentation and sequencing of issues starts with research approach in this study. The chapter dealt with the fact that this study followed a deductive qualitative research methods taking case study as a research strategy. The chapter explains the fact that a deductive research approach was followed because of existing theories of talent management informed the type of interview questions that were asked at the time of data collection (Yin, 2009).

The chapter also discussed critical realism as a research paradigm of the study. Critical realism was found as an appropriate research paradigm for the study because it sees reality as existing independently of the mind and that what a researcher’s senses show her or him is the truth, although the researcher is influenced by world-views and their own experiences (Saunders *et al.*, 2009). The ontological as well as the epistemological assumptions of the study were discussed putting the study into context (Bryman & Bell, 2007; McGregor & Murnane, 2010).

Furthermore, the chapter explained qualitative case study that was chosen as the research strategy of the study. The chapter explains that the case study was chosen as a research strategy because it has the capability of providing meaning in context to a specific object that was studied. It also shows an in-depth and a broad understanding of the issue being investigated (Remenyi, Money, Price & Bannister, 2002). Although the substantial amount of time needed to do case study research could be seen as a major disadvantage for the method, conducting case study research over the defined period of 2008 to 2014 at the Directorate of Civil Aviation enabled the researcher to explore important empirical insights of the object was investigated (Frazer, Weaven, Giddings & Grace, 2012).

The data collection methods such as archives, documents and interviews were discussed in detail on how they aided the research to answer its research question and achieve its objectives. The advantages and disadvantages of the data collections used in the study were also discussed and the researcher explained how the research mitigated against some of the disadvantages of the chosen research methods as well as data techniques.

The process that was followed when interviews were conducted with several respondents was discussed. The discussion further highlighted the fact that purposeful sampling was used to identify specific groups of people that were interviewed at the DCA. The chapter also discussed content analysis (CA) as a data analysis method that was used during the study. It pointed out the fact that CA has its origin in analysing newspaper articles for bias and counting things in print (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Elo, *et al.*, 2014). The reasons for choosing content analysis over other data analysis methods were also advanced.

Since the researcher was the Permanent Secretary at the Ministry of Works and Transport, under which the DCA resorted at the time of the study, issues of inside research from both an ethical and quality perspectives were discussed in this chapter. In dealing with quality research issues, the chapter discussed the element of trustworthiness, which according to Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Riege (2003), refers to the authenticity and consistency of the processes and procedures that were followed

during an enquiry to such an extent that they would be able to produce similar results in a similar setting. The four important tests for establishing quality in qualitative research design as conformability, credibility, transferability and dependability were also discussed (Deves, 1999; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Elo, *et al.*, 2014; Hirschman, 1986; Johnson, 1997; Lincoln & Guba; 1985; Riege, 2003; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saunders, 1999; Robson, 1993).

The next is the first chapter of eight that deals with several of the findings of the study. Chapter 4 in particular addresses how the DCA dealt with the corrective action plan (CAP), a plan of action that was signed between them and the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO). The chapter answers one of the research sub questions that required the study to describe how the talent management programme (TMP) was used to implement the CAP at the DCA.

CHAPTER 4

THE DIRECTORATE OF CIVIL AVIATION IN NAMIBIA AND ITS TALENT MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

4.1. INTRODUCTION

This is the first chapter that presents the findings of the study on talent management at the DCA of Namibia. The chapter sets the context to the study and describes the nature and the activities of the talent management programme (TMP) that was used to implement the corrective action plan (CAP) at the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in Namibia. In order to do so, the chapter gives a historical background of the Directorate of Civil Aviation of Namibia and the challenges that were associated with operations that led to the introduction of the talent management programme. Since the chapter is part of the research findings, from the perspective of talent management in a diverse environment, it is important to remember that the aim of the research was to analyse the corrective action plan of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA), as a process of securing talent for strategic positions in aviation safety.

In accordance with the Memorandum of Understanding signed between the Namibian Government represented by the DCA and the International Civil Aviation organisation (ICAO), the DCA submitted a corrective action plan on 9 November 2006 and an update to the action plan on 6 March 2007. The action plan submitted was reviewed by the Safety Oversight Audit (SOA) section of the ICAO and was found to be able to fully address most of the findings and recommendations contained in the 2004 report once implemented. However, there were still some shortcomings in Critical Elements (CE) 4 to 8. With the above-mentioned in mind, the chapter gives the background information on the role and functions of the Directorate of Civil Aviation, as well as the challenges the Directorate of Civil Aviation faced before 2008. The chapter also provides details of the 2006 ICAO audit findings on the DCA as part of the problems that the research seeks to address. It also gives further information on how the talent management programme was introduced and implemented at the DCA in order to mitigate against

some of the shortcomings that were identified during the 2006 ICAO audit. From this point of view, it is important to explain how the DCA actually went about in implementing the corrective action plan before further data analysis and research findings chapters are presented.

4.2. BACKGROUND OF THE DIRECTORATE OF CIVIL AVIATION (DCA)

The Republic of Namibia is one of the ICAO contracting member state and is a signatory to the Chicago Convention of 1944. The Republic of Namibia acceded to the Convention on International Civil Aviation on the 30th April 1991 and it became effective on the 30th May 1991. Therefore, Namibia as a contracting member state has an obligation to adopt the international Standards and Recommended Practices (SARP) as contained in the various Annexes to the Chicago Convention. The Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) is a government organisation in Namibia responsible for regulating the Aviation Industry in terms of the Aviation Act 74 of 1964 and the Aviation Amendment Act 10 of 1991. In terms of these pieces of enabling legislation, the Directorate of Civil Aviation of the Republic of Namibia is responsible for several regulatory functions. Amongst them are the following:

- Certification of Namibian commercial air transport operators,
- Registration and certification of the airworthiness of all aircraft registered in the Republic of Namibia;
- Examination of applicants for licences as pilots, flight engineers, aircraft maintenance engineers and air traffic controllers as well as for ratings associated with each such license, and for the issuance of such licences;
- Inspecting, auditing and approving aviation training organisations in the country;
- Overseeing the practices and procedures of aircraft maintenance organisations;
- Overseeing the practices and procedures of commercial air carriers;
- Approving the operations manuals of aircraft maintenance organisations and commercial air carriers in order to determine their initial and continuing fitness;
- Approving all other aviation related activities and organisations in the country.

The enabling legislation also makes the Directorates of Civil Aviation responsible for the following:

- Licencing of aerodromes and airports in the country;
- Aviation safety and security as a regulatory authority;
- The provision, maintenance and development of air navigation services and facilities, such as air traffic control and navigational aids; and
- Operating Government aerodromes.

Taking the above-mentioned into account, it can be said that the major responsibility of the Directorate of Civil Aviation is ensuring strict compliance with aviation security and exercising aviation safety oversight. However, since the study is about aviation safety and not about aviation security, particular attention will be given to the former. In this connection, it is important to indicate from the onset that aviation safety refers to the provision and maintenance of a safe operating environment for local as well as foreign aircraft operating into and out of aerodromes and in airspace for which the Government of the Republic of Namibia is responsible. Figure 2 below is the organogram depicting the structure of aviation safety within the DCA:

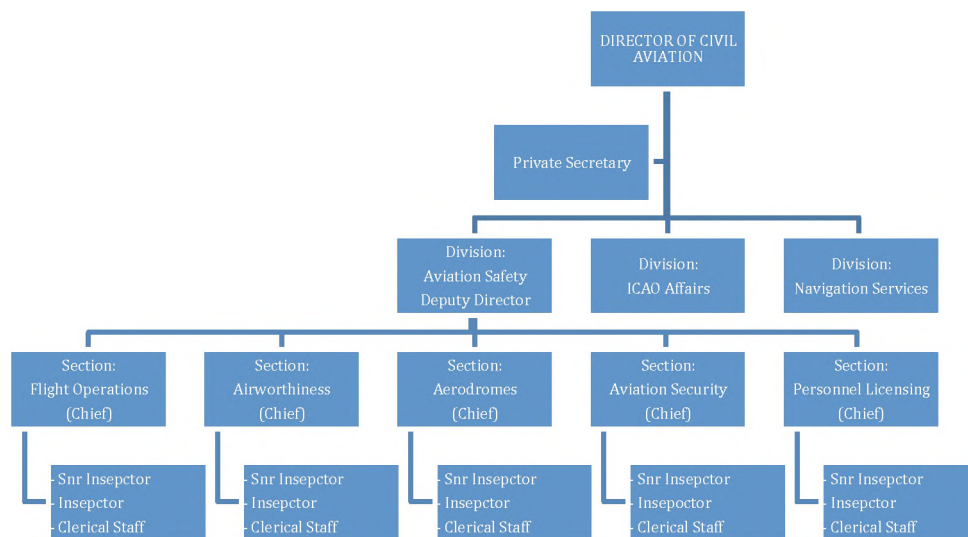


Figure 2: Organogram of the Division Aviation Safety at the DCA of Namibia (Source: DCA, 2013)

At the time of the research, Namibia did not have an autonomous civil aviation authority operating independently as is the case in most countries and as recommended by the ICAO. The authority that regulated the civil aviation industry in Namibia was the Directorate of Civil Aviation. The Directorate of Civil Aviation was one of several Directorates under the Department of Transport in the Ministry of Works and Transport. It was funded from state revenue through the Ministry of Works and Transport with the Permanent Secretary as the Accounting Officer. All staff members at the Directorate of Civil Aviation were appointed by the Prime Minister or the person to whom the functions are delegated in terms of section 5 (1) of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995, through the normal public service procedures that required the recommendation of the Public Service Commission (PSC). As a result of being a government institution, the salaries and conditions of employment for staff members at the DCA were the same as those in the entire public service of Namibia.

4.3. BACKGROUND INFORMATION TO THE TALENT MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

The DCA was found to be wanting in the effective implementation of SARPs in an audit conducted by ICAO from 5-25 March 2006. In order to address Civil Aviation System deficiencies, the Ministry of Works and Transport as the custodian Ministry responsible for transport matters in Namibia, including air transport, approached Cabinet to seek and obtain approval to appoint International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) Experts to assist the country for a defined period of time. This resulted in the recruitment and appointment of a team of experts from ICAO-Technical Cooperation Bureau. Project NAMDCA 08/801 was put into effect and tasked with undertaking various advisory duties and responsibilities in the following specialty areas: Flight Operation, Airworthiness; Personnel Licencing; Aerodromes; Air Law and Aviation Security.

This study analyses this corrective action plan of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in Namibia focusing on those aspects that involved securing talent for the occupational class of aviation safety. It should be noted that until recently, the ICAO

dealt with aviation safety and security aspects as one discipline. Although there is a fundamental difference between the two areas, they were treated as one discipline because they both seek to address the issues of safety in aviation. Therefore, this study is about aviation safety and any reference to aviation safety would mean reference to aviation security as an aviation safety element. These jobs included the following: Flight Operations Inspectors (OPS), Airworthiness Inspectors (AIR), Personnel Licencing Inspectors (PEL), Aerodrome Certification Inspectors (AGA) and Aviation Security Inspectors (AVSEC).

The talent management programme consisted of activities that were aimed at making sure that the correction action-plan as agreed upon between the DCA and the ICAO was achieved. The programme included amongst others finalising the organisational structure that would respond to the mandate of the DCA, appointing of suitably qualified people to the DCA, training and developing of the people at the DCA in order meet the ICAO standards and recommended practices, as well as drafting of the new legislation and regulations on civil aviation.

Research by the ICAO on States has indicated that they are incapable of responding to their oversight responsibilities unless the Eight Critical Elements of a Safety Oversight System are in place. After Namibia had agreed to the corrective action plan with the ICAO, the primary purpose was to bring professionals and experts to assist the DCA to address its deficiencies that were identified during the audit. To address the corrective action plan, the first five Critical Elements (CE) such as the outdated law and regulations, lack of an organisation with a critical pool of qualified and experienced inspectors, and the required tools to perform certification and surveillance activities were to be in place. Many of the approvals and authorisations granted were to the industry lacked the required best practices and processes. The approvals were in addition granted and/or issued by inexperienced safety inspectors. This was a significant concern that resulted in an imbalanced regulatory system leaving industry mainly self-regulated. The above-mentioned issues and many others constituted the talent management programme. It also consisted of elements of managing certification and surveillance activities of the DCA, including providing training to national professionals

in order meet the ICAO standards and recommended practices, as well as drafting of the new legislation and regulations on civil aviation. The programme also included amongst others finalising the organisational structure that would respond to the mandate of the DCA, appointing of suitably qualified people to the DCA, training and developing of the people at the DCA.

As a result of the Cabinet approval, the ICAO Project Team comprising one Flight Operations Expert (OPS), one Airworthiness Expert (AIR), one Personnel Licencing Expert (PEL), one Aerodrome Certification Expert (AGA) and one Aviation Security Expert (AVSEC) were assigned to the Directorate of Civil Aviation of Namibia. The request to ICAO for technical assistance was made because the DCA recognised that it lacked the capability to meet its safety oversight obligations. The main responsibility of the team of experts from ICAO was to assist the DCA with the implementation of the corrective action plan (CAP). The team of ICAO experts was able to complete an assessment of the various technical areas of the DCA confirming shortfalls already identified in the ICAO USOAP report of 2006.

A state incurs enormous obligations and responsibilities when it permits international civil aviation activities within its airspace. To effectively fulfil these responsibilities its civil aviation system must be properly organised and staffed with qualified personnel capable of accomplishing the wide range of technical duties involved in safety oversight. To strike this effective balance between staffing the civil aviation authority with qualified personnel and maintaining a functioning civil aviation system over the years has proven to be extremely difficult for states all over the world. In order to assist states to address their systems holistically, the ICAO embraced a new comprehensive approach to assess its members' compliance to the Chicago Convention. Hence, the implementation of the Universal Safety Oversight Audit Programme (USOAP) and the Universal Safety Security Programmes (USAP), which evaluate states' compliance against Eight Critical Elements as discussed above.

4.4. CHALLENGES OF THE DCA BEFORE AND DURING THE IMPLEMENTATION PROCESS OF THE TALENT MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

This study had adopted the fourth emerging stream of talent management, focusing on the identification of those strategic positions in an organisation that had the potential to make a difference. This approach to talent management helped to explain the approach that the DCA used in creating key positions that were considered important for aviation safety. It should be understood that the DCA was part of the Public Service organisation at the time of the study. Therefore, in creating key positions as well as filling of such positions, normal public service procedures as prescribed by the Public Service Act 13 of 1995 as well as the Public Service Staff Rules were followed.

In terms of Section 5 (2) (a), (b), (c) and (d) of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995, the powers to establish; re-adjust and re-organise an organisation's components, including the determination of the number and the grading of posts on the establishment is vested in the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission. In terms of the same provisions, the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission also has the power to determine specific categories of employment in the Public Service, to attach designations to posts and ranks on different grading on the establishment as well as the re-grading thereof.

The PSC is the statutory body established in terms of the Public Service Commission Act 2 of 1990. This Act provides for the establishment of a Public Service Commission in accordance with Chapter 13 of the Namibian Constitution. The purpose of the PSC is to ensure adherence to Government policies, directives, regulations and ethical standards, as well as fairness and transparency within the Public Service. Concomitant to its advisory powers, the PSC makes recommendations with regard to personal and non-personal personnel matters. The key responsibilities of the Public Service Commission include the following:

- Dealing with grievances and disciplinary matters of public servants;
- Exercise the powers, functions and duties delegated by the President in respect of the employment, remuneration and other conditions of service in general of

- persons in the employment of councils, boards, institutions or other bodies;
- Advising the President and the Government on any matter in relation to:
 - The appointment of suitable persons to specified categories of employment in the public service with special regard to the balanced structuring thereof;
 - The exercise of adequate disciplinary control over such persons to assure the fair administration of personnel policy;
 - The employment, remuneration or other conditions of service of functionaries whose remuneration or allowances derive wholly or partially from money appropriated by law;
 - The identity, availability and suitability of persons to be appointed by the President to offices in terms of the Namibian Constitution or any other law; and
 - Finally, the Public Service Commission has the power of inquiry in terms of which the Commission may summon any person and call and administer an oath or accept affirmation from any person.

The procedures that were followed in the creation of key positions; recruiting and selecting of staff; retention of staff as well as training and developing staff at the DCA were Public Service in character. Against the background provided above, the procedure is discussed as follows:

4.4.1. Identification/creation of strategic positions at the DCA

The Public Service Staff Rules provided policy guidelines on how the DCA, just like any other government department, should have created their organisational structures that would take into account key aviation safety positions. The sole purpose of the policy guideline was to ensure the fair, equitable, effective, and efficient deployment of human resources across the business units, departments, directorates, divisions, subdivisions, sections, subsections and components departments and functional areas of offices, ministries and agencies. In doing so the provisions of the Labour Act 11 of 2007, the Public Service Act 13 of 1995, Public Service Commission Act 2 of 1990), and the State Finance Act 31 of 1991 were adhered to. The aim of the policy was to achieve individual offices, ministries and agencies' vision, mission and goals that in turn

contributed to the overall objectives of the National Development Plan.

Documents accessed showed that the process that led to the identification of key positions at the DCA was as follows: After the corrective action plan (CAP) was accepted by the DCA, the Department of Public Service Management (DPSM) in the office of the Prime Minister (OPM) was approached to revise and create an organisational structure that would meet the demands of the CAP. To give effect to this process, a small team was appointed comprising representatives from the Department Public Service Management in the Office of the Prime Minister, Human Resource Planning (HRPs) from the Ministry of Works and Transport and other staff members from various functional areas within the Directorate of Civil Aviation. The team worked together to restructure and redesign the organisational structure of the DCA.

The team worked towards the identification of key positions that were necessary for the delivery of the goals and objectives of the DCA. In this regard, it should be stated that the policy guidelines on the creation of organisational structures highlighted the importance of making sure that there was a direct relationship between fulfilling the mandate of the DCA as was articulated in its mission, expressed in its strategic plan, and cascaded into its management plan with the creation of the new organisation and establishment. After identifying key positions based on the value they create to the organisation, together with other positions, the team defined the purpose and functions of all relevant components of the proposed structure; the purpose and functions of key identified jobs including other jobs. The team further provided a summary of the existing and proposed establishment that also reflected vacancies.

The team also provided the statistics to determine the workload of each job. The statistics to determine the workload were measured in terms of the time it takes (in hours) to execute an activity over a given period (usually a year). This time was then divided by the number of hours available per person per year to determine the number of staff needed. The process also included giving an indication on the labour turnover based on the past experience; the identification of the availability of office accommodation and equipment; how the recruitment possibilities regarding vacant and

proposed posts was envisaged to be done; the volume of the backlog in the work; the reasons why the existing personnel were insufficient to handle the workload; the measures that had been taken to overcome the problem at hand; a full explanation of the requirements and implications as dictated by the circumstances and motivation whether the creation of such posts were of national interest.

In order to be considered by the Public Service Commission, the team was also expected to propose solutions to the problem regarding the structure that existed at that time. This included giving detailed explanations of the advantages and disadvantages of the proposed structure. Information regarding the financial implications of the proposed structure based on the average of the salary scale of each post, plus other benefits like bonuses, housing and transport allowances, government institution pension fund and Social Security contributions was also needed. While creating a new structure, the team was expected to adhere to the principle of compensating reductions. This principle required that for every new high position created, some positions on the lower levels should be abolished to compensate for the creation of the new one.

After going through the above-mentioned process, the proposed establishment of the DCA that made provision for key aviation safety positions was approved in terms of section 5 of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995 by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission.

4.4.2. Attraction, recruitment and selection practices at the DCA

The DCA was part of the Public Service at the time of the study. Therefore, the recruitment, selection and placement process that was followed at the DCA was the one typically followed within the public service of Namibia. The principal legislation that governed the recruitment and selection process in the Public service of Namibia was the Public Service Act No. 13 of 1995 and subsequently the Public service regulations and staff rules, together with other government directives issued by the Department of Public Service Management on employment guidelines from time to time. The rules

were issued in terms of Section 35 of the Public Service Act, 1995 (Act 13 of 1995) and were approved by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission, in terms of Section 5 of the Public Service Act. In terms of section 5 (1) the Act conferred the powers to appoint any person to, or the promotion, transfer or discharge of any staff member in or to or from, the Public Service to the Prime Minister on the recommendations of the Public Service Commission. The attraction, recruitment and selection practices at the DCA are discussed as follows:

4.4.2.1. Recruitment procedures: In line with the recruitment process of the greater Public Service of Namibia, the DCA embraced all actions and processes aimed at the filling of posts. The recruitment process at the DCA had two purposes. The first one was aimed at promoting the image of the DCA through the recruitment process that would create a climate conducive to improving the attractiveness of the DCA as employer. The second one was to satisfy the current and future human resources needed by recruiting persons to the DCA that would ensure it becomes a professional and dynamic organisation. Taking the above-mentioned factors into consideration, the recruitment process at the DCA was done by advertising posts within the Public Service as well as outside the Public Service through various media. This was done considering the unavailability of qualified professional staff members at the DCA as well as within the entire Public Service at that time. If recruitment outside of the Public Service was chosen, consideration was also made if such recruitment should be limited to within Namibia only, or extended to include applicants from outside of Namibia. However, recruitment outside Namibia was only considered on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission, after the local market was tested and found wanting in that particular job category. Recruitment outside Namibia could also be done either within the standard procedures or through a specially designed recruitment campaign.

Although the general approach to recruitment was by advertisement, the Public Service Staff Rule BII (PSSR BII) allowed for the requests for a deviation from any of its provisions to be submitted to the Public Service Commission for a decision. Based on this provision, the DCA had always approached the Public Service Commission requesting that they be allowed to headhunt in cases where normal advertisement did not yield results and negotiate for special improved salaries and other conditions of

service, within a defined limit. The request for headhunting and improved salaries and other benefits to attract the professional and technical staff was considered favorably. Based on this request, the DCA offered better and improved salaries and conditions of service to its professional and technical staff, in comparison to the rest of the Public Service.

The staff rules on recruitment that existed at that time required that adequate time and effort be allocated to each step of the recruitment process, in order to enhance transparency. It was also required of the Human Resources Practitioners that were championing the recruitment process to have a good understanding of the work to be performed, in order to ensure a well-designed selection process. This approach was necessary so that the applicants with the most appropriate attitude, knowledge and skills were recruited. In terms of section 18 of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995 and Public Service Staff Rule (PSSR) F/II there were certain values and standards, which the DCA was required to comply with during the process of recruitment. These included the following:

- The applicant should be a Namibian at all times. However, non-Namibians could be considered where market testing had found that no Namibians were available in that area;
- At all times, employment was to be based on merit and good character with positive testimonials from previous employers and no criminal record;
- The applicant should enjoy good health at the time of recruitment;
- There should be a clearly established category of employment and job designations, grading of post and scales of salary as well as the age, educational, language, training and experience requirements of the applicant; and
- The recruitment process complies with the provisions of the Affirmative Action (Employment) Act, 1998 (Act 29 of 1998) in order to achieve a better representation in the public service.

It was also an appointment requirement that the Public Service Commission first approve each position in the Public Service before such a position is advertised. The DCA, like all other Offices/Ministries/agencies within the Public Service, also had to

comply with these requirements. However, if an office/ministry/agency wished to advertise a post with a relaxation of the prescribed requirements, the Public Service Commission was first be approached (in each case) with full motivation to consider such relaxation of requirements. In each case the office/ministry/agency must indicate in its submission if there were any of its serving employees that would comply with the relaxed requirements to enable them to compete for such posts. Where legislation other than the Public Service Act 13 of 1995 prescribed any appointment requirements such as professional registration, specific educational qualifications, training, and experience, the Public Service Commission could not be approached for relaxation of these requirements as these fell outside the Public Service Commission's authority.

4.4.2.2. Advertisement of positions: In terms of the rules that existed at the time of the study, it was a standing arrangement that the Office of the Prime Minister was responsible for advertising posts, on behalf of respective Offices/Ministries/Agencies within and outside the Public Service according to the standards set by the Public Service Commission. This was done taking into account the fact that the Public Service Commission had the Constitutional responsibility to ensure a fair and transparent recruitment process that was manifested in the principle that recruitment must be inclusive of all Namibians who may qualify, rather than being exclusive.

In compliance with the rules of the Public Service, vacancies at the DCA were advertised within and outside the Public Service, as far as was possible. Because advertisement was centralized in the Office of the Prime Minister, all advertisements from various Offices/Ministries/Agencies were run at the beginning of each month with the closing date by which applications must be received by the end of the month (within four weeks). Advertisements in the media were placed on days of maximum circulation (usually Fridays) to achieve maximum exposure to all potential applicants. It was generally understood that a running time of less than 4 weeks was undesirable considering the geographical expanse of Namibia. The view was often expressed by members of the public through radio call-in programmes and other media platforms that advertisement period of less than 4 weeks may not afford persons outside the capital city sufficient time to react to the job advertisement. If a shorter advertisement period was needed, the Public Service Commission was to be approached with reasons

for approval of periods of less than 4 weeks. All applicants were to apply for a post using the prescribed application form that was submitted together with a Curriculum Vita stating qualifications, experience and skills.

In accordance with the principles of the Public Service Charter, candidates who did not comply with the advertised requirements were appropriately informed on receipt of their applications. Such applications were not considered at all for nominations to fill a post. Similarly, candidates who complied with the advertisement requirements were always informed that their applications have been received so that they are aware of being part of the shortlisting process. This element of the recruitment process was particularly important because it helped to maintain transparency and fairness. However, no further correspondence was allowed between the competing candidates and the DCA until such time when those who had been shortlisted were invited in writing to attend interviews.

4.4.2.3. Shortlisting of candidates: Candidates were then shortlisted according to an agreed upon set of shortlisting criteria. It was required that the shortlisting criteria should be transparent and defensible if questions were asked as to why certain applicants were considered while others were not. The purpose of shortlisting candidates for interviews was to reduce the pool of candidates for final selection. When shortlisting for interviews, it was also required that additional criteria are set specifically to reduce the number of candidates picked for final selection. The criteria used during the shortlisting process were additional to the advertised requirements and were simple, fair and easily defensible. The question of simplicity was important so that the shortlisting criteria could be easily understood by anybody in order to enhance the transparency of the process. For example, if the advertisement requirement was a Bachelor's degree plus five years of management experience, the shortlisting criteria could be a Bachelor's degree or more plus more than five years proven management experience in the particular field. This requirement is simple to understand and implement. In this regard, the team doing the shortlisting should be interested in looking at the details of each of the applicants' curriculum vitae to pick up their previous experiences that are related to this requirement.

4.4.2.4. Interviewing and selection of candidates: At this stage of the recruitment process, an interview panel consisting of experts in respective disciplines of the DCA was constituted and a date and venue for interviews was set while at the same time inviting the shortlisted candidates to the interviews, in writing. The aim of interviewing and selection was to reach a considered decision concerning the suitability of a candidate for a particular post. The primary purpose of interviews is to predict whether a candidate will meet the performance expectation of the job been offered (Ullah, 2010). Therefore, to over-emphasize one aspect of the recruitment process during the interview may not produce the desired results. For example, looking at qualifications alone may have resulted in highly qualified candidates being recruited but unable to do the work. It was a general understanding at the DCA to consider both the good qualifications and relevant experience of the candidate when the selection of a candidate was done during the interviews. It is advised that behavioural interview is more effective than 'trait interview' in a sense that the trait approach, permits stereotyping candidates based on first impression rather than predicating a candidate's future behavior based on his /her life history experiences (Green, 1991). It should be noted that the DCA used behavioural interviews in all cases.

4.4.2.5. Profile of an ideal candidate: The public service staff rules on recruitment require that the interviewing and selection panel should agree on the profile of the ideal candidate they are looking for. Arriving at such a decision could be assisted by relying on the already agreed upon shortlisting criteria. In this regard, the panel was expected to extract from the job specification and the job description the qualities and competencies such as skills, qualifications, and traits etc. that will be required of the person performing the job. For example, the committee may agree that based on the job specification and the job description, they would look for a candidate with the following characteristics: the ability to express ideas in both written and oral communications; ability to independently plan and organise own activities; ability to analyse problems and suggest solutions; an ability to deal with change; an ability to solve problems etc. Once these were agreed upon, the interview and selection process would start.

4.4.2.6. Interview questions: Once the profile of the ideal candidate was determined, the interviewing and selection committee developed the interview questions. Using the “ideal candidate profile” the interviewing and selection committee developed questions that would best enable them to ascertain whether the candidates being interviewed had the qualities and competencies based on extract from the job specification and the job description. Furthermore, during the interview, committee members were encouraged to establish the past behaviour of the applicant to predict future behaviour. The quality of information that was gathered during a job interview depended to a great extent on the techniques that were used in the questioning process. In this regard, it was not good enough to ask good questions. The questions, in addition to being good, must be asked in a manner that elicited a response that provides relevant and meaningful information about the candidate. Before interviews started, it was expected that the panelists get together to discuss the questions and the responses required from the candidates.

4.4.2.7. Score sheets: Computer literacy was one of the requirements to several safety related jobs at the DCA. Shortlisted candidates were expected to demonstrate their computer literacy at a separate session before the oral interviews took place. Once the interview questions were drawn up, a score sheet was developed directly from the questions and weights attached to the qualities identified. As a matter of practice, the scores could be adjusted depending on the weight of each quality. If the scores were equal for all the answers, guidelines provided that more questions be asked on the more important qualities. Alternatively, guidelines required that committee members asked an equal number of questions and added a higher score value to the more important qualities. This approach ensured that the scores reflected the qualities sought as well as their importance, allowing candidates to be selected on a “best score, first choice” basis. The computer literacy scores and those of the oral interviews were put together to arrive at the final score of each candidate that would determine suitability.

4.4.2.8. Nomination and recommendation of candidates: After the interview and selection panel has made their decision in terms of which top three candidates were considered the best in order of preference, the DCA was required to send their nominations in respect of applications to the Public Service Commission, with complete documentation. It was also required that the DCA makes a properly motivated

submission to the Public Service Commission pointing out why particular candidates are nominated and not the others. These motivations were based directly on the scores obtained during the interview. The practice has been to nominate three candidates in order of preference for filling posts in order to obviate delays if the services of the first nominated candidate for one reason or another were no longer available. The nominated candidate is recommended by the Public Service Commission and approved by the Prime Minister in terms of section 5 (1) of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995.

Although the general attraction, recruitment and selection procedures were followed, the DCA had to allow for certain entry requirements that were industry specific in all positions in aviation safety. Some of the entry requirements were of secondary education certificate. However, applicants with higher education such as a university degree were preferred. It was also a requirement that applicants should also hold or have a professional licence such as the commercial Pilots' License (CPL), Air Transport Pilot's License (ATPL) or Flight Engineer Licence (FEL). In terms of experience, it was required of the applicant to have a broad air transport background of five years or more and some flying experience as specified for the specific duties. The pilot's licence should have had at least 5,000 hours of flying time. Other attributes required that the Inspectors should possess a high degree of integrity, be impartial in carrying out their tasks, be tactful, have a good understanding of human nature and possess the ability to get along well with people and should be computer literate.

4.4.3. Succession management planning at the DCA

It was found that the DCA did not have an approved succession management plan because the policy of succession planning did not exist in the public service of Namibia at the time of the study. Since the DCA was still part of the public service organisation of Namibia at the time of the study, it could also not have such a policy in place. However, employers in Namibia at that time were expected to comply with the general provisions of the Affirmative Act (Employment), Act 29 of 1998. The Affirmative Act (Employment), Act 29 of 1998 made provision for understudies as another form of succession planning for employers in Namibia. However, this was difficult to apply in practice, particularly in the Public Service because of the requirements of the Public

Service Act 13 of 1995 supported by its Public Service Staff Rule (PSSR), chapter B, part 11 that dealt with recruitment. This particular Act as well as the staff rule required that all promotion positions should be advertised and be filled on the basis of competition. Taking the provisions of both the Public Service Act 13 of 1995 as well the staff rule on filling of positions in the Public Service into account, meant that even where a potential candidate was identified as an understudy in terms of the Affirmative Action Act 29 of 1998, this person could not automatically be allowed to occupy the position that he or she was made to understudy. Instead, the understudy was required to apply for the particular position along with all the other potential candidates and compete for it on an equal basis.

While the Public Service Commission of Namibia, through PSC Circular No. 29 of 1990 advocated that appointments to promotion posts should only be done through competition, the provisions of section 19(3) of the Affirmative Act (Employment), Act 29 of 1998 allowed for automatic appointment on the basis of having understudied the position in question. Annual affirmative action reports from 1999 to 2009 revealed major problems with the implementation of the affirmative action plans, particularly where organisations were required to provide for two positions, one for the substantive position holder and the other for the understudy. This approach was viewed by many organisations, both public and private, as expensive and to be avoided in the interest of cost reduction. The DCA did not have a succession plan in place on account of the above-mentioned reasons.

4.4.4. Retention practices at the DCA

There were no approved retention benefits exclusively for the DCA before the start of the talent management programme. However, the Public Service of Namibia had issued general directive in terms of the Public Service Staff Rule (PSSR) that allowed for deviation from standing rules. In terms of this particular PSSR the DCA or any other institution of government would approach the PSC for a recommendation for a special dispensation on salaries and conditions of service for strategic positions. In addition to this provision, and after the programme was started, several consultations were made between the DCA and the PSC to consider a new improved salary and benefit regime

for the former. On the basis of these consultations, the DCA had an improved salary and other benefits scheme to offer to its new applicants as from the year 2010.

4.4.5. Training and development at the DCA

In order to comply with some of the provisions of the corrective action plan, training of Aviation Safety Inspectors became a priority. In accordance with ICAO general guidelines on training, the DCA introduced some guidelines for the introduction and implementation of an On-the-Job Training (OJT) programme for Namibia Civil Aviation Safety Inspectors. The OJT programme was based on the principle of the identification of training objectives and the planned process of developing task level expertise by having an experienced qualified employee train a new employee at or near the actual work setting. To effectively introduce the OJT programme, a review of some of Namibia Civil Aviation Regulations (NAMCARs) was done. In order to be effective the programme objectives were to be met by the trainee within a specified time frame of 18 months of commencement upon appointment to a position.

The on the job training programme for Aviation Safety Inspectors consisted of four phases, namely, the core initial training; enhanced training; training and developmental training. In this study, only the core initial training is discussed in detail, while three phases of training and their activities are simply mentioned in the later part of this chapter. The core-training phase was the entry level and would be common to all Aviation Safety Inspectors. The objective of the core-training phase was to provide basic regulatory knowledge and skills; as well as to allow the inspector to function with minimum and progressively reduced supervision. To accomplish these objectives, the core-training phase was divided into two (2) parts. The first would be a formal induction course. The second part would be an OJT programme with a qualified and experienced inspector in that particular area of safety.

In light of the challenges experienced by the DCA at that time, the purpose of the OJT Programme was to encourage the exercising of knowledge and skills acquired on completion of a formal qualification in a controlled setting at the job site. One of the primary objectives was to provide the trainee inspector with the opportunity to qualify for a Director's Delegation of Authority (DOA) on completion of the core-

training phase. It should be noted the enabling legislation of the DCA required all functions and tasks to be performed by the Director of Civil Aviation for the purposes of holding the Director responsible for all actions. However, because it is impossible for an individual to perform all functions, the law allowed the Director of Civil Aviation to delegate some of his/her functions to certain individuals within the DCA, who have demonstrated their competence to independently perform certain tasks. Therefore, the Directors' Delegation of Authority schedule applicable to the inspector group was an important source of tasks for the OJT list. To qualify for the issuing of the Director's Delegation, completion of the designated or applicable tasks in the DOA document was mandatory. However, in addition to the authorised delegation tasks to be performed by a trainee, the supervising aviation safety inspector as required may supplement the tasks. The supplementary tasks compiled in association with the DOA Schedule used in the OJT system were in the strict meaning of the word, supplementary to the statutory schedule, and could not substitute the statutory one.

In implementing tasks during the OJT Programme, it was understood the variability of task contents demanded different methods by which command of the task functions could be acquired. Certain tasks easily lent themselves to "show and tell" without affecting any real life scenarios, while others could only be practiced under supervision in a real life situation. As a result of this, the policy document required supervisors to use a three-stage process of observe, assist and then work independently. This approach is discussed below:

The *Observe* approach suggested that there was no direct involvement by the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector. The trainee Aviation Safety Inspector becomes familiar with the reference material consistent with the position. At this stage, the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector makes him/ herself familiar with the active processes such as audits, document issues, inspections and handling communications in the general office process.

The *Assist* approach involved a measure of progressive involvement in the tasks by the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector. The experienced supervisor watches the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector do the task under his/her supervision. The trainee Aviation

Safety Inspector also assists senior inspectors during audits, research files for data to support applications and handle some public inquiries.

The *Independent* phase allows the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector to work without direct supervision on tasks. This is a stage when a trainee Aviation Safety Inspector has demonstrated a fair measure of the ability to work on his/her own. He or she is now to work on independent projects on his or her own, in addition to a daily schedule of research and reference work.

The OJT at the DCA was administered through checklists which required that some tasks be repeated a number of times to provide sufficient exposure and to ingrain the prime elements of the task. The choice of the repetition rate on a task by the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector was left to the discretion of the Supervisor. Furthermore, documentation was an important element of the OJT Programme. It was important and mandatory to record all tasks performed by the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector, in order to provide a record and to monitor the progress of the training of the particular trainee. In order for the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector to qualify to perform a certain task independently, the supervising Aviation Inspector should be satisfied that the task has been mastered, and the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector's authorisation documents are amended to include the particular task.

In addition to any other records, the OJT documentation of training became the property of the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector while the DCA also kept a copy on file. At a convenient time, all training records for each trainee Aviation Safety Inspector are reconciled and updated to prepare for the annual personnel appraisal period. The appraisal period provided the supervisor with an opportunity to discuss progress of the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector.

The recording of tasks completed by the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector was the responsibility of the Chief of Subdivision of the Aviation Safety Inspector or a person designated as such. Completion of certain tasks was indicated on the OJT task completion record in the presence of a witness. The supervisor's comments described the status of the work by the trainee and were used to assess if the work was satisfactory or unsatisfactory. If the work of the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector was

found unsatisfactory, the Chief of Subdivision of the Aviation Safety Inspector (ASI) authorised additional training time.

When the designated tasks are completed and the work of the trainee Aviation Safety Inspector is considered satisfactory, the supervisor recommends to the Chief Aviation Inspector, who upon his/her satisfaction, authorises that the Delegation of Authority Documents be issued to the trainee concerned. The process of verifying qualification and issuing authorisation resided with the Chief Aviation Inspector, based on the delegated authority from the Director of Civil Aviation. When initial core training was completed, inspectors would receive continuous training in their particular discipline. In particular, attention in terms of training was given to the following strategic positions that constituted aviation safety from 2009 to 2014:

4.4.5.1. Flight Operations Inspectors: In terms of the provisions of legislation that existed at the time of the study as well as other published governing regulations the functions of Flight Operations Inspectors in a regulatory authority like the DCA were as follows:

- To carry out certifications and inspections of operators for the issuance of Aircraft Operators Certificate (AOC) and the associated Operations Specifications;
- To assess flight test reports, flight manuals and amendments thereto;
- To investigate Mandatory Occurrence Reports (MORs) including incident/accident follow up and liaison with the Aircraft Accident Investigation Bureau;
- To carry out simulator and other training equipment/devices evaluation for conformity with required standards;
- To consider training programmes and syllabuses for approval; partake in/oversee actual inspection flight training for standard;
- To offer free counselling where required or necessary;
- To conduct quarterly and periodic surveillance on pertinent operator activities;
- To maintain an effective liaison with specialist surveyors and assigned Airworthiness Inspectors to ensure a coordinated supervisory role with operators;

- To participate as member inspectors in the subdivision of flight operation, in national and international auditing teams;
- To serve overseas in an acquired advisory capacity on flight operations and associated activities as may be required by government;
- To provide advice and guidance on regulatory matters to the aircraft industry within the sphere of the above accountabilities;
- To act as an expert witness in courts of law;
- To act in accordance with the DCA's Health and Safety Policies;
- Approval of personnel training, flight crew training, cabin crew training, flight operations and loadmasters training institutions (of operators); approval of flight crew, cabin crew, flight operations and loadmasters syllabi and courses;
- Appointment of designated examiners, flight crew, cabin crew, flight operations and loadmasters; approval of special operations; approval of MEL(s), flight manual, operations and training manuals and training programs;
- To examine applications for issue, extension and/or validation of Flight Crew, Dispatch and Cabin Crew Licences;
- To conduct Practical Test and Oral Examination of candidates for license issue; and
- To consult, cooperate and work closely with the Directorate of Airworthiness and the Directorate of Licencing on relevant matter.

On appointment, the Flight Operations Inspectors who met the minimum entry requirements were required to go through courses such as the Namibia Civil Aviation Regulations, Technical Guidance Materials, Authority's acceptance Operations Inspectors Course and OJT in specific duties under the supervision of a qualified Flight Operations Inspector in order to qualify them as Flight Operations Inspectors. Table 4 below, shows the courses attended by Flight Operations Inspectors in order to obtain a qualification to perform specific tasks:

Table 4: TRAINING FOR FLIGHT OPERATIONS INSPECTORS

<p>1. INITIAL (CORE) TRAINING</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Induction/Indoctrination Course b. Government Safety Inspector Course c. Compliance and enforcement procedures course d. Human factors course e. Crew resource management (CRM) course f. Aircraft type certification courses g. Aircraft type line training 	<p>2. RECURRENT TRAINING</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Aircraft type annual re-currency, Proficiency, Instrument b. Soft Courses – Human Factors, CRM
<p>3. SPECIALISED TRAINING FOR OPS INSPECTORS</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Dangerous Goods Category 6 b. Performance Based Navigation (PBN) c. Reduced Vertical Separation Minima (RVSM) d. Electronic Flight Bag e. Extended Day Time Operations (EDTO) f. Low visibility operations (LVO) g. Simulator evaluations 	<p>4. OTHER ADVANCED THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL TRAINING</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Safety Management Systems b. Quality Management Systems c. Auditing Techniques d. Aerial work approval e. Remotely Piloted Aircraft Systems f. Hot air Balloon operations

The DCA had over 500 aircrafts on its register before and during the period of the study. However, the total approved number of technical personnel on the staff establishment of the DCA from 2008 to 2014 was too low compared to the international standards and recommended practices. The international standards and recommended practices issued by the ICAO requires that the number of technical personnel required should be based on the workload formula based on the aviation activities the country. The industry has ratios for the number of inspectors required given the number of aircraft on the register or the number of licences on issue etc. For example, the general standards and recommended practices would require that there should be at least one Flight Operations Inspector for every 20 large bodied aircraft. Therefore, in order to perform the above-mentioned functions, the DCA required at least 10 Flight Operations Inspectors. Notwithstanding these requirements, the DCA had only one Flight Operations Inspector in 2008 who was a qualified pilot but on small aircraft and had only approximately six hundred (600) hours of flight time. This number of flying hours by a pilot in the aviation industry was considered as equivalent to about nine months of experience only, which did not meet ICAO guidelines on the experience required for Flight Operations Inspectors. ICAO required that a flight operations inspector should have a minimum of 5000 hours on large transport aircraft.

Training records at the DCA shows that the Flight Operations Inspectors were provided with basic training before assigning them for inspector's job functions. Records at the DCA further indicate that in all cases, Flight Operations Inspectors had successfully completed a Government Safety Inspectors (GSI) Basic Course for Operations Inspectors. In addition, they also completed advanced/specialised training required for flight operations inspectors instructions that included human factors operations, specific aircraft type rating course as was required, carriage of dangerous goods by air, cabin safety and auditors course. Furthermore, training records show that Flight Operations Inspectors received special training in different applicable circumstances such as an accident investigation course, safety oversight training, examination techniques as well as instructional techniques.

In addition, training records of the DCA revealed that the Flight Operations Inspectors (FOI) were provided with continuous training to ensure that they remained current in their profession in relation to their duties. Periodic practical and theoretical specialised (technical) training, including supervisory courses, which enabled them to maintain a high level of knowledge and expertise to carry out their safety oversight responsibilities effectively and efficiently were observed. Similarly, a Training File was maintained for each inspector to ensure systematic and comprehensive training. The Training File records were reviewed and updated at regular intervals. A record of all 'On the Job Training' imparted to an inspector was also maintained in the Training File. In order to have continuous training for Flight Operations Inspectors, on Job Training Guide was developed to assist with the training of Flight Operation Inspectors. Furthermore, technical training of Operations Inspectors, in particular aircraft type training was emphasised as a new approach after the year 2008. Furthermore, Operations Inspectors also underwent specialised training in order to perform aircraft type specific job functions effectively and efficiently. It also became mandatory that inspectors should be at least as qualified as the personnel to be inspected, or supervised.

4.4.5.2. Airworthiness inspectors: The functions of Airworthiness Inspectors include the following:

- Aircraft registration, deregistration and maintenance of civil aircraft register;
- Recommendation on acceptance of aircraft type certificate;
- Evaluation and advice on the acceptance of the application for production of aircraft or aircraft component;
- Approval of changes to the type certificate (modifications & repairs);
- Issue/renewal and validation of Certificates of Airworthiness; approval of aircraft maintenance Organisations;
- Certification of air operators;
- Investigation of accidents, incidents and major aircraft defects;
- Issue service bulletins and foreign airworthiness directives review for applicability to national aircraft;
- Conducting examinations for applicants of aircraft maintenance licences;
- Development of technical guidance materials for airworthiness practices and procedures; and
- Development and recommendation of regulatory changes to civil aviation legislations as required from time to time.

According to documents accessed and examined at the DCA, the newly recruited Airworthiness Inspectors who met the above-mentioned requirements went through the mandatory Inspectors Training System (ITS) training. In addition to the ITS, they also went through basic training courses such as the Civil Aviation Regulations, Technical Guidance Materials, Authority acceptable Airworthiness Inspectors Course, Aircraft type/systems course as was required as well as on the job training (OJT) in specific duties specified in the OJT training sheet under the supervision of a qualified Senior Airworthiness Inspector. Table 5 shows the courses attended by Airworthiness Inspectors in order to obtain a qualification to perform specific tasks.

In order to ensure systematic and comprehensive training of Airworthiness Inspectors, a Training File for each inspector was maintained. The training file records were reviewed and updated at regular intervals by the training supervisor. Records of all “On the Job

Training” that impacted additional skills to an Inspector were also maintained in the Training File.

Table 5: TRAINING COURSES FOR AIRWORTHINESS INSPECTORS	
A INDOCTRINATION	B ENHANCED CONTINUING DEVELOPMENT TRAINING
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. icao annexes 1,5,7,8 & 16 2. icao doc 8335 & 9760 3. New namcars 4. Order no. 1 volume 1: inspection & audit procedures manual 5. Volume2: general inspector handbook 6. Volume 3: airworthiness inspector handbook 7. On-the-job-training (airworthiness functions) 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Endorsed aviation safety inspector-airworthiness (faa course 18701) 2. iso 9001-2000 quality course 3. Compliance and enforcement procedures (faa course 15215001) 4. UK airworthiness course 5. Seminars & workshops 6. inspector training systems (faa course 15206) 7. aviation safety engineer/system job function (faa course 21018) 8. inspector cockpit enroute inspections (faa course 21406) 9. avionics certification procedures course (faa course 21846) 10. aging aircraft-corrosion prevention & control programme (faa course 28485) 11. rotorcraft systems & surveillance course (faa course 28442) 12. basic supervisory training (faa course 15001) 13. ame training
C SPECIALISED TRAINING	
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Aircraft accident/incident investigation training 2. Aircraft type/systems/familiarisation courses 3. Reliability programme/msg3 4. Human factors-maintenance suspected unapproved parts (faa course 15205) 5. Technical report writing (faa) 6. Sms training course 7. Management course 	

4.4.5.3. Aerodrome inspectors: The importance of airport safety and certification to a regulatory authority like the DCA cannot be overemphasised. Aerodrome Inspectors are responsible for airport safety and certification, and are responsible for the following:

- Providing safety oversight of the aerodromes facility, ground aids, electric systems, installations including certification of the various categories of aerodromes and appropriate personnel as required for ensuring continued compliance with national regulations and international standards and practices.
- Dealing with regulatory aspects relating to performance and condition of runways, taxiways and apron.
- Servicing of pavements and visual aids dealing with regulatory aspects relating to

performance of visual aids, lightings and electrical systems.

- Ensuring that maintenance performance level objectives for aerodromes visual aid are met in accordance with the standards;
- Dealing with regulatory aspects relating to effectiveness of and requirements for Rescue and Fire Fighting Services and Aerodrome Emergency Planning commensurate with the aerodrome category; and
- Dealing with regulatory aspects relating to apron safety and management, movement areas, obstructions evaluation and marking.

Table 6 below, shows the courses attended by Aerodrome Inspectors in order to obtain a qualification to perform specific tasks:

Table 6: AERODROME INSPECTORS	
1. INITIAL (CORE) TRAINING	2. RECURRENT TRAINING
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Induction/Indoctrination Course b) Government Safety Inspector Course for Aerodromes c) Aerodrome and heliports physical characteristics d) Aerodrome and heliports obstacles limitation surfaces e) Aerodrome and heliports visual aids f) Aerodrome and heliports organization and administration g) Aerodrome and heliports operations h) Aerodrome and heliports maintenance i) Aerodrome and heliports safety management j) Aerodrome and heliports security k) Aerodrome and heliport rescue and fire fighting l) Aerodrome and heliport emergency management 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) International and national standards and recommended practices on aerodromes and heliports b) Aerodrome maintenance
3. SPECIALISED TRAINING	4. OTHER ADVANCED THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Aerodrome planning b. Aerodrome design c. Aerodrome pavement d. Rescue and Fire Fighting Services e. Emergency Management System f. Wildlife management g. Aerodrome data and reporting h. Electrical Systems i. Obstacles Limitation Surfaces j. Visual Aids k. Physical Characteristics of aerodromes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Quality Management Systems b) Safety Management Systems
5. OJT TRAINING	
All areas require OJT for each task	

4.4.5.3.1. Structural interventions at the aerodrome section: There were five airports and eight aerodromes in Namibia at the time of the study. Before the start of the talent management programme in 2008, there was only one clerk working as a DCA aerodrome inspector, without aerodrome inspector qualifications, who was responsible for performing airport audits. However, an experienced ICAO expert was assisting in that area. This was not a desirable situation as it was not possible for the DCA to conduct ramp inspections in the absence of a qualified person. As a result of this, there were also no schedules for the resolution of findings. Aerodrome emergency plans were not in accordance with ICAO SARPs and guidance manuals. As a result of this situation of lack of Namibian Aerodrome Inspectors, there was an urgent need for the DCA to appoint at least six additional aerodrome inspectors to meet the inspection and audit

requirements for the airports in Namibia.

By December 2009 work in the area of aerodrome regulations practices and procedures were on going. A draft Manual for Inspector Aerodromes was finalised and approved by the Director of the DCA in Namibia. The Manual included checklists for the Aerodromes Inspectors as well and was also to be used as a checklist for auditing aerodromes. With regard to evaluation of aerodrome certificate applications and performance of aerodrome inspections on the main airports, eight aerodromes were audited by December 2009; and the results of the audits were discussed with the Airport Managers and where necessary immediate corrective action was taken. Furthermore, assistance to the authorities of main airports was given in developing their airport (safety) manual. In this regard, most Namibian aerodromes had submitted an Aerodrome Manual (AM), SMS Plan and Airport Emergency Plan (AEP) to the DCA of Namibia. However, when the inspectors reviewed these Manuals and SMS Plans as part of the talent management programme, there were indications that they did not meet the ICAO requirements and recommendations. In this regard, Standard Operating Procedures were not available at the Aerodromes. In order to improve their Manuals, several Airport Managers were engaged and they drafted frameworks.

In addition to the above, the DCA was involved in the development of procedure manuals relating to aerodrome certification as well administrative procedures in respect of surveillance tasks and aerodrome certification applications. In this regard, the draft Inspector Manual was reviewed and re-edited and checklists added as appendices.

4.4.5.4. Personnel licencing and Certification Inspectors: The following are the functions of the Personnel Licencing and Certification Inspectors:

- To ensure that the regulations and standards set forth in the NAMCARs are enforced without imposing unnecessary regulatory burden on the operators and the industry
- To ensure that the DCA's safety targets are achieved by implementation of the PEL policies and procedures;

- To establish and maintain a programme to ensure that a proper licencing and validation system is maintained;
- To establish and maintain a programme to ensure the medical certification of all license holders requiring a medical certificate;
- To establish and maintain a program to ensure the certification, supervision and surveillance (monitoring/oversight) of all aviation training organisations certificated under Part 141 of the NAMCAR;
- To establish and Maintain a programme of quality assurance to confirm the application of standards, procedures and guidelines for all PEL activities; and
- To establish and maintain a programme to ensure the supervision of designated examiners acting on behalf of the DCA.

Table 7 below, shows the courses attended by Personnel Licencing Inspectors in order to obtain a qualification to perform specific tasks:

Table: 7 PERSONNEL LICENSING INSPECTORS	
1. INITIAL (CORE) TRAINING	2. RECURRENT TRAINING
a) Induction/Indoctrination b) Course Government Safety Inspector Course for Personnel Licencing c) Government Safety Inspector Course for Aviation Training Organisation Certification d) Technical report writing course e) English Proficiency raters course f) Safety Oversight course g) Compliance and enforcement procedures course h) Auditing Techniques	a) Aircraft type annual re-currency, Proficiency, Instrument, instructor ratings b) Soft Courses – Human Factors, Crew Resource Management, Dangerous Goods
3. SPECIALISED TRAINING	4. OTHER ADVANCED THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL TRAINING
a) Human factors course b) Aircraft types courses c) Safety Management systems d) Flight Training Device evaluations	a) Quality Management Systems b) Remotely Piloted Aircraft Systems c) Basic Supervisory training d) Incident investigation course
5. OJT TRAINING	
All areas require OJT for each task	

4.4.5.4.1. Structural interventions at Personnel Licencing section: In 2007, there were serious deficiencies in the Namibian Personnel Licencing System that resulted in safety concerns at all levels, from basic flight training to airline operations. These deficiencies were due to a lack of Technical Standards to support the regulations, a lack of industry oversight (flight examiners and medical examiners), a lack of procedures and guidance material and a lack of DCA personnel. Reports showed that Licences and Medical Certificates that were issued in the past did not only meet the Namibian Regulatory requirements but international standards as well. Furthermore, it was found that license ratings were in the past issued consistently, when in fact there were no standards, no test and no documentation to support the issuance of the rating. The lack of DCA personnel at the Officer and Inspector level as well as the lack of clerical support (one licencing clerk) was a hurdle that was to be overcome in developing an effective licencing system.

By December 2009 a new organisational structure including job descriptions and training programmes for the Personnel Licencing Section were developed and approved. The new structure provided for appropriate inspectors in the critical area of oversight of the training operators who provided training required under Part 61 of the civil aviation regulations. However, although significant work was done in the areas of standards for Part 141 and flight test standards under Part 61, progress was slow due to the absence of qualified inspectors. For example, although Standards for Flight Test Examiners were drafted and ready for gazetting following a period of industry review, no work was done on the detailed review of the Medical Regulations and Standards by December 2009.

Although the DCA did not have its own Medical Examiner by December 2009, considerable amount of work was done at that time with the Designated Aviation Medical Examiners of Namibia to reach agreement on the structure and functioning of the Designated Body. All Designated Medical Examiner appointments were reviewed and re-appointed in accordance with the existing Technical Standards. Furthermore, considerable amount of work was also done with the Designated Flight Examiners of Namibia. A training programme was designed and administered to nine of the examiners

4.5. CHALLENGES THAT WERE CAUSED BY THE FINDINGS OF THE ICAO VOLUNTARY AUDITS

Namibia DCA received its first voluntary audit by ICAO on 3 May 1996. The second follow-up audit was carried out from 4 to 11 April 2001. The audit revealed an overall effective implementation of ICAO critical elements of 43.07 per cent. Another follow-up audit took place from 16 to 18 February 2004 and significant improvements were recorded. Namibia was subsequently audited again from the 5 March to 25 April 2006 and the effective implementation (EI) rate was recorded as 48.04 per cent. Namibia fell short of the world average effective implementation level, which stood at 65 per cent. However, the 2006 ICAO audit results showed that there were some significant improvements in Critical Elements (CE) 1 and 2, compared to those of 2001.

Although some significant improvements were recorded in CE-1 and CE-2, there was serious lack of effective implementation of CE-3 to CE-8. There were forty-seven Audit findings ranging from significant, major and minor in all Eight Critical Elements, considered crucial for an effective Safety Oversight System. Namibia performed poorly in terms of the Eight Critical Elements, particularly with respect to technical competencies, qualification, experience and inability to attract and retain technical staff (CE-4). According to the Acting Director of Civil Aviation, the state required a radical and new aggressive approach to resource allocation (financial and material) to the Directorate of Civil Aviation by the Ministry of Works and Transport.

While the full 2006 ICAO audit report is attached as Appendix 9 to this research, the following is a summary of the findings of the ICAO mission to Namibia that took place from 25 April to 5 May 2006 in terms of the Critical Elements (CE) of a state's aviation safety oversight system against which ICAO's audits measure the abilities of individual States to perform its oversight responsibilities:

4.5.1. Critical Element (CE-1), primary civil aviation legislation

According to ICAO documents, this critical element refers to the ability of an individual state to provide a comprehensive and effective aviation law, consistent with the environment and complexity of the state's aviation activity, and compliant with the requirements contained in the Convention on International Civil Aviation (ICAO, 2010).

With regard to this critical element that relates to primary aviation legislation, the ICAO mission to Namibia found that the country was still using an old and out-dated primary legislation of 1962, being the Aviation Act 1962 (Act No. 74 of 1962) at the time of the audit in 2006. This act was last amended in 1998. There were supplementary laws that supported the legal systems such as the Air Services Act of 1949, which was last amended in 1991; the Civil Aviation Offences Act of 1972; and the Carriage by Air Act of 1946. All these pieces of legislation were considered as old and out-dated. Only the Airports Company Act of 1998 that related to the transfer of state aerodromes to the Namibia Airports Company was found to be modern and had updated supplementary legislation (ICAO, 2007). As a result of out-dated legislation, it was also found that although the authority responsible for civil aviation matters in Namibia was referred to as the Directorate of Civil Aviation, there were no provisions in the Aviation Act for the establishment of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA). However, the appointment of the Director of Civil Aviation was regulated under Article 5 of Act No. 10 of 1991 without his/her technical functions spelled out. The Act was found to be limiting the powers of the Director of Civil Aviation to administrative functions such as the hiring of officers, employees or persons as inspectors or authorised persons (ICAO, 2007).

4.5.2. Critical Element (CE-2), Specific operating regulations

This critical element deals with the provision of adequate regulations to address, at a minimum, national requirements emanating from the primary aviation legislation and providing for standardised operational procedures, equipment and infrastructures (including safety management and training systems), in conformance with the Standards

and Recommended Practices (SARPs) contained in other Annexes to the Chicago Convention (ICAO, 2010).

The assessment team in 2006 found that the regulatory framework at the time of the audit was out-dated and considered generally unacceptable. This was also reported during the other past audits that showed significant to major shortcomings highlighted in processes, practices and procedures. Therefore, Namibia scored 8 out of 10 on this CE. However, this type of score was by considered ICAO as above average. In particular, ICAO's assessment mission to Namibia in 2006 found that the authority to make regulations rested with the Minister responsible for Transport under Section 22 of the amended Aviation Act of 1991. The Namibian Civil Aviation Regulations (NAM-CARS) were promulgated on 2 March 2001 and complemented by the Namibian Civil Aviation Technical Standards (NAM-CATS) which were enacted on 1 September 2003. The NAM-CATS provided additional and more detailed specifics to the implementation of the NAM-CARS. Although the majority of the NAM-CARS had an equivalent NAM-CATS, some personnel licencing NAM-CATS were yet to be published. In addition, neither the NAM-CARS nor the NAM-CATS had been amended to keep pace with the ICAO SARPs since their publication. Part 11- *Procedures for making regulations* did not include procedures to amend the regulations subsequent to an annex amendment and for listing and notifying differences to ICAO. Some foreign regulations were also adopted as part of the NAM-CARS by making reference to them and, in this way, making them applicable to Namibia. Flight training organisations were all approved under NAM-CARS 141. In addition, the NAM-CARS had not been kept up to date with recent ICAO Annex 1 amendments (ICAO, 2007).

4.5.3. Critical Element (CE-3), State civil aviation system and safety oversight functions

This critical element refers to the establishment of a Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) and/or other relevant authorities or government agencies, headed by a Chief Executive Officer, supported by the appropriate and adequate technical and non-technical staff

and provided with adequate financial resources. The State authority must have stated safety regulatory functions, objectives and safety policies (ICAO, 2010).

It was found that there was no independent civil aviation authority at the time of the audit. However, the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) was established as one of the six directorates under the Department of Transport and Communication of the Ministry of Works, Transport and Communication at that time. Under the Director of Civil Aviation, there were the following three Deputy Directors: (1) The Deputy Director of Aviation Safety and Security who was responsible for personnel licencing, flight operations, airworthiness, and aerodromes; (2) The Deputy Director of Aviation Administration and Navigation Facilities who was responsible for air navigation services, including air traffic services (ATS), flight procedures design, aeronautical information services (AIS), cartographic services, communication, navigation and surveillance (CCNS), and air traffic controller licencing; and (3) The Deputy Director of Namibia Meteorological Services who was responsible for aeronautical meteorological services.

In addition to the non-existence of an independent civil aviation authority, there was a critical shortage of key technical staff at the DCA. The mission found that the DCA did not have sufficient financial resources to attract and retain an adequate number of suitably qualified and experienced staff necessary to fulfil its safety oversight responsibility. There was no official organisational structure of the DCA at the time of the inspection by ICAO. However, there was a formal working document, which clearly defined the functions and responsibilities of the various entities within the DCA that was been developed at the time of the inspection (ICAO, 2007).

4.5.4. Critical Element (CE-4), Technical personnel qualification and training

This refers to the establishment of minimum requirements for knowledge and experience of the technical personnel performing safety oversight functions and the provision of appropriate training to maintain and enhance their competence at the desired level. According to ICAO guidelines, the training should include initial and recurrent (periodic) training. This element also compels civil aviation authorities to train

the civil aviation industry of a particular country on the implementation of applicable aviation security requirements, measures and procedures (ICAO, 2010).

It was found that the DCA had not developed and implemented formal and recurrent training programmes in critical technical jobs. For example, with respect to personnel licencing, the DCA had not developed and implemented an adequate formal initial and recurrent training programme for the licencing staff. However, there is an established training policy for the DCA, which included specific formal training for the licencing officers and clerks. The Licencing personnel received training on an ad hoc basis. Furthermore, the DCA had not established an adequate record-keeping system for its licencing personnel at the time of the inspection.

Similar occurrences of not having developed and implemented formal and recurrent training programmes were also found in other critical technical positions such as in the areas of aircraft operations, airworthiness, air navigation services and aerodromes. In particular, the DCA had not defined minimum qualification requirements for the aerodrome regulatory staff at the time of the inspection. Most importantly, the Aviation Safety and Security division had not developed and implemented a comprehensive training programme for its technical staff, which included initial, recurrent and on the job training (OJT) with appropriate competence checks (ICAO, 2007).

4.5.5. Critical Element (CE-5), Technical guidance, tools and the provision of safety critical information

This critical element refers to the provision of technical guidance (including processes and procedures), tools (including facilities and equipment) and safety critical information, as applicable, to the technical personnel to enable them to perform their safety oversight functions in accordance with established requirements and in a standardised manner. In addition, this includes the provision of technical guidance by the oversight authority to the aviation industry on the implementation of applicable regulations and instructions (ICAO, 2010).

In this area, it was found that the DCA had not developed and implemented appropriate guidance and procedures for its inspectors and technical staff. In addition, it had not established an adequate technical library, which would include updated copies of ICAO Annexes and documents as well as general technical information and guidance pertaining to all areas within the DCA, some of which were used by the regulatory staff and the industry as well. Similarly, important issues such as guidance on validation procedures, appeal procedures, medical examinations and enforcement procedures or coordination between the areas of airworthiness for Aircraft Maintenance Engineers (AME) licences or air navigation for Air Traffic Controller (ATC) licences had not been documented by the DCA. Equally, there were no procedures or guidance detailing the approval process that led to the certification of flight training organisations (ICAO, 2007).

4.5.6. Critical Element (CE-6), Licencing, certification, authorisation and/or approval obligations

This refers to the implementation of processes and procedures to ensure that personnel and organisations performing an aviation activity meet the established requirements before they are allowed to exercise the privileges of a license, certificate, authorization and/or approval to conduct the relevant aviation activity (ICAO, 2010).

The inspection found that the requirements for the issuance of crew licences were established in Part 61 of the NAM CARS. However, the NAM-CARS for crew licencing functions were not developed and implemented. The Aviation Safety and Security division issued private pilot licences (PPLs) and validated or converted the majority of commercial pilot licences (CPLs) and air transport pilot licences (ATPLs), which were of the continuing (no expiring) type. It was also found that the issuance of PPLs was delegated to flight schools, and CPLs and ATPLs were delegated to foreign training organisations and air operators. Written examinations for CPLs, and ATPLs licences were conducted by the South African Civil Aviation Authority (SACAA) on the basis of an agreement signed between the two countries. As a result of this agreement, the South African authorities handled the entire examination process for these licences. Furthermore, Air Traffic Controller (ATC) licences were also issued and validated or

converted by South African Civil Aviation Authority. It was also found that Aircraft Maintenance Engineers (AME) licences were issued by the Airworthiness Division while registration of AME Licences and ATC licences were done by the Deputy Director of Aviation Administration and Navigation Facilities. However, neither one of the sections responsible for the issuance of licences at the DCA in Namibia; had clear and detailed procedures and guidance for coordination among them. The medical evaluation of licensed personnel was also handled without formal procedures that were prescribed by ICAO guidelines (ICAO, 2007).

4.5.7. Critical Element (CE-7), Surveillance obligations

This critical element refers to the implementation of processes, such as inspections and audits, to proactively ensure that aviation license, certificate, authorisation and/or approval holders continue to meet the established requirements and function at the level of competency and safety required by the state to undertake an aviation-related activity, for which they have been licensed, certified, authorised and/or approved to perform. This includes the surveillance of designated personnel who perform safety oversight functions on behalf of the Civil Aviation Authority (CAA) (ICAO, 2010).

In this regard, it was found that no specific policies and procedures were established for the conduct of surveillance activities for flight crew licences. Some surveillance activities were conducted by AMEs in the Airworthiness, Registration and AME Licencing Division of the DCA. No supervision activities were carried out concerning the performance of duties of delegated examiners within approved training organisations or delegated medical examiners. Furthermore, it was found that training organisations were also periodically inspected by the DCA and some corrective actions were required from these organisations. However, there were no clear procedures established for the follow-up on identified deficiencies. Control and supervision activities, carried out by the Flight Operations Section to ensure compliance with the NAM-CARS and the NAM-CATS, were found not to be adequate in the number and type of inspections conducted. In the area of airworthiness, it was found that the certificate of airworthiness remained valid as

long as all airworthiness requirements continue to be met and the aircraft remains on the Namibia register (ICAO, 2007).

4.5.8. Critical Element (CE-8), Resolution of safety concerns

This critical element deals with the implementation of processes and procedures to resolve identified deficiencies impacting aviation safety, which may have been residing in the aviation system and have been detected by the regulatory authority or other appropriate bodies (ICAO, 2010).

In this regard, the ICAO team found that there were no formal procedures and guidance established by the DCA for the licencing section on actions to be taken in the case of false declarations by applicants. The DCA had also not established procedures on actions to be taken in the event of flight crew members not performing their duties in accordance with the prescribed procedures. In addition, there were no supervision activities established and no clear enforcement procedures and guidance applicable to crew members, flight examiners or medical examiners and AMEs. Furthermore, the follow-up of deficiencies on Aircraft Maintenance Organisations (AMOs) and ramp inspections was not properly done since the practice was not formally approved in the *Airworthiness Inspector's Handbook*. In addition, the DCA had not developed and implemented comprehensive processes and procedures to resolve identified deficiencies affecting aviation safety, detected by the inspectorate staff during the surveillance of aerodromes. Moreover, these deficiencies were not associated with timelines for correction and were not based on the level of seriousness, except for civil aviation infrastructure deficiencies, which were the only deficiencies categorized (ICAO, 2007).

During the 2006 ICAO Universal Safety Oversight Audits programme (USOAP), Namibia showed a consistent pattern of safety related deficiencies in five areas of expertise out of the eight Critical Elements. As a result of those safety related deficiencies, Namibia was classified by the ICAO in categories 2 and 3, in six areas of expertise in relation to the eight Critical Elements considered important for a State's Safety Oversight System. The ICAO has a system of classifying the state's level of

compliance or non-compliance in the following three categories based on their audit results: Category 1 is a state that is capable of ensuring the implementation of SARPs. Category two 2 is a state that is found by ICAO audit being affected by significant findings, while category 3 is a state found not capable of ensuring effective implementation of SARPs (ICAO: 2006).

Furthermore, documents accessed at the DCA show that in a letter of 4 February 2008 addressed to the Director of Civil Aviation in Namibia, Angeline Simana, the Director General for Energy and Transport of the European Commission, Daniel Calleja, almost banned Air Namibia, Namibia's national carrier, from landing in Europe in 2008. Within the framework of relevant European legislation concerning carriers subject to an operating ban within the European Community, the European Commission informed the DCA, in this letter, that it had gathered evidence showing a consistent pattern of safety related deficiencies on the part of Namibia as reflected in the analysis performed by the ICAO USOAP (Universal Safety Oversight Audit Programme) audit for Namibia. The letter informed the DCA that the analysis by ICAO indicated that the capability of Namibia to ensure the effective implementation of SARPs (Standards and Recommended Practices) was affected in four USOAP areas. These areas included primary aviation legislation and civil aviation regulations, as well as operations certification and supervision. The letter from the European Commission also indicated that Namibia had significant difficulties to ensure effective implementation of SARPs in two USOAP areas. These areas were airworthiness of aircraft and aircraft accident and incident investigation. The letter was addressed to the DCA as the civil aviation authority of Namibia and constituted an official consultation with the authorities with responsibility for regulatory oversight of Namibia in compliance with the provisions laid down in Article 3(2) of Regulation 473/2006. In the same letter, the DCA of Namibia was requested to provide the European Commission with detailed information about the measures that the DCA was taking to resolve the situation, and especially an update of the corrective action plan submitted by Namibia to resolve the findings in each USOAP area. Friday, 22 February 2008 was given as a due date for the submission of such information.

Although Namibia failed to meet all the requirements of the ICAO audit in several areas on two occasions (1996 and 2006), one of ICAO's major findings that this study deals with, is that the DCA of Namibia did not have competent, skilled and qualified technical personnel to ensure that the state complied with its primary objective of ensuring safety of passengers, crew, ground personnel and the general public in all matters related to aviation safety and the safeguarding against acts of unlawful interference with civil aviation. This specific ICAO finding that was related to a lack of qualified personnel at the DCA was chosen for purposes of this study because of its significant importance among other findings. The absence of technically qualified personnel to perform safety oversight functions at the DCA, as well as the absence of the provision of appropriate training to maintain and enhance technical personnel's competence to their desired level, appear to have led to serious aircraft accidents or incidents. Furthermore, non-compliance with this requirement was also a violation by the DCA of Namibia of its obligations in terms of the Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation of 1944. Therefore, this study analyses the corrective action plan of the DCA in securing talent for the occupational class of aviation safety from the perspective of talent management, and appreciating the diverse environment of Namibia. On the basis of this, a significant amount of this study deals with talent management initiatives at the DCA of Namibia aimed at addressing one of the ICAO's major findings in the area of CE-4.

According to available documents at the Directorate of Civil Aviation at the time of the research, the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) conducted a follow-up safety oversight audit of the Namibian civil aviation system from 16 to 22 July 2014. The mission evaluated the status of effective implementation of the latest corrective action plan of the DCA on the basis of the 2006 findings and recommendations. In general, the 2014 ICAO audit found that the DCA of Namibia had improved from the 48.04 per cent effective implementation of the corrective action plan in 2006 in the eight critical elements (CEs) of the state's safety oversight system to 59.67 per cent in 2014. The 2014 audit results, demonstrated that the DCA of Namibia had established the balanced approach to regulate air operations in Namibia's airspace and restored its confidence within the International Community but CE-4 had not improved to the required standards.

Although the 2014 ICAO audit results present a better and improved picture compared to the situation in 2006, the 2014 ICAO audit on the DCA of Namibia audit still fell short to meet the internationally acceptable standard of 65 per cent. Table 8 below points out to the fact that there was an overall improvement in the eight critical elements between 2006 and 2014. A significant improvement was observed in the area of technical guidance, tools and provision of safety critical information, which saw an improvement of 35.76 per cent, followed by the area of state civil aviation systems and safety oversight functions which improved by 11.11 per cent. In the third place was the improvement in the area of licencing, certification, authorization and/or approved obligations which increased by 8.88 per cent while the area of technical personnel qualifications and training improved by 7.59 per cent in the fourth place. An interesting observation is in the recorded improvement is in CE-3 and CE-4 which particularly dealt with the talent management programme at the DCA. The number and quality of technical personnel with adequate qualifications at the DCA improved significantly between 2006 and 2014 to an extent that they were able to efficiently run the state civil aviation systems while taking responsibility of their safety oversight functions.

Table 8: DCA Effective Implementation by Critical Element of a Safety Oversight System (Source: ICVM Report, 2014)

Primary aviation legislation		Specific operating requirements		State civil aviation systems and safety oversight functions		Technical personnel qualifications and training		Technical guidance tools and providing safety critical information		Licensing, certification, authorization and/or obligations		Surveillance obligations		Resolution of safety concerns	
(CE-1)		(CE-2)		(CE-3)		(CE-4)		(CE-5)		(CE-6)		(CE-7)		(CE-8)	
2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014
75%	78.12%	65.52%	69.03%	45.56%	56.67%	34.18%	41.77%	38.69%	74.45%	51.40%	60.28%	39.49%	42.11%	40.00%	42.22%

Table 9 below shows the DCA's performance in 2006 and their improved performance in 2014 after the audit in various areas that constituted an oversight safety system was conducted. From the table below it can be observed that a significant improvement in the implementation of the DCA's corrective action plan was recorded in the area aircraft accidents and investigations (AIG) that moved up by 26.53 per cent, followed by the area of airworthiness of aircrafts (AIR) that moved up by 25.46 per cent. In the third

place were personnel licencing (PEL) that moved up by 21.52 per cent while aircraft operations (OPS) moved by 13.06 per cent in the fourth place.

Table 9: DCA Effective Implementation of CAP by Area (Source: ICVM Report, 2014)

Primary aviation legislation and Civil Aviation regulations (LEG)		Civil Aviation organization (ORG)		Personnel Licensing and Training (PEL)		Aircraft Operations (OPS)		Airworthiness of Aircrafts (AIR)		Aircraft accidents and investigations (AIG)		Air navigation services (ANS)		Aerodromes and ground aids (AGA)	
2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014	2006	2014
60.87%	65.22%	30.77%	30.77%	42.68%	64.20%	44.88%	57.94%	48.18%	73.64%	46.39%	72.92%	45.96%	45.96%	57.55%	59.71%

4.6. CHALLENGES OF THE DCA DURING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE TALENT MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

4.6.1. Challenges as a result of existing legislations

Reports on the Directorate of Civil Aviation of the Republic Namibia indicated that the Directorate experienced several challenges that made it non-compliant with the Standards and recommended Practices (SARP) of the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO). The Akwenda Report of 1998 revealed that the Directorate of Civil Aviation was still operating on outdated and inadequate Civil Aviation legislation, did not have Technical Standards, lacked sufficient human resources with appropriate technical qualifications and experience, and did not have Procedures Manuals in place to guide the DCA personnel in carrying out their functions (DCA Report, 1998).

The Aviation Act No. 74 of 1962 as well as the Aviation Amendment Act 10 of 1991 established the DCA. Despite the provisions of the law, the Director of Civil Aviation as well as all other staff members were not appointed in terms of these Acts, but in terms of the Public Service Act of 1995 read together with the Public Service Commission Act, Act 2 of 1990. The study found that the Civil Aviation Act of 1962 was only used to regulate the operations at the DCA. From the financial point of view, the DCA relied solely of state budget that was regulated by the State Finance Act, Act 31 of 1991. Because of its reliance on the Public Service Act of 1995, the DCA could not attract,

recruit and select its own staff members. This situation compromised the talent management programme at the DCA because it depended on the Public Service Commission for attraction, recruitment and selection of its staff. Similar reliance on the State Finance Act, No. 31 of 1991 meant the DCA was unable to generate its own revenue despite the potential that existed in this regard. Because of this arrangement, the money the DCA raised through aeronautical charges and regulatory fees were received as part of the Ministry of Finance central revenue. It also had no authority to increase these fees without approval of Treasury and the approval procedure took several months. Therefore, this dependency of the Ministry of Finance budget allocation limited the activities of the DCA such as training and development that needed financial resources.

A further legislative challenge to the talent management programme was a role of the Director of Civil Aviation with regard to safety issues. In terms of the Aviation Act No. 74 of 1962, as well as Aviation Amendment Act 10 of 1991, the Director of Civil Aviation was responsible for all safety issues in the Namibian skies. However, because of a lack of capacity at the DCA, and in the interest of aviation safety, an inter-ministerial committee composed of persons from the uniformed personnel such as the police, army and the national intelligence was established by the government to advise the Director of Civil Aviation on aviation safety aspects, contrary to the provisions of the law and in convention of the International Civil Aviation Organisation's policies. This arrangement limited staff development and growth at the DCA because it was often argued that additional civilian staff members of aviation safety were not necessary in the presence of many other uniformed personnel that could perform functions that were perceived to be the same. This arrangement also limited the powers of the Director of Civil Aviation in terms of exercising his/her safety oversight functions.

Another serious challenge to the talent management programme that was caused by the legislative environment was the issue of enforcement. The Aviation Act of 1962 as well as the Aviation Amendment Act 10 of 1991 empowered the aviation inspectors with delegated powers of the Director of Civil Aviation to suspend aviation activities of an operator if he/she violates civil aviation laws. This activity could include withdrawing

the license concerned or in some cases, grounding an aircraft. However, the powers of the aviation inspectors were limited because of the involvement of the Government Attorney General, since the DCA was part of the greater public service. There were standing instructions for aviation inspectors not to exercise powers that could result in litigation, without first consulting with the Attorney General. The situation was aggravated by the fact that most legal opinions solicited from the Attorney General's Office were not treated with the urgency they deserved, rendering the whole aviation enforcement exercise useless, much to the compromise of safety. This practice demoralized the spirit of several Aviation Inspectors who saw their efforts going to waste and some saw no reason for going for specialised and advanced training.

4.6.2. Challenges caused by policies, regulations and practices at the DCA

The purpose of regulations, policies and staff rules were to allow the public service to operate on common practices and standards. The Public Service Staff Rules (PSSR) were written in a form of directives from the Centre at the Office of the Prime Minister and left no room for flexibility for the user Ministry. While the rules were written and circulated for the purposes of promoting efficiency, they in fact worked to the detriment of the progress of the talent management programme.

Several challenges that were encountered during the implementation of the talent management programme came as a result of the DCA being part of the public service of Namibia and subjected to the PSSR. Like many other public services in Africa, the public service of Namibia at the time of the research was characterised by red tape, long decision-making process, compounded by indecisiveness (Hope, 2001). This situation was further compounded by the fact that Public Service Act of 1995 required several role players to be involved in the recruitment process of persons to the public service.

As a result of the above, the public service of Namibia, including the DCA, was process and rule driven rather than results driven. The PSSR were so entrenched in most staff members in the public service of Namibia to an extent that compliance with rules was the ultimate goal of the behaviour of every public servant. This degree of compliance to

the PSSR had the potential of limiting innovative and creative thinking of the public servants.

The study found that one of the more significant challenges was the role of the Public Service Commission in the recruitment and appointment process of persons at the DCA. The PSC is the statutory body established in terms of the Public Service Commission Act, No. 2 of 1990. This Act provides for the establishment of a Public Service Commission in accordance with Chapter 13 of the second Namibian Constitution as amended. The purpose of the PSC is to ensure adherence to government policies, directives, regulations and ethical standards, as well as to ensure fairness and transparency within the Public Service. Concomitant to its advisory powers, the PSC makes recommendations with regard to personal and non-personal personnel matters. Section 5 (1) of the Public Service Act, No. 13 of 1995, provides that the appointment of any person to, or the promotion, transfer or discharge of any staff member in or to or from, the Public Service shall be made by the Prime Minister on the recommendation of the PSC. It should be noted that the Public Service Act, No. 13 of 1995 differentiates between the advisory and recommendatory powers of the PSC. Therefore, the Prime Minister has no power to vary or reject the recommendations of the PSC but can vary or reject its advice. However, in terms of section 9 of the Public Service Act, No. 13 of 1995, only the President of the Republic of Namibia may vary or reject the recommendations of the PSC.

In terms of the above statutory provisions, the PSC was an important role player in the recruitment process in the public service of Namibia. However, the study found that the envisaged important role of the PSC in the recruitment process resulted in delayed finalisation of appointment of persons to the DCA. Furthermore, the PSC was also involved in the appointment of technical persons to the DCA. This caused some challenges because the PSC did not have technical qualifications and experience to make an informed decision on such appointments. Several respondents said the PSC did not understand what was required of technical jobs at the DCA. An example of an incidence where there was a difference in the interpretation of qualifications of a DCA Inspector for Flight Operation was given. According to the Director of Civil Aviation, a DCA

Inspector Flight Operation should have in addition to other formal qualifications, at least five thousand hours of flying on a particular type aircraft. ICAO also prescribes these qualifications. However, according to the Director of Civil Aviation, in this particular case and several others, the PSC insisted that the possession of only a pilot license by the applicant was sufficient to be appointed as a DCA Inspector for Flight Operations. This appointment and several others dragged on for months before they could be finalised as a result of the lack of knowledge in the particular field on the part of the PSC. Eventually, the recommendation of the PSC prevailed because only the President of the Republic of Namibia has the power to reject or vary their recommendations in terms of the Public Service Act.

Another challenge that was caused by the involvement of the PSC in the management of personnel administration was the norms guideline norms that were put in place for the creation of positions as well as creating of a staff establishment. In terms of the norms that existed at the PSC at the time of the study, no OMAs were allowed to create positions that were not in line with their mandate. For example, the DCA could not be allowed to create a position of a Medical Examiner because the PSC believed that such positions could only be on the establishment of the Ministry of Health and Social Services. Similarly, DCA could not be allowed to create a position of a Legal Officer because the PSC believed that such positions could only be on the establishment of the Ministry of Justice.

Furthermore, the Personnel Administrative Measures (PAM) of the job category Aviation Safety that was approved by the PSC also caused some challenges. In terms of the PAM, the PSC had approved generic entry requirements into the job category Aviation Safety, without taking into consideration different post designations that make up Aviation Safety. It should be noted that the job category Aviation Safety consist of Aircraft Operations Inspectors, Airworthiness Inspectors, Aerodrome Inspectors as well as Personnel Licencing Inspectors. The approved PAM did not take into account the fact that one needed a different type of skills set to perform a job of an Aircraft Operations Inspectors compared to that of an Airworthiness Inspectors. The same would apply post designations of Aerodrome Inspectors as well as Personnel Licencing

Inspectors. This situation created problems when it came to advertisements because all the four post designations that make up the occupational group Aviation Safety were lumped together and given a generic description.

4.6.3. Challenges caused by a lack of technically experienced and qualified personnel at the DCA

The reports further indicated that the Directorate of Civil Aviation also experienced a severe shortage of technically qualified and experienced staff in all sections of aviation safety oversight. The situation was exacerbated by the absence of adequately qualified senior personnel on the management of the DCA to give directions to its operations. For example, in 1998 the Aircraft Registration and Airworthiness sections had only two staff members responsible for the surveillance and control of the airworthiness of nearly 500 aircraft in accordance with Civil Aviation Regulations. The Designated Examiners were unable to monitor the performance of flight training establishments and the competency of flight crew on a regular basis. This situation resulted in the civil aviation industry “self-regulating” itself to an extent that was not acceptable taking international standards into account. The reports also reveal that this situation further resulted in the Republic of Namibia’s inability to fulfil its international obligations under the Convention on International Civil Aviation to which it is a party.

The situation at the DCA was worsened by the fact that it could not recruit its own technically experienced and qualified personnel for various reasons. Among such reasons was the unavailability of such technically qualified people in the Namibian market. The other reason was that since the DCA was part of the public service, some of the public service regulations at that time prohibited the DCA from recruiting without following the public service procedures. Therefore, other recruitment processes such as headhunting and giving salary purchase offers to highly skilled technicians could not be done without prior written permission of the Public Service Commission. This permission was not easily obtained. As a result of this the DCA was unable to appoint and retain technical expertise required to fulfil Namibia’s obligations under the Convention on International Civil Aviation.

Available documents also show that the accidents and incidents investigation section was part of the DCA in 1998. However, the International Civil Aviation regulations required that the aircraft accident and incident investigations section should be an autonomous and independent function and should not be part of a regulatory authority such as the DCA. Since the accidents and incidents investigations section was part of the DCA, it was viewed that this practice compromised the findings of accident and incident investigations that were conducted at the time.

Furthermore, the absence of technical operational manuals and guidelines, as well as an acute staff shortage resulted in the Directorate of Civil Aviation system being inappropriate to the scope and level of aviation activities generated within its national airspace at that time. This weakness led to an eroded civil aviation system, which significantly reduced the role and the standing of the Directorate of Civil Aviation in the international aviation community, particularly with the ICAO.

As a result of the above-mentioned challenges experienced at the DCA, several accidents and incidents had occurred in Namibian airspace. Information at the Directorate of Accident and Incident Investigations (DAII) showed that the Namibian airspace had recorded accidents and incidents over a period of ten years as depicted in table 10 below:

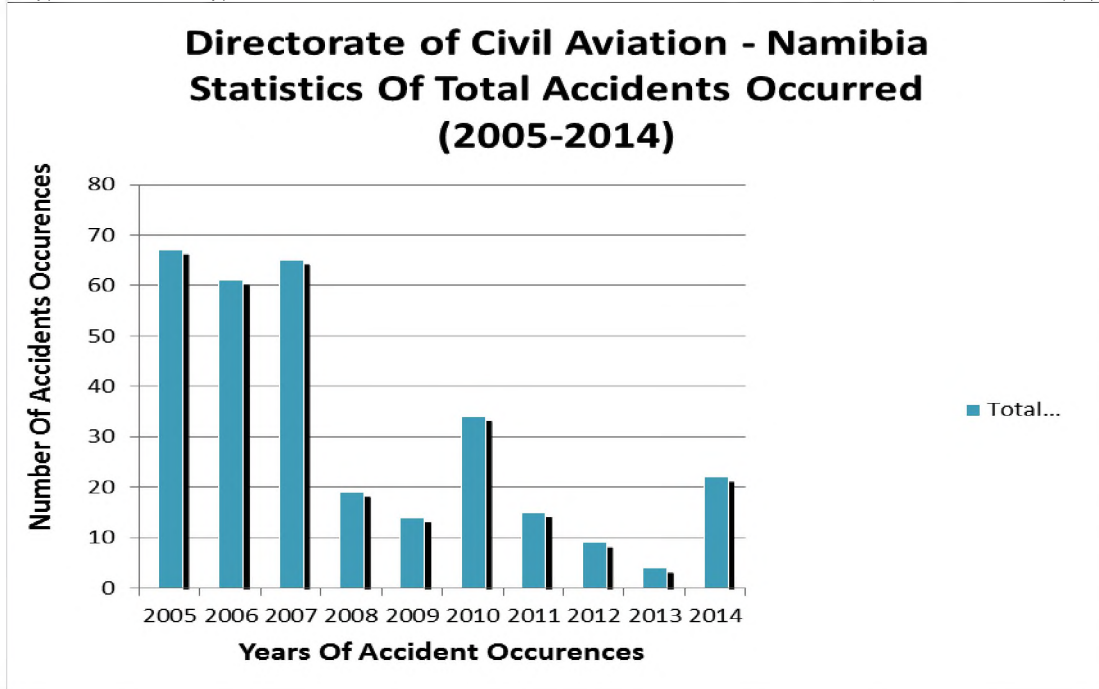
Table 10: Accidents and incidents statistics at DAII (Source: own table)

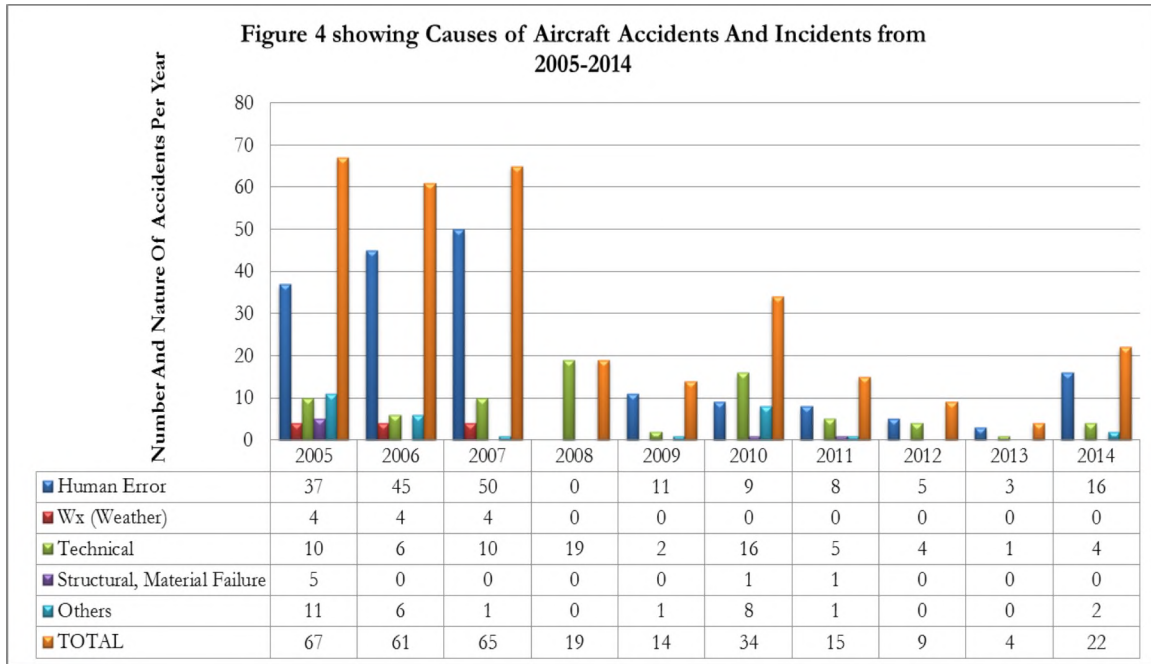
2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
67	61	65	41	49	34	15	9	4	21

Investigations by the Directorate Aircraft Accident and Incident Investigations (DAAI) into the causes of these accidents and incidents highlighted many factors such as inadequate flying hours of pilots; aircrafts not properly serviced by registered establishments; and little or no supervision on the part of the regulator (in this case the Directorate of Civil Aviation). Although this study was restricted to the period 2008 to

2014, the researcher decided to demonstrate the effect of the talent management programme at the DCA by showing the number of accident and incidents occurrences three years before the commencement of the programme from 2005 as indicated above in order to afford the reader an opportunity to appreciate the actual positive effects of the talent management programme at the DCA. The above-mentioned incidents and accidents in the Namibian skies are represented below in the form of graphs. Figure 3 depicts number of incidents and accidents from 2005 to 2014 while Figure 4 depicts the causes of incidents and accidents during the same period.

Figure 3: Showing number of incidents and accidents from 2005-2014, (Source: Own Graph)





4.6.4. Challenges caused by the absence of a substantive Director of Civil Aviation

The absence of a substantive Director of Civil Aviation during the implementation of the talent management programme even in the presence of an Acting Director of Civil Aviation caused its fair share of challenges to the programme. The appointment of the Director of Civil Aviation is governed by Section 5(1) of the Aviation Act No. 74 of 1962, as amended (“the Aviation Act”), which provides that the Minister shall upon such conditions as he or she may determine, appoint a person as Director: Civil Aviation, whose competency shall be relevant to the appointment concerned. Section 5(3) of the Aviation Act provides that before appointing the Director of Civil Aviation the Minister shall consult with the representatives of the organisations, bodies or institutions approved, designated, certificated or licensed under the Aviation Act.

The study found both the Director of Civil Aviation as well as the Acting Director of Civil Aviation of Namibia was appointed using the Public Service Acts of 1980 and 1995 respectively instead of the Aviation Amendment Act No. 10 of 1991. The substantive Director of Civil Aviation was appointed on 1 June 1996 in terms of the provisions of

the Public Service Act No. 2 of 1980, on the recommendations of the Public Service Commission, which appointment was, subsequently ratified by Cabinet. This appointment should have been made by the Minister of Works and Transport in terms of Section 5(1) of the Aviation Amendment Act of 1991.

When the substantive Director of Civil Aviation was posted to represent Namibia at ICAO Headquarters in Montreal, Canada, an Acting Director of Civil Aviation was appointed by the Minister, in August 2007, in terms of Section 4 (1) of the Aviation Amendment Act No. 10 of 1991, and was empowered to be in charge of the DCA matters pursuant to regulation 183:001 (b) of the Namibia Civil Aviation Regulations (NAMCARS) of 2001. On 7 September 2007, the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport issued another letter of appointment to the Acting Director of Civil Aviation, directing that she was assigned duties in terms of section 31 (1) of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995 as Director: Civil Aviation with immediate effect until further notice.

It should be noted that Section 31 (1) quoted by the Permanent Secretary provided that: “the Permanent Secretary of any office, ministry or agency may with due regards to the exigencies of the Public Service direct any staff member under his/her control to perform, for such period as that permanent secretary may determine, duties or work other than his/her ordinary duties or work or duties or work appropriate to the grade or designation of the post or rank held by him/her and he/she shall comply with that direction”.

Although there was an Acting Director of Civil Aviation at all times since August 2007, most respondents were of the view that she was always not sure of her authority, particularly when her appointment procedure was also questioned. As a result of this, the Acting Director could not provide effective leadership to the organisation since most staff members at the DCA criticised the appointment procedure and had an attitude of not showing respect. A further challenge that was caused by the absence of a substantive Director of Civil Aviation that resulted in affecting the talent management programme was that the Acting Director did not have power on both human and financial resources of the DCA. The Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and

Transport had authority and power to exercise control over both financial and human resources of the DCA. Since there was no good relationship between the Permanent Secretary and the Acting Director of Civil Aviation, the challenge was even worse. However, this matter would not have been an issue where there was a sound working relationship between the Permanent Secretary and the Acting Director of Civil Aviation.

The final challenge in this area was the unhappiness of the Acting Director of Civil Aviation as a result of the prolonged period of non-confirmation to her substantive position. When the Acting Director of Civil Aviation was eventually appointed to a substantive position of Director of Civil Aviation, the Public Service Commission said they did not recommend the appointment and therefore could not determine a remuneration package for the position. They argued that the appointment was made in consultation with the civil aviation industry and approved by the minister as was required by the law. The Public Service Commission said it had no mandate to do so. As a result, the Director of Civil Aviation spent a significant amount of time in settling her conflicts instead of making sure that the talent management programme succeeded.

4.6.5. Challenges as the result of absence of leadership at most levels of the DCA organisational structures

As indicated above, the talent management programme started while there was no substantive Director of Civil Aviation at the DCA. Similarly, there were also several other “Chiefs” positions that could not be filled during the implementation of the talent management programme for a number of reasons, including the unavailability of skills, as well as unattractive salaries at the DCA. As a result of the above-mentioned issues, the talent management programme faced the following two challenges. The first one was the absence of substantive senior people to provide leadership during the programme. The second one was that even where senior appointments were made, they were in acting capacities in most cases. While people in an acting position should enjoy all the powers of a permanent appointment, those appointed in acting positions were of the view that they did not have adequate power to direct others. Even in situations where specific individuals were brave enough to assume that they had power to exercise

control over others, some staff members did not appreciate their authority because they were in acting positions, although they knew that the talent management programme was meant for their benefit. As a result of this, the talent management programme experienced some challenges in this regard.

4.6.6. Challenges caused by communication issues

Effective communication is important for the successful implementation of any programme. It would appear that one of the major challenges that affected the talent management programme was the absence of an effective communication strategy during the implementation process. The leader must be able to share knowledge and ideas and to transmit a sense of urgency and enthusiasm to others. Therefore, communication is not just what one says, but also how one says it.

Several respondents, particularly those in junior positions expressed their disappointment about the absence of information and consultations by management during the talent management programme. It was reported that junior staff members were not properly informed about the introduction of the talent management programme and what it aimed to achieve. They said that occasionally they would notice some announcements posted on the notice boards of the DCA without a formal gathering that would attempt to engage them on the subject matter on the notice board. Some respondents said they expected management to actively involve them in all decision-making activities that affected them during the implementation of the talent management programme. They also said they had expected management to address their problems with a sense of urgency during the implementation of the talent management programme. They also expect a reasonable amount of support and encouragement for their work. However, this was not the case, because of the absence of platforms for interactions with each other.

4.6.7. Challenges of succession management planning at the DCA

According to Sharma *et al.*, (2011), succession management planning is a process that should be aligned with the business plan in order to meet the requirements for key positions in the organisation. In this regard, succession management planning is a very important function that enables managers to identify and nurture the right candidates for strategic positions in an organisation. Therefore, succession management planning is an imperative activity of any talent management programme because it addresses the imminent critical leadership shortage in most organisations. It is for these reasons that stream four of talent management literature suggests that organisations should have a succession management plan in place in order to adequately prepare “B performers” so that they can take over the places of “A performers,” while “C performers” are prepared to take over from “B performers”.

It is often said that success without a successor is failure (Chandrasekar & Zhao, 2015). This means that the success of a programme should be measured by its ability to produce successors who can still carry on with it in the absence of the mentors and champions. The study found that the DCA did not have succession management plan in place. It is equally true that the positions of “Chiefs” on the establishment of the DCA were vacant for most of the period of implementation of the talent management programme. There were no senior people in “Chiefs” positions to act as mentors to the juniors in order to transfer skills to them. Therefore, the absence of a succession management plan as well the vacant positions at middle management level (Chiefs positions) created serious challenges for the programme.

4.7. RESULTS OF THE TALENT MANAGEMENT PROGRAMME

The results of the talent management programme at the DCA are discussed as follows:

4.7.1. Training outcomes at the DCA

The outcome of several training interventions in safety related areas, such as Aircraft Operations, Airworthiness of Aircrafts, Aerodromes and ground aids as well as Personnel licencing, is demonstrated by Figure 5 below:

Figure 5: Depiciting the overall and specific training area before and after 2014 ICAO audit
(Source: ICVM Report 2014)



Figure 5 above shows two areas of training. The first area (left side of the graph) shows the overall training areas that took place before the ICAO audit in 2006 compared to the results after a similar audit in 2014. The graph shows that there was significant improvement from 41.18 per cent in 2006 to 52.94 per cent in 2014 in terms of improving the technical qualifications and experience of staff. Records at the DCA also showed that they did not have a proper training policy in place as well specific training programmes in place before the study. The graph shows that the DCA improved from 26.32 per cent in 2006 to 31.50 per cent in 2014 in terms of its training policy and programmes. The DCA had poor record keeping of their training plans before the

commencement of the study. However, the graph above shows improvements from 41.67 per cent to 50.00 per cent in terms of keeping their records of their training plans and activities.

There were also significant improvements with regard to specific training areas (reflected by the right side of the graph). In terms of training staff in Aircraft Operations there were improvements from 28.57 per cent before the ICAO audit in 2006 to 42.86 per cent in 2014 after a similar audit. In the area of Airworthiness of Aircrafts, the audit recorded improvements from 28.57 per cent in 2006 to 57.14 per cent in 2014. Similarly, an improvement from 20.00 per cent in 2006 to 50.00 per cent in 2014 was achieved in the area of Personnel Licencing. However, no improvements were recorded for training activities in the area of Aerodromes and Ground Aids, which remained at 50.00 per cent both in 2006 and 2014.

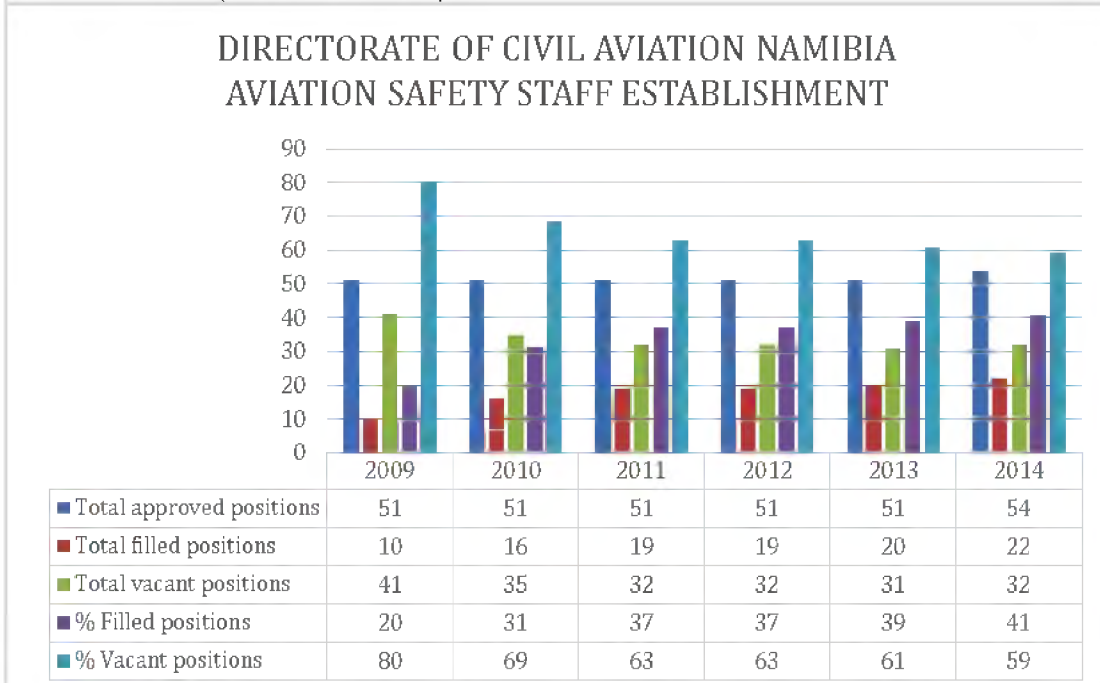
4.7.2. General staffing situation at the DCA

This section discusses the results of the talent management programme (TMP) by comparing the staffing situation at the DCA before 2008 to that of 2014. As it was already mentioned earlier, the lack of qualified professionals at the DCA to effectively perform the state's regulatory and oversight function as contained in the Chicago Convention of 1944 was identified by previous ICAO audits as a major problem that resulted in safety concerns in the Namibian skies. The 2008 inception report completed by ICAO experts showed that the lack of adequate human resources at the DCA hindered the accomplishment and implementation of an effective safety oversight system in Namibia. Primarily, the safety oversight responsibility of the state was measured on the effectiveness of the various disciplines of the DCA such as Aircraft Operations, Airworthiness of Aircrafts, the safety of aerodromes and ground aids, as well as Personnel Licencing.

In this regard, it should also be noted that one of the four critical elements (CE) that was found inadequate during the 2006 audit was CE-4 that deals with the state's inability

to provide qualified technical personnel and to provide appropriate training to them. Therefore, to remedy the situation, efforts were made to increase the numbers of the general staff establishment of the DCA, including technical positions, although the filling of many key positions remained a challenge as a result of skills scarcity in the country. On the recommendation of the PSC and the approval of the Prime Minister, the overall staff establishment of the DCA was increased to 143 positions between 2008 and December 2014. This number included the regulatory services; the Aeronautical Information Services; the Air Navigation Services; the Air Traffic Services, Search and Rescue; as well as the administrative support. However, only 81 positions out of the 143 total approved positions were filled by December 2014. There were progressive improvements with regard to the staffing situation in the areas of aviation safety at the DCA as depicted in Figure 6 below from 2009 to 2014:

Figure 6: Depicting approved, filled and vacant positions in aviation safety at the DCA from 2009-2014 (Source: Own Graph)



It should be noted that aviation safety (regulatory part) of the DCA consisted of disciplines such as such as Flight Operations, Airworthiness, Aerodrome and Ground

Aids as well as Personnel Licencing. According to the records at the DCA, this component had an approved staff component of 48 between 2004 and 2008. This number included administrative staff, professional and technical positions in the areas of Flight Operations, Airworthiness, Aerodromes and Ground Aids as well as Personnel Licencing. These were the positions that constituted the regulatory functions as well performing functions commonly referred to as aviation safety Inspectors. These positions excluded the Aeronautical Information Services; the Air Navigation Services; the Air Traffic Services, Search and Rescue. As depicted in the graph above, in January 2009 the total number on the approved aviation safety positions on the establishment of the DCA was increased to 51. However, only 10 positions were filled while 41 remained vacant. In January 2010, the total number on the approved establishment of the DCA remained 51. Only 16 positions were filled while 35 remained vacant. In December 2011 the number remained at 51. Only 19 positions were filled while 32 remained vacant. In December 2012, the total number of the approved aviation safety positions on the establishment of the DCA was 51. Only 19 positions were filled while 32 remained vacant. Similarly, in the year 2013 only 20 out of the 51 positions were filled while 31 remained vacant. By 31 December 2014 only 22 positions out of the 54 positions were filled while 32 remained vacant.

4.7.3. Privileges and approvals at the DCA

Issuing Approvals and exercising of certain privileges as stipulated in the Namibian Civil Aviation Regulations (NAMCARS) is an important function performed by the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) of Namibia. Prior to the introduction and implementation of the talent management programme at the DCA, many inspectors were less qualified and had inadequate, appropriate knowledge, experience, and skill related to safety oversight than the personnel whose activities they will audit, certificate, and supervise. As a result, the DCA had an imbalanced regulatory regime where industry was allowed to exercise certain privileges that they could not demonstrate competencies. For example, in the area of Type Certificate, acceptance and validation, minor and major modification approvals and other airworthiness engineering approvals were issued without full understanding and adherence to the regulatory framework and procedures.

The addition of the inspectors with an engineering background and industry experience significantly improved the implementation of the approval process. Procedures are now followed, and this has significantly improved the efficient implementation of airworthiness engineering related approvals.

In the area of flights inspection, the DCA had no capability of carrying out oversight of the National Airlines complex operations. As a result, approvals and authorisation to exercise certain privileges were dictated by the airline and given without adequately demonstrating the appropriate due process of approval. The newly introduced skills-set has resulted in Flight Operations Inspectors performing more complex airline inspections and audits that led to the improvement of Air Namibia's operations and safety performance. For example, Air Namibia's approval to carry dangerous goods was withdrawn in 2013 due to the lack of capacity to issue the approval by the Flight Operations section and the absence of evidence demonstrating that the airline could maintain the condition under which the approval was initially granted. As a result of the enforcement action taken by the Directorate of Civil Aviation, the airline was encouraged to invest the necessary resources to regain the DCA's confidence and for it to reinstate the approval.

In the area of Personnel Licencing, the inspector qualification and experience has improved to an extent that they are now able to develop personnel licencing (PEL) related implementation guidance materials for the carrying out of their regulatory oversight responsibilities. This newly acquired skill-set was non-existent before the introduction of the talent management programme. A good example is the introduction of the English language proficiency testing system for pilots. This allowed Namibia to meet the ICAO requirement in this area.

In the area of Aerodromes and Ground Aids (AGA), some technical guidance materials that were non-existent for inspectors are now available for their use. The inspector ratio for this area has increased from one inspector providing AGA related oversight to five inspectors. Additionally, as a result of the intense training received by the inspectors previously issued approvals of airport designs and construction projects, or structural

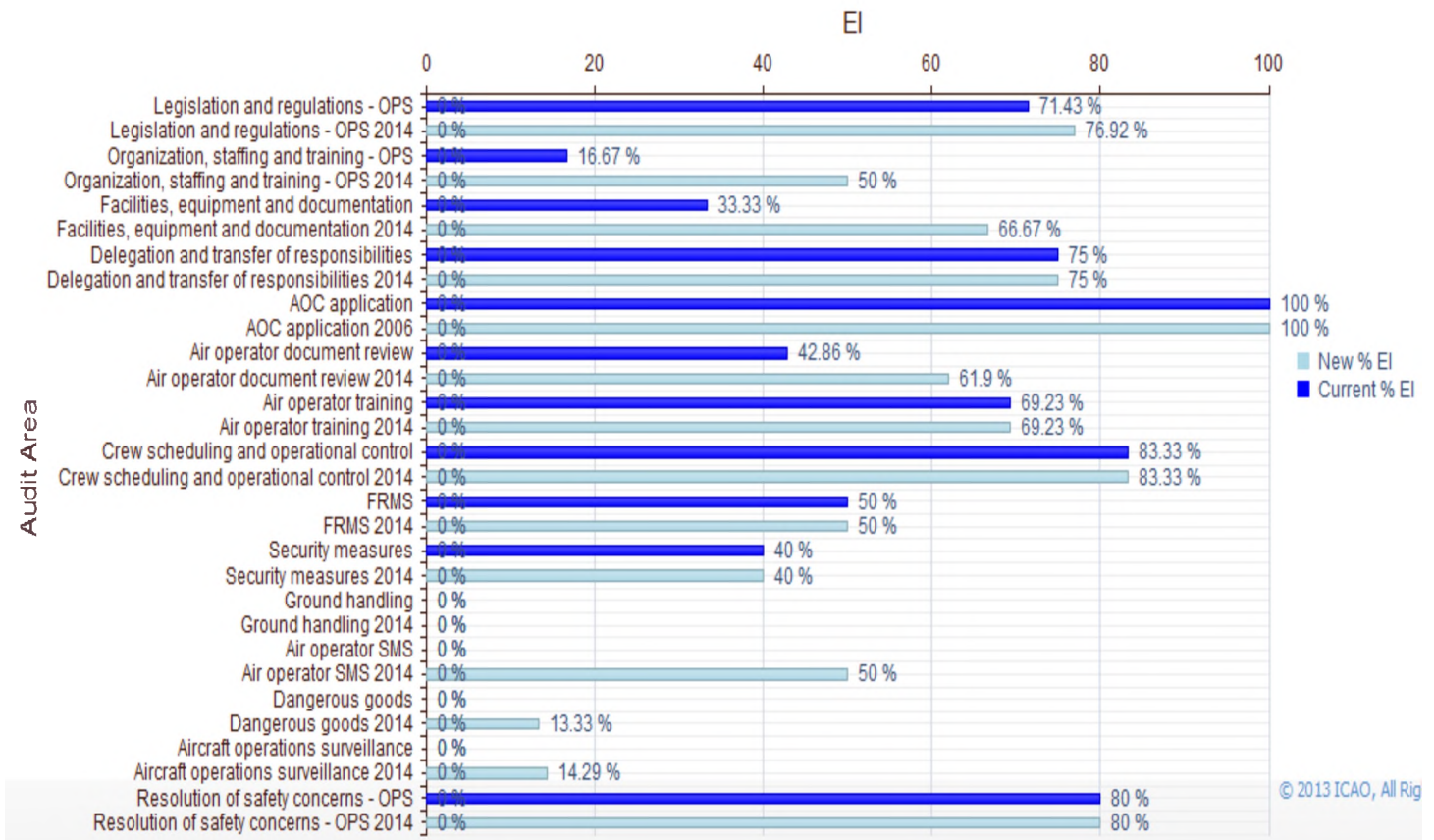
improvements at the airport that did not follow due process, were subjected to a rigorous regulatory review and certification. This resulted in the withdrawal in some cases and the re-issuance of other aerodrome approvals.

The introduction of the Fit and Proper Test as part of the approval processes of key post holders for all Air Operators Certificate holders was as a result of the talent management programme. This has significantly improved the competencies and qualification of post-holders to exercise the required regulatory compliance functions.

4.7.4. Improved performance of flight operations discipline

As a result of several interventions of the talent management programme, the activities of the made Flight Operations section at the DCA improved significantly between 2006 and 2014. This situation was confirmed by the findings of the ICAO Coordination Validation Mission (ICVM) team to Namibia, referred to as the audit team that took place from 16 to 22 July 2014. According to the ICVM report, performance of the Flight Operations section of the DCA had improved from 28.57 per cent in 2006 to 42.86 per cent in 2014. Equally, the number of Flight Operations Inspectors had increased from one in 2008 to three in 2014. Figure 7 below depicts the performance of the Flight Operations section in several audit areas that were conducted and their corresponding performance per audit area and compares what was the situation with the last ICAO audit in 2006 to ICVM findings what in 2014. Although the graph shows several improvements in various elements of Flight Operations, there were equally many other areas where non-performance was clearly visible.

Figure 7: Depicting the performance of the flight operation before and after 2014 ICAO audit
 (Source: ICVM Report, 2014)

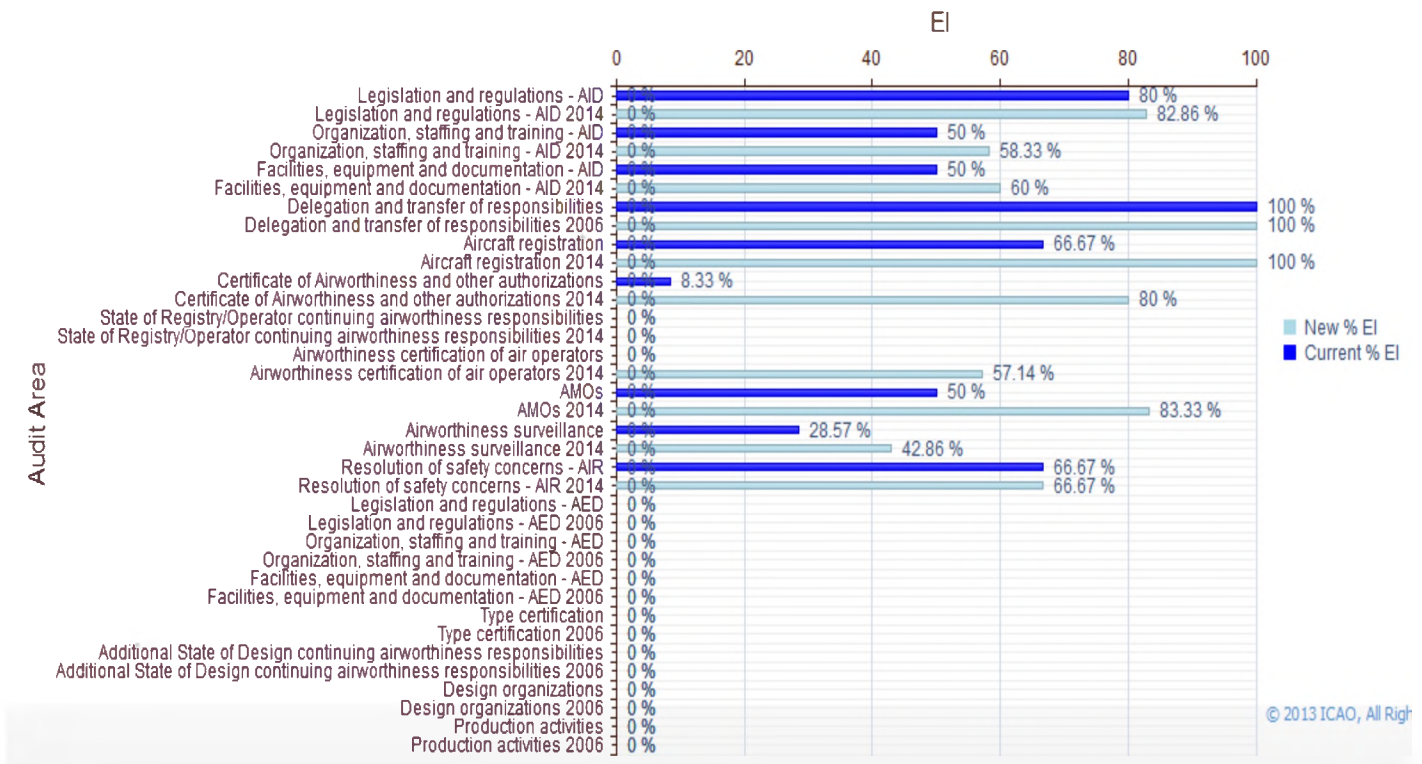


4.7.5. Improved performance of airworthiness discipline

The talent management programme at the DCA also showed some positive results in the discipline of aircraft airworthiness. This was also confirmed by the findings of the ICAO Coordination Validation Mission (ICVM) team to Namibia, referred to as the audit team that took place from 16 to 22 July 2014. According to the 2014 ICVM report, the airworthiness section of the DCA had improved its performance from 28.57 per cent in 2006 to 57.14 per cent in 2014. Equally, the number of Airworthiness Inspectors had increased from three in 2008 to eight in 2014. See Figure 8 shows several audit areas that were performed in the discipline of airworthiness and their corresponding performance per audit area. It should be noted that although there was an increase in the number of

Airworthiness Inspectors to eight in 2014, only three out of the eight Airworthiness Inspectors fully satisfied the ICAO experience and qualification requirements.

Figure 8: Depicting the performance of the aircraft airworthiness section before and after 2014 ICAO audit. (Source: ICVM Report, 2014)



4.7.6. Aerodrome and ground aid

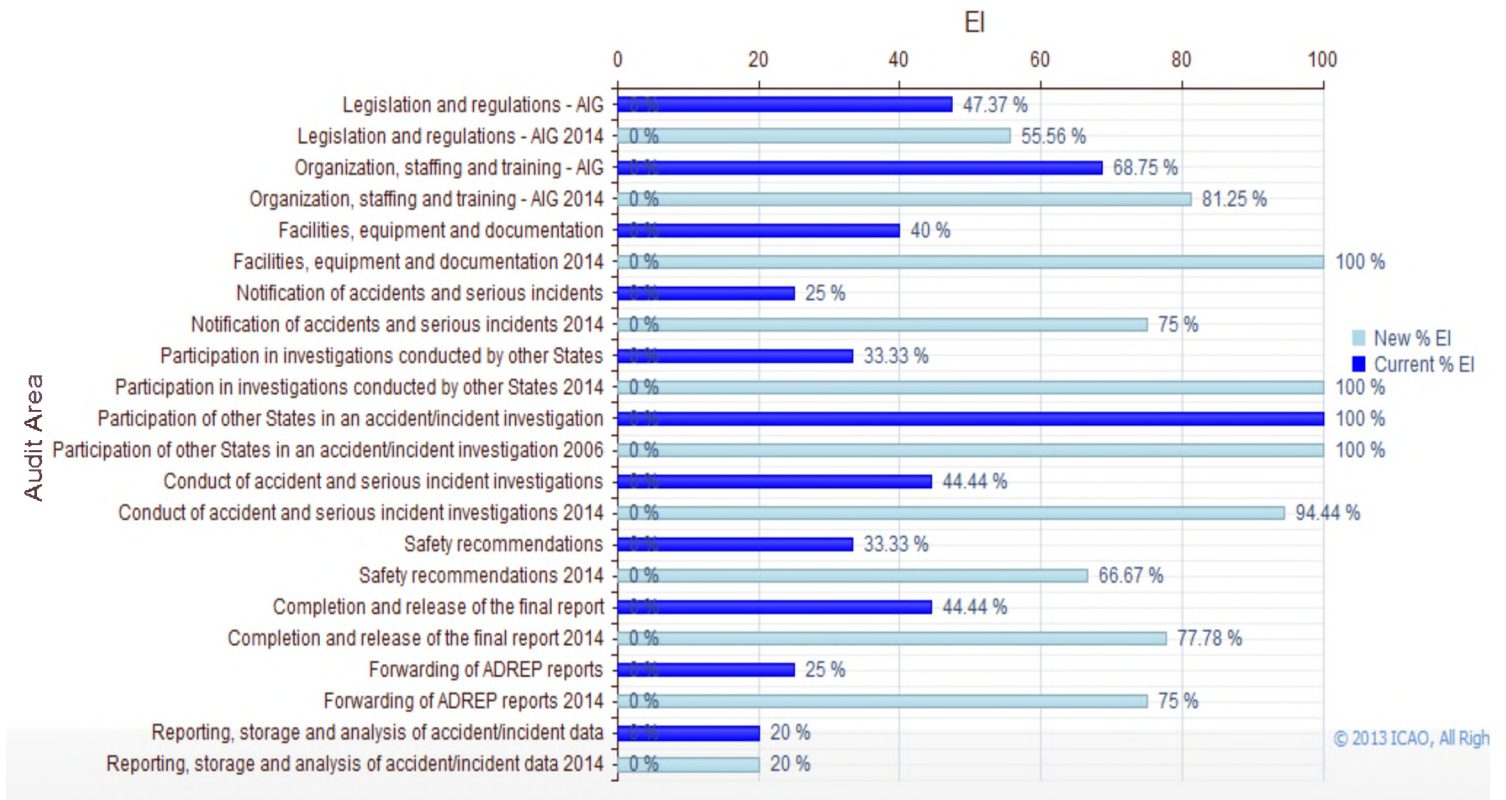
Figure 9 below depicts significant improvement in the overall performance of Aerodrome section of the DCA between the audit results of 2006 compared to those of 2014. The improvements were recorded in the following audit areas:

- Legislations and regulations improved by 8.19 per cent;
- Organisation, staffing and training improved by 12.5 per cent;
- Facilities, equipment and documentation by 60 per cent;
- Notification of accidents and serious incidents by 50 per cent;
- Participation in investigations conducted by other states by 67 per cent;

- Conduct of accidents and serious incident investigations by 50 per cent;
- Safety recommendations by 33.34 per cent; and
- Completion and release of final report by 33.34 per cent.

However, there were no improvements in the audit area that deals with participation of other states an accident and incident investigations remained fully complied with at 100 per cent in both 2006 and 2014 while reporting, storage and analysis of accidents/incidents date remained the same for both years.

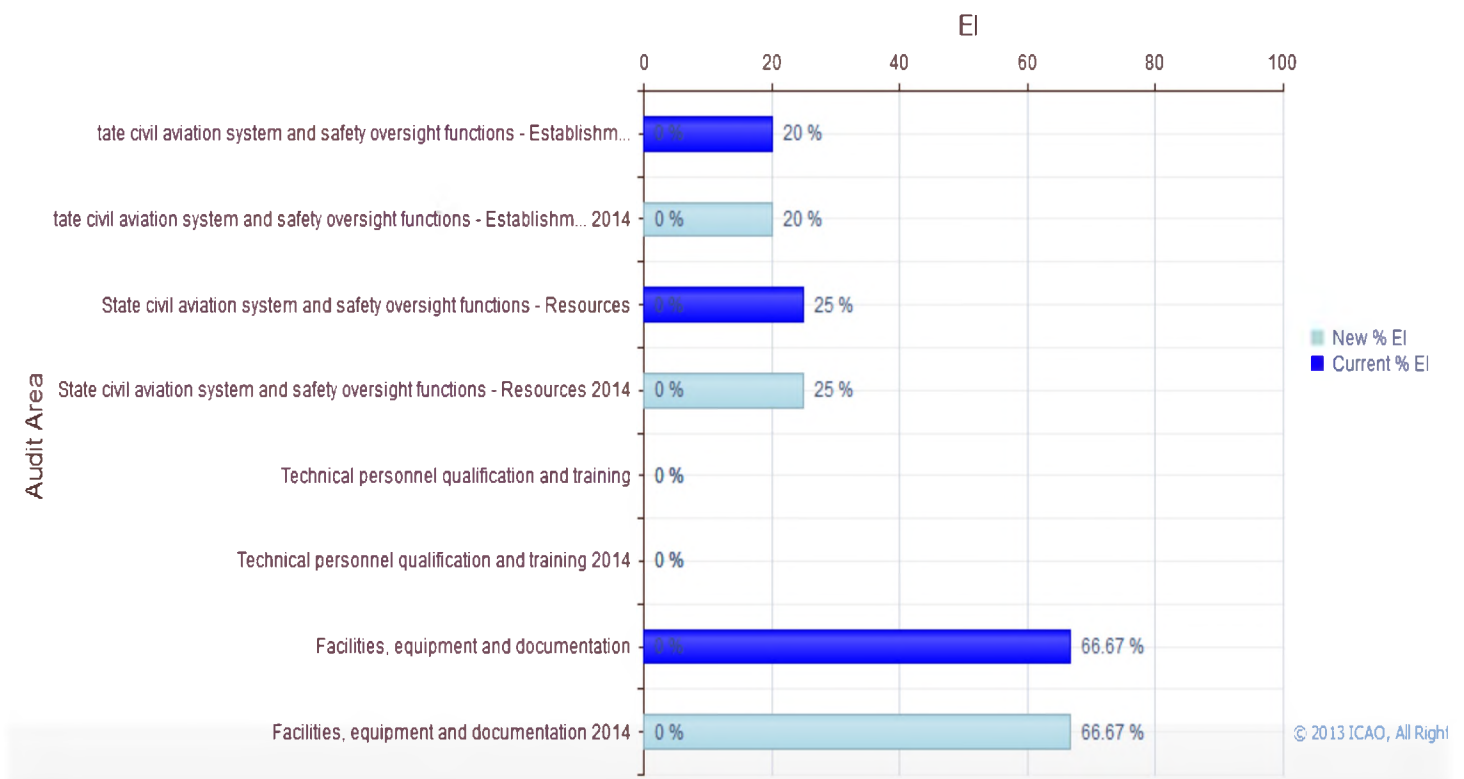
Figure 9: Depicting the performance of aerodrome and ground aids section before and after 2014 ICAO audit. (Source: ICVM Report, 2014)



4.7.7. Personnel licencing section

Figure 10 below shows that there was no improvement in the overall performance of the Personnel Licencing section of the DCA in various audit areas. The situation remained the same in all audit areas in 2014 compared to the audit results of 2006. The reasons for non-performance could be attributed to poor staffing situation in the particular section. The overall staffing situation at Personnel Licencing and Certification section was only two in December 2014 compared to nothing in 2006. This state of affairs limited the operations of the section.

Figure 10: Depicting the non-performance of personnel and certification section before and after 2014 ICAO audit (*Source: ICVM Report, 2014*)



4.8. CONCLUSION

The civil aviation industry is an extremely safety-sensitive and high technology service industry. Specifically, in an aviation regulatory system, a situation where both safety and technology are compromised could lead to a lack of effective safety oversight system. Therefore, the ability of an aviation regulatory authority to attract, recruit and retain suitably qualified personnel remains paramount. The presence of such technical experienced and qualified personnel at the regulatory authority such as the DCA to guide and carry out safety oversight activities remains an important cornerstone in securing healthy global aircraft operating environment.

The DCA of Namibia demonstrated serious Civil Aviation System deficiencies during the audits of 1996, 2001, 2004 and 2006 that needed to be addressed. Although the 2014 ICAO audit results showed significant improvement in effective implementation by overall critical elements of a safety oversight system from 48.04 per cent in 2006 to 59.69 per cent, this figure still fell short of both the African average effective implementation level that stood at 60 per cent. The Ministerial Conference on Aviation Safety in Africa that was held in Abuja, Nigeria in 2012; agreed that the acceptable implementation level be 60 per cent. The 59.69 per cent effective implementation achieved by Namibia also fell below the world average effective implementation level of 65 per cent. The Namibian situation is not desirable in civil aviation. Although it could be argued that Namibia had attained the African standards in overall critical elements of a safety oversight system, falling behind of the international standards could subject her to certain requirements before using the air spaces of other contracting member states. For example, a particular economic block in Europe may decide to impose restrictive movements of Namibian registered airlines in their airspace since Namibia does not meet the required 65 per cent world average effective implementation level on safety related aspects.

This study is about talent management at the DCA. In terms of the eight critical elements established by ICAO as areas to determine the state's ability to deal with its

safety oversight responsibilities, critical elements 3 and 4 (CE-3 and 4) relate to talent management, because they deal with the number of technical personnel required, and who have the minimum knowledge and experience required to perform safety oversight functions. They also deal with the provision of appropriate training to maintain staff competence at the desired level and enhance it. Although notable ICAO audit progress was made with regard to both CE-3 (the establishment of a civil aviation authority, headed by a Chief Executive Officer, supported by the appropriate and adequate technical and non-technical staff) and CE-4 (Technical personnel qualifications and training) from 45.56 per cent in 2006 to 56.67 per cent in 2014 and 34.18 per cent in 2006 to 41.77 per cent in 2014 respectively. Both critical elements still fell short from the African and world average effective implementation level of 60 per cent and 65 per cent respectively.

By December 2014, the DCA still did not have enough technical staff to cope with its safety related oversight responsibilities, despite concerted efforts made over the years through the talent management programme to increase the staff complement of suitably skilled and qualified personnel to undertake responsibilities as inspectors in various safety oversight related functions. As a result of the absence of a critical mass of suitably skilled and qualified personnel in Namibia, the DCA continuously failed to meet ICAO mandatory requirement for Flight Operations Inspectors. The ICAO requires that in order for a regulatory authority such as the DCA to effectively regulate airline it is necessary for such a regulatory authority to have Flight Operations Inspectors with pilot qualifications and experience equivalent or more to the pilot qualifications and experience found in the airline that is to be regulated. However, the DCA did not have pilots with such required extensive qualifications and experience. The DCA needed pilots with large jet transport aircraft experience in order to effectively regulate the operations of Air Namibia.

Consequently, as a result of the DCA's inability to appoint suitably qualified Namibians in sufficient numbers, the ICAO international experts, whose role was primarily to assist the local staff, were actively involved in day-to-day operations and activities of the DCA in addition to their own terms of reference. More and suitably qualified technical staff

members, in the areas of Personnel Licencing, Airworthiness, Flight Operations and Aerodromes Safety as well as certification were still needed by December 2014.

There were two main reasons that led to the inability of the DCA to attract and retain a critical mass of suitably qualified Namibians. The first one was the absence of sufficient numbers of people with aviation qualifications in Namibia. The second reason was the limited salary levels that the government could offer in comparison to those offered by the industry. This has resulted in the inability of the DCA to attract and retain the professional services of technical aviation personnel, hence the reason for the high staff turnover. The absence of technically qualified personnel also resulted in the state's civil aviation system being inappropriate to the scope and level of aviation activities generated within its national airspace. This weakness has led to the erosion in the civil aviation system, which significantly reduced the role of the DCA and, its ability to proactively respond to its international and domestic contractual obligations.

CHAPTER 5

TALENT MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES

5.1. INTRODUCTION

This is the second chapter that presents the findings of the study on talent management at the DCA of Namibia. This chapter deals with the research objective that describes and analyses the talent management strategies that were adopted in managing strategic positions to implement the corrective action plan (CAP) at the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in Namibia. This chapter is different from the previous chapter because its objective is to analyse the talent management strategies that were adopted in managing strategic positions to implement the corrective action plan (CAP) at the Directorate of Civil Aviation, while Chapter 4 simply described the activities of talent management, which were used to implement the corrective action plan.

The overall structure of the sections of this chapter is as follows. First, the modified definition of talent management that is used for the purposes of this study is also offered again. This definition as adapted from Collings and Mellahi (2009) is repeated because the talent management strategies that are discussed in this chapter are based on the activities of talent management that form part of the definition. Second, the chapter reminds the reader of the deductive nature the study adopted and demonstrates how literature reviewed has helped in arriving at the results of the study. Third, the chapter discusses the talent management strategies that were used to implement the corrective action plan (CAP) at the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in Namibia, using the five activities of talent management. These activities include the identification/creation of strategic positions; the attraction, recruitment and selection of staff to strategic positions; the succession management plans to strategic positions; the retention strategies to strategic positions; as well as the training and development of people that should occupy strategic positions, followed by the conclusion.

As discussed in the previous chapters, the definition by Collings and Mellahi (2009) was adapted by the researcher for the purposes of this study to define talent management and it is as follows: “talent management is a process of (1) identification and/or creation of key positions, which differentially and strategically contribute to the organisation’s performance, (2) the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill those strategic roles, and (3) the development of a different human resources architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation, through activities of recruitment and selection, succession management planning, attraction and retention, and training and development.” Using the provisions of the above definition, the five activities of talent management are analysed to understand what strategies were used by the DCA in implementing its corrective action plan.

Given the deductive nature of this study, the approach adopted in presenting the findings is to first note the essential elements of the literature that was reviewed and which informed the fieldwork, followed by the presentation of the relevant research findings. The starting point in a deductive approach is that on the basis of what is known about a particular phenomenon, and based on theoretical considerations, the researcher deduces a hypothesis that must then be subjected to empirical scrutiny (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In other words, from the concepts employed in the theory, the researcher suggests an outcome or situation, which expresses the understandings inherent in the theory. The deductive approach was taken because it has the capability to determine if the activities followed at the DCA when implementing the corrective action plan, supported or refuted the talent management theory. While taking this approach, it should be noted that the fourth emerging stream of talent management informs this research. This particular stream of talent management emphasizes the identification of strategic positions in an organisation. Furthermore, the fourth stream of talent management suggests that the strategic positions should have the potential to make a difference and create a competitive advantage for the organisation (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

In order to analyse the talent management strategies that were adopted to implement the CAP, data were collected using multiple methods and sources such as documentation, interviews and archival records (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Remenyi, 2012; Yen, 1994). In addition, various documents of the DCA as well as those containing various audit results for the years 2006 and 2014 of the ICAO Universal Safety Oversight Audit Programme (USOAP) and several other documents that were available were analysed. Furthermore, in order to analyse the experiences of individuals who underwent the talent management programme for strategic positions, interviews were conducted during field trips where knowledgeable respondents at the DCA were requested to answer to a series of questions (Remenyi, 2013).

According to the ICAO documents, the establishment of the ICAO Universal Safety Oversight Audit Programme (USOAP), comprising regular, mandatory, systematic and harmonized safety audits of all Contracting States was the resolution taken during the 32nd session of the ICAO Assembly. The resolution was taken by the ICAO Assembly on the recommendation by the 1997 Directors General of Civil Aviation Conference on a Global Strategy for Safety Oversight. This resolution gave ICAO the mandate to regularly perform safety audits in all safety-related areas of contracting member states.

5.2. TALENT MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES USED AT THE DCA

It should be recalled that talent management is a management tool encompassing a complex set of activities and processes (Lubitsh & Smith, 2007; Michael *et al.*, 2001). In order to be effective, it is suggested that talent management strategies should support corporate strategies (Collings *et al.*, 2011). In fact, Becker *et al.*, (2009) point out that strategy should come first before anything else. In this regard, Ringo *et al.*, (2008) note that the most important issue is that the organisation should have its own corporate strategy in place before a talent management strategy is developed. Therefore, the organisations' talent management strategies should support the corporate strategies and guide the identification and planning process for future talent needs (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings *et al.*, 2011). It is against this background that Ringo *et al.* (2008) suggest that

talent management strategies should form part of the whole strategic vision and mission of the organisation. It is further argued that when talent management programmes form part of the overall strategic plan of the organisation, they allow for their discussion at every management meeting that reports on the progress of the strategic plan (Ringo *et al.*, 2008). In that way, it becomes a permanent feature of the management agenda. Because of its importance, it is suggested that talent management should not be the sole responsibility of the Human Resources Department of the organisation as has traditionally been the case. Instead, it should be the organisation's collective leadership responsibility that is championed by the Office of the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and supported by the Human Resources Department.

The definition of talent management which was adapted from that of Collings and Mellahi (2009), and used for the purposes of this study identified five activities of talent management. This next section discusses the strategies of talent management that were used at the DCA of Namibia in respect of the following activities of talent management in order to implement the corrective action plan at the DCA of Namibia:

5.2.1. Identification/creation of strategic positions at the DCA

Literature reviewed informed the study that one of the first key activities or processes of talent management is the identification of strategic positions in an organisation, which have the potential to make a difference and create a competitive advantage for it (Becker *et al.*, 2009). Following this theory, it is understood that the parameters are already defined by the existing structure in this case. All one needs to do, according to this approach, is to use established procedures to identify strategic positions. However, the identification process of such strategic positions needs to be embodied in the whole strategic plan of the organisation (Axelrod *et al.*, 2002; Becker *et al.*, 2009; Handfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001). According to Becker *et al.*, (2009), the best talent management strategy should originate from a widely consulted upon strategic plan of the particular organisation.

According to documents that were accessed, the DCA of Namibia had its own strategic plan, which included their talent management strategy. Information obtained from the

documents at the DCA during research indicated that the organisation was already an existing government institution at the time that they implemented the talent management programme. It had its own vision, mission statement as well the strategic goals that it strove to achieve. According to the Deputy Director for Human Resources at the Ministry of Works and Transport, the DCA was a government institution at the time of the research and therefore it was compelled by the Public Service Commission (PSC) regulations to create strategic positions that were informed by the organisation's strategic plan. As a result of this practice of the PSC, strategic positions in the public service of Namibia were not only identified but created too. In this regard, it should be noted that strategic positions at the DCA were created following their strategic plan, and not simply identified. This finding recognised the fact that organisations are not static, but they may keep on expanding and growing. It also further recognised that organisations should be involved in a continuous learning process. Based on this understanding, the finding suggests that the organisational strategy informed the creation of strategic positions at the DCA, instead of the process advocated by theory where strategic positions are simply identified following an agreed upon procedure.

Therefore, the finding of this study does not fully support the existing theory of the fourth stream of talent management that suggests that strategic positions first be identified using a specific procedure. The study found that while theory demanded that this should be done as indicated above, the strategy that was followed at the DCA was to create strategic positions informed by the organisational strategy. In this regard, the organisational strategy informed the DCA as to which positions were mandatory and strategic in order for the organisation to exist so that it can be delivered on its statutory mandate.

5.2.2. Attraction, recruitment and selection strategies at the DCA

Boxall and Purcell (2008) highlight five different questions that an organisation has to answer in order to have an effective attraction, recruitment and selection strategy. These questions are: "Whom to recruit?", "Where to recruit?", "What recruitment sources to use?", "When to recruit?" and "What message to communicate?" When correct answers to these questions are found, it is believed that organisations will be in a better position

to formulate their attraction, recruitment and selection strategies. According to Windolf (1986), recruitment strategies adopted by organisations depend on factors such as resources availability and their environmental dynamics, as well as organisational intelligence and its ability to handle complex labour markets in terms of using professional knowledge to gather and process information, and to devise complex labour market strategies. Furthermore, the reviewed literature also suggests that the attraction, recruitment and selection to strategic positions should not be dealt with in the same way as ordinary positions (Armstrong, 2006; Bluen, 2013; Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2011). It suggests that the advertisement for strategic positions should reflect that such positions are indeed strategic to the organisation and their job descriptions should be as precise as possible. Furthermore, the recruitment process should not be unnecessarily long which might result in potential high-flyer applicants to lose interest (Aspridis, 2009; Becker, *et al.*, 2009; Dessler, 2009; Martin *et al.*, 2002).

As was indicated earlier, the DCA was part of the larger Public Service of Namibia at the time of the study. Therefore, the recruitment strategies that were followed by the DCA were supposed to be within the parameters of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995 as well as the Public Service Staff Rules. According to the Public Service Staff Rule B. II, which is the Recruitment Policy Framework of the Public Service of Namibia, section 6.2 provides that Offices, Ministries and Agencies (OMAs) should express their desire to fill vacant positions in accordance with their strategic plans as well as their annual management plans. Furthermore, in terms of the Public Service Staff Rule B. II of the Recruitment Policy Framework of the Public Service of Namibia, section 6.4.1, advertising was the medium through which vacant posts in the Public Service were made known. In accordance with the provisions of the above-mentioned recruitment policy, and in compliance with the principles of inclusivity, an advertisement should express the following characteristics:

- The areas of search and the medium for advertising should be fairly determined in such a manner that it allows all Namibians within the area of search to have a reasonable opportunity to compete for the position; and

- A balanced structuring of the Public Service should be achieved, reflecting the diversity of the Namibian population.

According to the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport, who was also responsible for Human Resources activities at the DCA, the advertisement of strategic positions that were created within the DCA was treated just like any other ordinary position. Copies of advertisements reviewed indicated that there were no differentiations in the style and method of advertisement between strategic positions and ordinary ones (See Annexure 2 as proof to support this observation). With regards to the length of the recruitment process, several respondents were of the opinion that the recruitment and selection process at the DCA of Namibia was unnecessarily long, taking almost up to six months in some cases. According to the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport, the DCA has lost talent in the past as a result of the lengthy recruitment process. The recruitment policy allows for a maximum number of 60 days for the recruitment process to be completed. However, the study found that most recruitment processes took longer than the prescribed period. The long waiting periods endured by the technically qualified applicants resulted in them losing interest in the DCA and they took up employment with other employers. Information that was available at the DCA showed that seven people withdrew from the recruitment competition between 2008 and 2014. These people withdrew from the recruitment competition while waiting for the outcome of the interview decisions that took long to be concluded. According to several respondents at the DCA, some of the reasons for this delay were as follows:

- The Human Resources Department of the DCA was centralised and it was together with several other departments, from the Ministry of Works and Transport Headquarters;
- There were several role players involved in the recruitment and selection process, as prescribed by the Public Service Act 13 of 1995. In terms of the provisions of the Public Service Act 13 of 1995, the role players in the recruitment process included the DCA, the HR office of the Ministry of Works and Transport, the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry concerned, the Public Service Commission, the Secretary

to the Cabinet and the Prime Minister or whoever he/she had delegated his/her powers to, depending on the level of appointment;

- The unavailability of panel members and the associated problems in the arrangements of interviews; and
- Non-adherence to the period within which to approach the Public Service Commission for recommendations after interviews.

Although the study found that the process of recruitment was too long because of the numerous role players, the integrity of the process was not compromised because it allowed for checks and balances, thereby promoting transparency in the recruitment process. This has partly resulted in better decisions leading to the appointment of quality candidates.

Once the applications to the strategic positions have been received, Aspridis (2013) suggests that the short-listing process of potential candidates to be considered for interviews is another important aspect that leads to the selection of the most suitable candidate. The short-listing process involves determining which applicants meet the minimum key selection criteria to perform the job satisfactorily and/or ranking applicants to progress to the next stage of the selection process (Aspridis, 2013). In this regard, Armstrong (2009) advises that the short-listing process should not be left to the Human Resources Practitioners alone but it should include experts in the specific field in which the applicant is being considered. The study found that once the applications for strategic positions were received, the Human Resources Department at the Ministry of Works and Transport was responsible for deciding on the short-listing criteria and eventually doing the actual short-listing. This was sometimes done with little or no involvement of experts from the DCA. However, it was found that in some cases, the short-listed candidates would be verified and signed off by the Director of Civil Aviation in order to ensure that they met the short-listing criteria that were pre-determined.

After candidates have been short-listed, then follows the process of the selection of the suitable candidate. Several scholars have described selection as the process of picking individuals who have relevant experience based on a certain skills set and qualifications to fill a job in an organisation (Armstrong, 2009; Eze, 2002; Kumari, 2012; Ployhart,

2006). Research suggests that there are several methods of selection including tests and the traditional interview (Armstrong, 2009; Flippo, 1984; Rothstein & Goffin, 2006; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998, Macan, 2009; Opayemi & Oyesola, 2012; Van der Merwe, 2002). The study found that interviewing was the principal method for selection at the DCA of Namibia. The aim of the interview is to reach a considered decision concerning the suitability of a candidate for a particular post. It was also found that realistic standards were often set in respect of the appointment requirements, as well as personal qualifications and capabilities, which candidates should possess at the DCA. Furthermore, it was also found that care was always taken that these standards were not relaxed injudiciously.

In terms of the composition of the interview selection committee, Nel *et al.*, (2010) advises that the committee should have the ability to assess the applicant's social ease, speaking ability, job knowledge and several other factors to avoid the potential of creating bias that ends up in hiring a wrong candidate for a strategic position. In this regard, literature reviewed warns that the real challenge is particularly in finding the right interviewers with right techniques for the specific strategic position and the right number of interviewers (Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2009). Therefore, the process can be flawed if the wrong people, who have no ability to differentiate between those people who have the requisite skills to fill strategic positions and those who do not have, are involved in the interviews for selecting applicants for strategic positions (Bluen, 2013). The study found that the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport was the final approving authority after the names of the interviewing selection committee were proposed by the Human Resources Department. According to the Deputy Director for Administration and Air Navigation (AAN) at the DCA, the Human Resources Division of the Ministry of Works and Transport nominated candidates to the interview selection committee based on the person's general experience of interviews as well as having trained in interviewing skills. In some cases, it was found that no consideration was made to include an expert in aviation on the interviewing selection committee. This approach sometimes resulted in the interviewing selection committee selecting applicants that were not suitable for the position. It is important to note that suitably qualified candidates could be identified when experts in the aviation

field were involved in the interviewing selection committee. To qualify this argument, the Director of Civil Aviation gave an example of an occurrence in the year 2010 when an ICAO expert was involved in the shortlisting and interviewing for positions of Airworthiness Inspectors. In this particular case, the interviewing and selection committee selected three candidates but the appointments were never made because of a disagreement between the Public Service Commission and the Ministry of Works and Transport. This caused unnecessary delays in the appointment of the concerned candidate. According to the Director of Civil Aviation, the disagreement was based on the fact that the ICAO expert advised on the specific job related criteria that were used to identify the candidate while the Public Service Commission argued that the ordinary generic and administrative criteria be used.

Traditionally, the recruitment process should be concluded with induction of the new recruits to the organisation. The purpose of an induction is to expose and orientate newcomers to the organisational strategy, procedures and processes, as well as the organisation's corporate culture (Bluen, 2013). However, several respondents indicated that the DCA had no formal induction process for new recruits at the time of the study. The Director of Civil Aviation as well as the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport confirmed this position. As a result, new appointees were not formally inducted to their new roles and functions, or to their new operating environment. According to the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport, the absence of formal induction programmes at the DCA was caused by two factors. The first one was because the DCA did not have a substantive Director between 2008 and 2010 to manage and direct it in a strategic direction. There was an Acting Director who also doubled up as a Director of Transportation Policy at the Ministry of Works and Transport. The second reason for the absence of the formal induction programme was that for a considerable length of time, most Divisions and sections at the DCA were without staff members or had only skeleton staff of junior members. The "Chief" positions at most divisions and those who report to the "Chiefs" were not filled. According to the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport it was the responsibility of senior staff members to induct new recruits. Therefore, in a situation where senior staff

members are not on board, formal induction becomes almost impossible. Taking this position into account, the DCA had difficulties in running formal induction programmes during the period under review.

However, according to several respondents, despite the absence of a formal induction programme for new recruits at the DCA, there was some form of introduction made to individual officers by way of new recruits being taken around visiting several offices and introducing them to already serving employees in terms of their names, titles and functions. Through the same orientation process, they were able to know where the toilets and other facilities were located on the premises of the DCA. As a result of this arrangement, several respondents indicated that although there was no formal induction programme for the new comers, they also acknowledged that there was some form of basic orientation. The new recruits found this to be inadequate because it lacked details in terms of what was expected of them with regards to their new responsibilities. However, most respondents appreciated the orientation because it helped them to get to know the names, titles and functions of the staff members that were already serving at the DCA.

According to the Director of Civil Aviation, the Airworthiness section of the DCA introduced formal induction and orientation programmes in the year 2010 and these were eventually cascaded to all safety related sections in the year 2013. The introduction of formal induction programmes became possible because most senior positions on the establishment of the DCA were filled by the year 2013.

5.2.3. Succession management planning strategies at the DCA

Many authors generally consider the presence of a comprehensive succession management system in an organisation as one of the most important talent management strategies (Cannon & McGee, 2011; Conger & Fulmer, 2003; Ringo *et al.*, 2008; Sandler, 2006). This is particularly the case when succession management systems generally focus on strategic positions that are essential to the long-term existence of the organisation

(Conger & Fulmer, 2003). Furthermore, Conger and Fulmer (2003) argue that organisations should have succession management systems that are flexible and oriented towards developmental activities of employees occupying such strategic positions. However, despite the importance of succession management, it is surprising that in many organisations succession planning is considered as an activity of replacing those who leave (Conger & Fulmer, 2003). Organisations need to identify, track and develop key individuals so that they may eventually assume top-level positions. The concept of accelerated general pools of talent is encouraged (Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Yarnall, 2011). In this regard, Chhabra and Mishra (2008) suggest that there is a need to develop a group of high potential candidates to understudy certain identified executive jobs and focus on increasing their skills and knowledge.

Both the Director of Civil Aviation and the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport confirmed the absence of a succession management plan at the DCA for the period under study. In fact, the research found that the Public Service of Namibia, whose rules and regulations also regulated the recruitment and appointment process at the DCA, did not have a succession management policy in place at the time of the research. Both the Director of Civil Aviation and the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport said that the general provisions of the Affirmative Action Act 29 of 1998 were used as a substitute for succession management planning. Although the Affirmative Action Act 29 of 1998 had a different purpose, it was not necessarily incompatible with the spirit of succession management planning. The Affirmative Action Act 29 of 1998 focused on representation and fairness in the employment of previously disadvantaged groups to achieve an equal opportunity in employment for all Namibians. The provisions of the law further seek to redress the imbalances in the employment as experienced by persons in designated groups arising from past discriminatory laws and practices. Through the submission of appropriate affirmative action plans to the Employment Equity Commissioner, the conditions of employment of previously disadvantaged Namibians were considered for employment purposes. In practice, it was found that the provisions of the Affirmation Action legislation could also be used for succession management planning, particularly when it came to

understudies. The law provided that for every non-Namibian employed in any organisation in the country, an understudy should also be identified and the name of such an understudy should be sent to the Employment Equity Commissioner for consideration and approval.

According to both the Director of Civil Aviation as well as the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport, even if the DCA had a succession management plan in place, implementing the practice of succession would have been impossible because of an acute staff shortage of technically qualified personnel during the period under review. The study found that at the start of the talent management programme in 2008, and based on the request of the government of Namibia on behalf of the DCA, five ICAO experts in areas of PEL, AIR, OPS, AGA and AVSEC were sent to Namibia in order to help with the implementation of the corrective action plan, while simultaneously building internal capacity at the DCA. According to the project documents as well as the Director of Civil Aviation, the ICAO experts were expected to have local Namibian counterparts working with them during the implementation of the corrective action plan, in order to transfer their skills to Namibians. This was therefore a form of succession management planning that the DCA had in place. According to the Director of Civil Aviation as well as the Deputy Director for Human Resources at the Ministry of Works and Transport, this form of succession planning experienced some teething problems in the initial stage of the programme because there were no Namibians to work as counterparts to ICAO experts in order for skills to be transferred to Namibians. As a result of this, the ICAO experts were engaged in daily safety oversight functions of the DCA instead of supervising their understudies. However, the study found that this situation improved by the year 2010. The original stay of the five ICAO experts was one year but this was renewed on a yearly basis. It is worth noting that the five experts were still in Namibia with the DCA at the time of concluding the field work for the study in 2014.

Table 11 below is provided to justify the claim that the succession management plan was not possible in the initial stages of the talent management programme at the DCA because of staff vacancies:

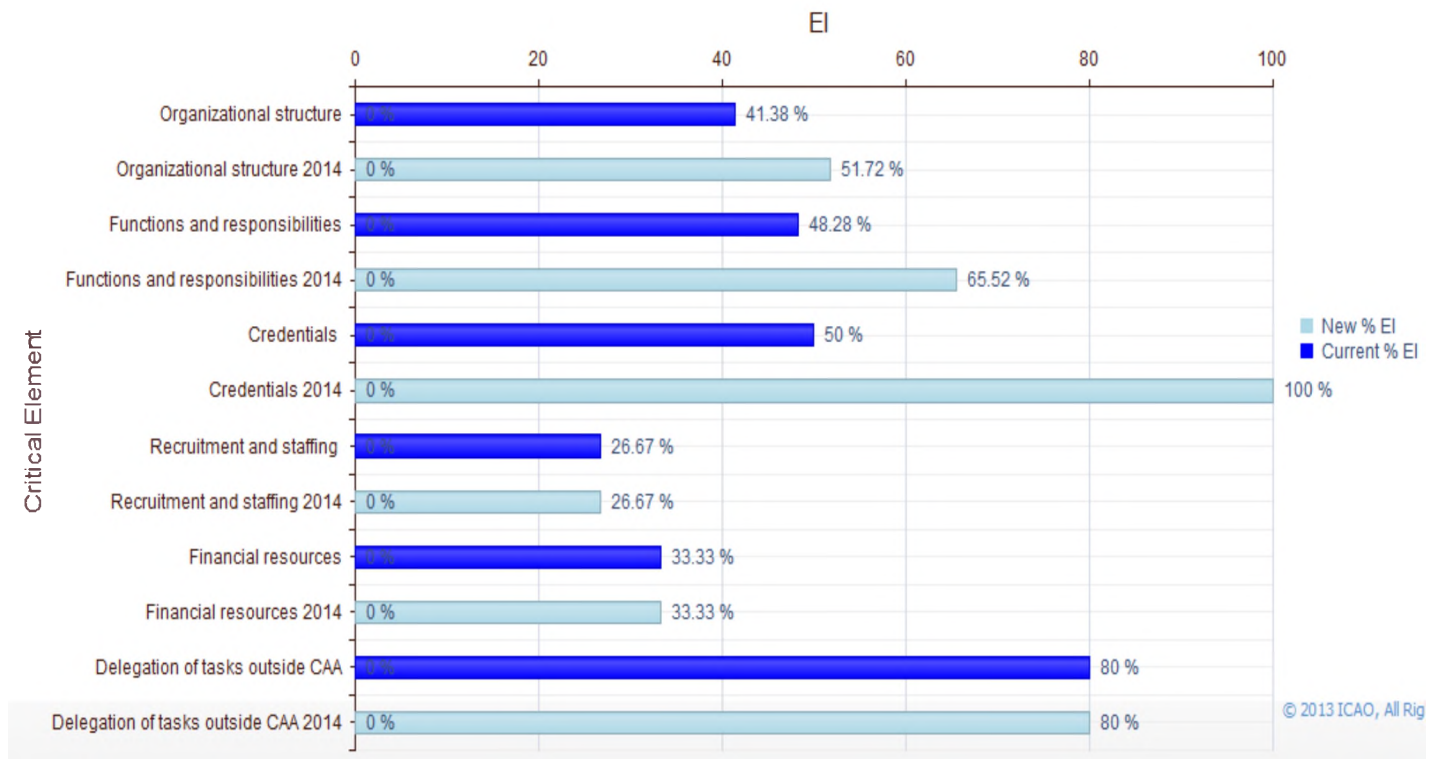
Table 11: Depicting High vacancy rate at the DCA from 2009-2014

(Source: own table)

Years	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Total approved positions	51	51	51	51	51	54
Total filled positions	10	16	19	19	20	22
Total vacant positions	41	35	32	32	31	32
% of filled positions	20%	31%	37%	37%	39%	41%
% of vacant positions	80%	69%	63%	63%	61%	59%

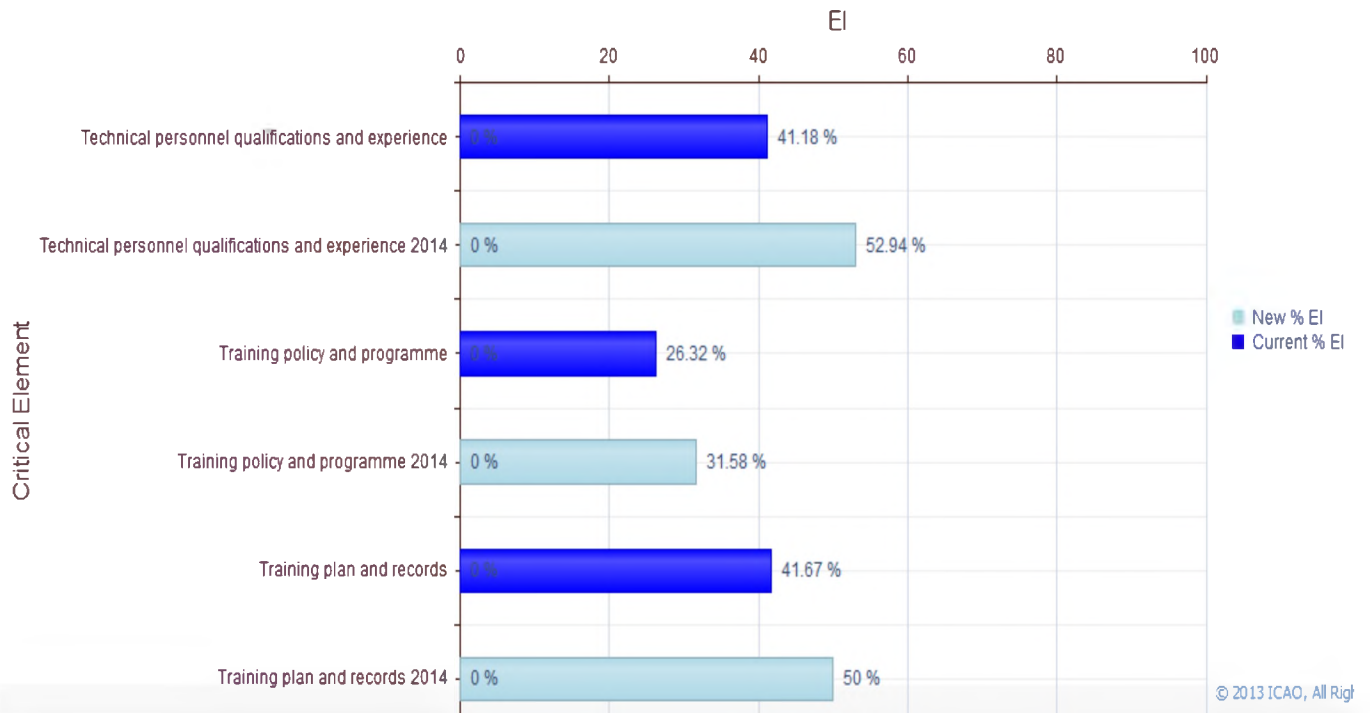
The trend shown above in Table 11 reflects the high vacancy rate between 2009 and 2014, which rendered the succession management planning untenable in the absence of a critical number of technically qualified personnel at the DCA to coach and mentor the successors. The table above shows that 80 per cent of the safety related positions, which were considered as strategic, were vacant in 2009. However, progress was made from the year 2010 resulting only with 59 per cent of those strategic positions being still vacant. The significant absence of a critical mass of technically qualified and experienced personnel at the DCA was also confirmed by the findings of the ICAO Coordination Validation Mission (ICVM) team to Namibia (referred to elsewhere simply as the audit team), that took place from 16 to 22 July 2014. According to the 2014 ICVM report, the DCA had not improved in terms of increasing the required critical mass of technically qualified and experienced personnel (CE-3). Figure 11 below shows that although the organisational structure grew from 41.38% in 2006 to 51.72% in 2014, there was stagnation in the number of personnel to be recruited which remained at 26.67% in both 2006 and 2014.

Figure 11: Depicting the effective implementation of CE-3 (Source: ICVM Report, 2014)



According to the report of the ICVM (2014), the DCA had improved in terms of its personnel’s technical qualifications and experience (CE-4), from 41.18 per cent in 2006 to 52.94 per cent in 2014. The reported improvement in the area of personnel technical qualifications at the DCA can be explained by the continuous training efforts that were being undertaken. As testimony to this fact, the 2014 ICVM report further shows that the DCA has moved from 26.32 per cent effective implementation of its training policy and programme in 2006 to 31.58 per cent effective implementation in 2014. The same document also indicates that the DCA had moved from 41.67 per cent effective implementation in terms of its training policy and record keeping in 2006 to 50 per cent in 2014. Figure 12 below depicts the situation above:

Figure 12: Depicting the effective implementation of CE – 4 (Source: ICVM Report, 2014)



Although there was no formal succession management plan at the DCA as a result of the insufficient numbers of people, the provisions of the Affirmative Action Act of 1998 were used. The purpose of the Affirmative Action Act of 1998 was to achieve equal opportunity in employment for all Namibians as well as to redress through appropriate affirmative action plans the conditions of disadvantage in employment experienced by persons in designated groups arising from past discriminatory laws and practices.

5.2.4. Retention strategies at the DCA

Generally speaking, retention refers to the ability of an organisation to keep employees for longer periods of time (Allen, 2008; James & Mathew, 2012). Furthermore, James and Mathew (2012) are of the opinion that the most effective talent retention strategy in an organisation requires an on-going examination of the nature and causes of turnover. In this regard, they suggest that organisations should engage in exit interviews in order

to understand the nature and causes of turnover (James & Mathew 2006; Sharma *et al.*, 2011). According to Hytter, (2006) several factors such as pay satisfaction, employee engagement, nature of the job, career development, working conditions, pride and recognition, ethics and integrity, flexible working conditions, flat hierarchy, open communications as well as employee motivation appear to influence retention.

The research found that despite the low salaries and conditions of service offered by the DCA that were less attractive than elsewhere, many of the technically qualified people, including pilots with over 2000 flying hours, moved from the private sector industry (which paid higher salaries) to the DCA during the period under review. Furthermore, many staff members holding strategic positions remained in their jobs at the DCA for a considerable length of time. The study found that despite the absence of some of the above-mentioned factors that can influence staff retention as informed by the reviewed literature, candidates were attracted and retained at the DCA for the following reasons:

Firstly, according to the Chief Inspector responsible for Airworthiness, and one of the longest serving employees since 2002, employees remained in the employment of the DCA of Namibia because of their passion for the civil aviation profession. He said that those that were trained as aviators did the job with passion and care. Many employees of the DCA were originally trained as aviators and therefore the aviation industry remained their permanent home. Several other respondents said that they remained at the DCA in order to preserve their integrity. They said that they were true to themselves and they thus decided to do only that which they loved doing and cared about. Several other respondents indicated that they remained at the DCA because of the smallness of the civil aviation industry in Namibia as well as its uniqueness to an extent that job-hopping in the aviation industry could easily erode one's integrity. Therefore, they did not look for jobs elsewhere because their skills and interests remained in civil aviation. However, it should be noted that the civil aviation industry in Namibia is small and therefore not so many alternatives are available for aviators if they still want to remain in the industry.

Secondly, according to the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport, as well as the Deputy Director for Administration and Air Navigation (AAN), employees stayed longer at the DCA despite the less favourable employment conditions because of the job security that the government offered. They said that this trend was more prevalent among those employees of the DCA of advanced age. The DCA operated as a traditional civil service with guaranteed monthly salaries (although considered low), medical aid, a defined pension and other related conservative benefits. This was not the same as in the private sector industry where job security was seen to be largely absent and employees were more vulnerable to losing their jobs, even though they enjoyed more attractive packages. Several other respondents said that they preferred to stay at the DCA because of job security, even in the absence of higher salaries and with less attractive conditions of employment.

Thirdly, according to most Flight Operations Inspectors interviewed, the regular and mandatory overseas training opportunities offered by the DCA presented both personal development as well as travel opportunities around the world, and this was another reason for them staying. Since the DCA operated as a civil service organisation, it invested heavily in training and development, which is often not the case in the private sector aviation industry. Several respondents noted that civil aviation training is very expensive and no employer in the private sector industry was prepared to invest in the employee without getting the necessary guarantee of whether such an employee would remain with the employer for a defined period of time after training. Other respondents could not hide their pride and happiness for having travelled the world over as a result of being with the DCA, which sent them to several training courses without any contractual obligations.

Finally, according to Aviation Inspectors, the most important reason for their continued stay was expert power, pride and authority associated with their positions at the regulatory authority such as the DCA. Several Aviation Inspector respondents were of the view that a DCA inspector held power to issue and withdraw a variety of aviation licenses. The inspector also had the power to ground an aircraft as well as to lift sanctions imposed on an operator. Therefore, several respondents said that they were happy to stay longer at the DCA as aviation inspectors, despite the low salaries and

other poor working conditions, because of the power associated with their positions. According to the Safety Aerodrome Inspectors, this particular power also earned them respect and status from high profile clients in the entire civil aviation industry. Therefore, the study found that many employees regarded it as an honour and prestige to work for a regulatory authority such as the DCA of Namibia.

5.2.5. Training and development strategies at the DCA

Research suggests the following as good training and development strategies: First, a good training and development strategy should include the initial process of identifying training needs analysis first before the content and the method of delivery of the particular training to people occupying strategic positions is agreed upon (Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Jehanzeb & Bashir, 2013; Nel *et al.*, 2010). Second, training and development plans should be an integral part of the organisation's strategic plans so that they become a subject of review at every management meeting, thereby ensuring their success (Nel *et al.*, (2010). Finally, a training and development strategy should include induction and orientation training where new comers are allowed the opportunity to learn and understand the company strategy, procedures and processes as well as the company' culture (Bluen, 2013; Kleiman, 2000).

Aviation safety depends greatly on the efforts of everyone in the system. Unfortunately, there are several risks that can be associated with a system where human beings are involved (Chang & Wang, 2010). Several literature sources state that human error is the main cause of aviation accidents (Abeyratne, 1998; Chang & Wang, 2010; Janic, 2000). Therefore, specialist training that aims at minimizing human errors is best suited for the aviation industry (Abeyratne, 1998, Walter, 2000). According to the literature reviewed, training and development is an important aspect of a talent management programme (Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Jehanzeb & Bashir, 2013; Nel *et al.*, 2010). It is generally agreed by many authors that training and development have advantages to both employees and the organisation (Arguinis & Kraiger, 2009; Jehanzeb & Bashir, 2013; Nel *et al.*, 2010). Advantages to employees include career development; employee

satisfaction and employee performance, while it helps the organisation to achieve its competitive advantage. The reviewed literature further suggests that training and development at the civil aviation authority such as the DCA of Namibia should follow a structured approach such as competency-based on the job training (Abeyratne, 1998; Walter, 2000). It suggests a specialised form of training, particularly when it comes to aviation safety. In this regard, it is important to note that according to the ICAO guidelines, there should be proper record keeping for the individual training offered to aviation personnel. This is the position because safety in the aviation industry is vital.

Literature reviewed further indicated that the design of training related to aviation safety should comply with international safety standards contained in the relevant Annexes to the Chicago Convention (Amankwah, 2011; ICAO, 2011; Todd & Thomas, 2013). It is for this reason that the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) guides the civil aviation training of contracted member states worldwide. Therefore, ICAO found that the assessment of aviation personnel by way of competency-based training represented an appropriate and timely strategic approach (Amankwah, 2011; ICAO, 2011). Although there are several different training methods, competency-based training is discussed here, not because it is more important than others, but because it is the type of training recommended by the ICAO as appropriate for the civil aviation industry. According to literature reviewed, the objective of competency-based training is therefore on the ability of the candidate to “perform” a task after training, rather than the candidate simply claiming to “know” the task (Amankwah, 2011; ICAO, 2011; Todd & Thomas, 2013).

The study found that there was documentary proof that suggested that the selection of training participants at the DCA did not appear to follow a consistent pattern before 2008. It also emerged through interviews with several of the respondents, that before the start of the talent management programme in 2008, the management did not have proper training courses designed for their staff members, who would be occupying critical and specialised positions. Several respondents at lower levels of employment said that management was simply sending people for training without an approved training plan. According to some respondents, for example, there were individuals who were identified for a particular training programme or a course, yet it was not always clear why those individuals were selected as opposed to different individuals. There was a lack

of clarity on the training nomination procedures. However, several respondents said that this trend was not so pervasive to constitute a risk in safety since there were isolated cases that took place in 2007 before the start of the talent management programme.

According to several respondents at the DCA, there were no proper training records that were kept from the time before 2008 and immediately thereafter. The result of this was that sometimes there were long periods after somebody finished the course before they were eventually engaged in some practical training to help them consolidate the skills, to the extent that those skills learnt might even be forgotten or that particular individual would need a refresher course. Several respondents at the DCA revealed that the participation of Aviation Inspectors in various training programmes did not benefit from follow-up on-the-job training on completion as a result of non-existent record keeping. According to the Deputy Director for Human Resources in the Ministry of Works and Transport, as well as the Deputy Director for Administration and Air Navigation (AAN), there were a number of good courses offered to staff members, particularly for inspectors, in different countries outside Namibia. Unfortunately, they were not following specific training courses that would build up on one another for them to gain specific competencies in certain areas. For example, training courses for Flight Operations Inspectors are structured in such a way that they should start with the initial (core) training, then recurrent training, followed by specialised training and eventually concluded by other advanced theoretical and practical training. The situation before 2008 was that a Flight Operations Inspector would, for example, start with specialised training without having gone through the initial (core) training. This approach ended up in a situation where trained staff members could not be delegated with authority by the Director of Civil Aviation to perform certain specialised functions. The end result was that the DCA ended up with a mix of skills or knowledge that did not always complement one another.

According to the Director of Civil Aviation, the DCA did not have a training programme designed to respond to the skill needs of its employees. In this regard, the Director of Civil Aviation said that the DCA was reactive to what training was on offer before 2008. For example, Namibia had bilateral technical co-operations with countries

such as the USA, Singapore, and the Federal Republic of Germany. Through their bilateral technical co-operation, these countries would offer free aviation sponsored courses. Unfortunately, the choice of who attended such a sponsored course was not guided by the specific skills shortage, but rather by the need of certain individuals to undertake international travel. In this regard, a decision would be taken to send people on that course without identifying which individuals would benefit more from the particular course. It was the view of several respondents that such an approach resulted in money being wasted on training that was of no value to the DCA. Several respondents said that this was particularly the case with most training that took place before 2008 and towards the beginning of 2009.

Despite the above situation, several respondents indicated that when the talent management programme started in 2008, a proper training plan based on ICAO guidelines was developed and approved for the DCA. Even those that benefited from other training courses before 2008 had to be re-trained. Table 12 shows the training statistics in three areas only of aviation safety from 2008 to 2014.

DISCIPLINE	TYPE OF TRAINING	COURSES	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014
Aircraft Operations	Initial Training	Induction/Indoctrination Course							4
		Government Safety Inspector Course					1		
		Human factors course					1		
		Crew resource management (CRM) course							4
		Aircraft type certification courses				1	1	1	1
	Aircraft type line training						3		
	Recurrent Training	Extended Day Time Operations (EDTO)							3
		Low visibility operations (LVO)							3
		Simulator evaluations							3
	Other advanced training	Safety Management Systems							3
Quality Management Systems								3	
Personnel Licensing	Initial Training	Induction/Indoctrination Course						2	
		Government Safety Inspector Course for Personnel Licensing					2	2	
		English Proficiency raters course					1		
		Safety Oversight course					2	1	
	Recurrent Training	Aircraft type annual re-currency, Proficiency, Instrument, instructor ratings					1	1	1
		Soft Courses – Human Factors, Crew Resource Management, Dangerous Goods							2
	Specialised Training	Human factors course					1	1	1
		Safety Management systems				1	1		
		Flight Training Device evaluations					1	1	
	Other advanced training	Quality Management Systems							1
		Basic Supervisory training							1
	On the Job Training	Not applicable		1		2	2	2	2
Aerodromes and Ground Aids	Initial Training	Induction/Indoctrination Course				4		1	
		Government Safety Inspector Course for Aerodromes				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliports physical characteristics				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliports obstacles limitation surfaces				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliports visual aids				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliports organization and administration				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliports operations				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliports maintenance				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliports safety management				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliports security				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliport rescue and fire fighting				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliport emergency management				4		1	
		Aerodrome and heliport wildlife management				4		1	
		Aerodrome operations manual				4		1	
	Safety audits and inspections				4		1		
	Recurrent Training	International and national standards and recommended practices on aerodromes and heliports				4		1	
		Aerodrome maintenance				4		1	
	Specialised Training	Aerodrome planning				4		1	
		Aerodrome design				4		1	
		Aerodrome pavement				4		1	
		Rescue and Fire Fighting Services				4		1	
		Emergency Management System				4		1	
		Wildlife management				4		1	
		Aerodrome data and reporting				4		1	
		Electrical Systems				4		1	
		Obstacles Limitation Surfaces				4		1	
		Visual Aids				4		1	
		Physical Characteristics of aerodromes				4		1	
	Other advanced training	Quality Management Systems				4		1	
		Safety Management Systems				4		1	

Most respondents said that training at the regulatory authority like the DCA was important. They said that it was important because everything started with training regardless of what type of formal educational qualification one possessed when they were recruited as inspectors at the DCA. According to several respondents and documents at the DCA, it was required that Aviation Inspectors had to go through specific courses in addition to the internal on the job training that they received to qualify as an inspector. Respondents emphasized that there were specific skills for Aviation Inspectors that were required, which were unfortunately, not taught at colleges or universities.

With regards to the training that was offered after 2008, the majority of the respondents confirmed that the training that was offered during the talent management programme was effective to both the DCA as an organisation and employees as individuals. Many respondents were proud of the DCA as an employer for having exposed them to such training initiatives. They reported that it was through the several training interventions offered by the DCA that they were able to improve their understanding of their jobs and also improve their performance. In an interview, when the Personnel Licensing Inspector was asked if the kind of training interventions offered by the DCA during the talent management programme were relevant, the reply was affirmative and he hoped for a brighter future in his career. Although these training courses were not accredited, the completion thereof allowed the Director of Civil Aviation to delegate certain powers and functions to individuals that had successfully completed them.

The also study found that there was an established Ministerial Training Policy for all public service employees. In addition, there was also a specific training policy for the DCA, which included specific formal training for the technical staff. The policy also established the minimum annual training requirements, which unfortunately were not followed by the DCA because they did not have both technical expertise and financial resources to support that level of training requirements. Policy documents available at the DCA showed that the training policy was comprehensive and covered all areas of the training to be provided. However, the policy had not been implemented by 2010 as there were no formal initial, recurrent or specialised training programmes established to

support it. However, according to the Deputy Director for Administration and Air Navigation who was also responsible for training activities at the DCA, the training policy was implemented from December 2010 when On the Job Training was introduced and given by senior inspectors. Training for the senior inspector on a specific type of aircraft was also provided in the training policy.

5.3. CONCLUSION

The DCA was a regulatory authority in charge of safety oversight in Namibia at the time of study. It was part of the Ministry of Works and Transport, together with several departments at the time of the research. Taking into account the importance of the safety oversight function of the DCA, there is no doubt that people should be key to its success. The reviewed literature showed that talent management consists of the following elements and activities: identification of a key position, recruitment and selection, succession management, attraction and retention as well as training and development (Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

The reviewed literature prescribes that the first step among several activities of talent management is the identification of a strategic position and that a certain procedure be followed when identifying strategic positions (Becker *et al.*, 2009). However, the study found that the DCA did not identify strategic existing positions in its organisation, but instead the DCA took the approach of creating new positions that were considered as strategic to their existence.

In terms of attraction, recruitment and selection, although the reviewed literature called for a special consideration of an efficient manner in which the attraction, recruitment and selection of applicants to strategic positions should be done (Armstrong, 2006; Bluen, 2013; Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2011). However, the study found that the DCA dealt with the attraction, recruitment and selection of personnel to strategic positions in the same manner as they did with other ordinary positions. Furthermore, while the reviewed literature suggested that the advertisement process should not be unnecessarily

long (Aspridis, 2009; Becker, *et al.*, 2009; Dessler, 2009; Martin *et al.*, 2002), the practice at the DCA was that the advertisement took up to one month while the whole recruitment process was unnecessarily long, taking up to six months in some cases.

As far as the practice of succession management planning at the DCA is concerned, having a strong pipeline of high-potential talent was vital for the DCA in order to build its human capital for the future. However, the study found that the DCA did not have a succession management plan in place. One of the reasons cited for the absence of the succession management plan was the fact that it was a tradition within the public service of Namibia not to have successors to jobs. The study found out that all jobs, as a matter of policy, were subjected to competition by way of open advertisement. The above findings as indicated in Figure 6 depict the employment status at the DCA during the period under investigation suggest that there was a scarcity of civil aviation professionals in Namibia due to industry growth and competitive pressure.

With regards to attraction and retention practices at the DCA, however, Figure 6 in chapter 4 suggests that the DCA continued to struggle with how to effectively identify, attract, and retain high-potential talent in their organisation despite the existence of a formal talent management programme. However, the study found that those that stayed with the DCA for a considerable length of time did so because of the status that they received from their jobs. Several Aviation Inspectors perceived their positions as powerful and that it gave them pride and authority. The DCA inspectors had power to issue and withdraw a variety of aviation licenses. The inspector also had the power to ground an aircraft as well as to lift sanctions imposed on an operator.

In terms of training and development at the DCA, the study found that those employees of the DCA that remained in their employment for a considerable length of time, or did not apply for employment elsewhere in the industry, did so because the DCA offered training and development opportunities without contractual obligations. This was something that the private sector industry could not offer. The study found that training in the aviation industry was expensive and therefore employers in the private sector were not willing to invest in training and development without contractual obligations from the employees.

The next chapter of the study identifies and describes the key challenges informing the talent management programme in terms of the Namibian education system and contextual issues as well as the international civil aviation safety requirements.

CHAPTER 6

CONTEXTUAL CHALLENGES TO TALENT MANAGEMENT AT THE DCA

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This is the third chapter that discusses the findings of the study on talent management at the DCA of Namibia. This chapter identifies and describes the key challenges that informed the talent management programme that was designed to meet international civil aviation safety requirements in terms of the Namibian education system and in a context of diversity. Therefore, this chapter deals with the educational and diversity challenges that were encountered during the implementation of the talent management programme at the DCA of Namibia.

6.2. THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF NAMIBIA

Background information on the challenges of the education system in Namibia before independence in 1990 was presented in Chapter 1 of this study. This was done for an appreciation of what could have possibly led to the problems of talent scarcity in specialised fields in the country, such as the civil aviation. The education system of the country remained weak, even during the post-independence period for Namibia, undermining the ability of education to effectively play its expected developmental role (Marope, 2005). This section gives a background to the Namibian education system with a specific focus on the post-independence period and it also explores the challenges posed by such an education system on the talent of the country.

The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia, Act No 1 of 1990, and the Education Act of, 2001 regulate the education system in the country. According to the Education Act 16 of 2001, the education system includes formal education, which comprises seven years in primary schooling, three years in junior secondary, two years in senior secondary, three/four years in vocational training or four years in Polytechnic or University (undergraduate degree) training. The non-formal education provides training to adults and out-of-school youth. Out-of-school general education opportunities were

also offered through the National Literacy Programme in Namibia (NLPN). The programme ran literacy, post-literacy, work skills programmes, and community-driven development projects. The different forms of formal general education system in Namibia are discussed as follows:

6.2.1. Primary education

The primary education consists of the lower and upper primary education levels that last for seven years (NHRP, 2012). The Constitution of the Republic of Namibia mandates the provision of free and compulsory primary education for all. In this regard, primary education was divided into lower and upper phases covering grades 1 - 4 and grades 5 - 7, respectively. The entrance age for grade 1 is 7 years. Primary education focusses on foundation knowledge and skills such as reading, writing and numeracy. Furthermore, it also focusses on preparing learners for entry into junior secondary education. There is no certification for completing primary education, except for adult learners. According to Marope (2005), the major challenge with primary education in Namibia seems to be the poor quality of lessons. This situation is worsened by the low levels of the education of the majority of the teachers (ETSIP, 2007; Marope, 2005).

6.2.2. Secondary education

General secondary education is an essential foundation for the human resources required to build a sustainable competitive economy (Twamasi, 2004; Reich, 1992; Schumacher, 1973). The education system in Namibia also includes the junior secondary and senior secondary levels that last for three and two years respectively (NHRP, 2012). Junior secondary education covers grades 8 - 10, while senior secondary constitutes grades 11 - 12. As is the case in most education systems, junior secondary education prepares students for direct access to senior secondary school and to vocational training centres (VTCs). The allocation of opportunities for senior secondary education is based on students' performance on the Junior Secondary Certificate Examination (JSCE). In compliance with the Education Act No 16 of 2001), students with special learning needs are catered for through a network of eight special education schools or through special classes that are mainstreamed in regular schools. In addition, secondary education is also

offered by distance education through the Namibia open learning network (NOLNet); or other private, local, and international education providers.

6.2.3. Vocational Education and Training

The Vocational Education and Training (VET) system finds its legal base in the National Vocational Training Act 18 (NVTB) of 1994 and its amended version of 1996. In terms of these enabling legislations, the key regulatory bodies provided for under the Act are the National Vocational Training Board (NVTB) and the Trade Advisory Committees (TACs). According to the National Vocational Training Act, 18 of 1994, the NVTB is the main policy-defining body. Other specific functions of the NVTB are to:

- Advise the Minister on the application of the NVTB or any other matter concerning vocational training;
- Establish minimum standards, trade testing procedures and certification;
- Coordinate and promote vocational training by private or public institutions;
- Assess training needs and undertake research required for the development of vocational training schemes; and
- Consult with agencies involved in vocational training.

Furthermore, the Act also provides for the establishment of vocational standards, testing, and certification bodies. These bodies are established through a separate National Qualifications Authority (NQA) Act of 1996.

Skills development and vocational training are offered through Vocational Training Centres (VTCs) and Community Skills Development Centres (COSDECs). In addition, some prevocational training is offered through the “general education” curriculum and through Multi-purpose Youth Resource Centres. There are currently five VTCs, evenly spread throughout the country. Four of these VTCs are public and operated by the government while one, is operated by a Board of Directors. COSDECs are community owned and managed centres that were originally meant to provide training for people with little or no formal schooling. In this way, COSDECs’ training programmes were intended to respond to the immediate community needs and to promote self-employment.

6.2.4. Higher education

Higher education is important because it contributes to the development of the country in multiple ways. Among many other ways, it produces high level technical and managerial personnel required for economic growth and competitiveness. It also generates knowledge workers and researchers essential to knowledge-driven development. Furthermore, it provides enterprises with technical support and partnership to spur knowledge-based innovation (NHRP, 2012; Marope, 2005). It also delivers policy analysts and managers to the public and private sector (ETSIP, 2007). The Higher Education sector in Namibia primarily has three institutions, namely, the University of Namibia (UNAM); the International University of Management (IUM) and the Namibia University of Science and Technology - NUST (formerly known as the Polytechnic of Namibia which are autonomous institutions, governed by their Councils, in which academic freedom was well respected.

6.2.5. The challenges of the education system in Namibia

A study by conducted Marope (2005) revealed that the education system of Namibia continues to be too weak even during the post-independence period for the country to effectively play its expected developmental role. For example, the education system in Namibia since independence in 1990 did not adequately prepare their graduates to take jobs in areas such as civil aviation. The point of the weak education system was also demonstrated in the recently published National Human Resource Plan 2012 to 2025, which showed that Namibia still experienced shortages of professionals, with critical shortages in both elementary occupations and in occupations requiring skilled workers (NHRP, 2012). The main post independence challenge was cited as the quality of education that was introduced to Namibia (Marope, 2005).

The quality of the education system in the country is assessed in terms of inputs, processes, and outcomes (Marope, 2005). Although the three elements are important, only quality as an input in the education system is discussed for the purposes of this study. The other two elements are not discussed. In this regard, assessing inputs to determine the education quality would include the analysis of the physical teaching and

learning environment such as the teaching spaces and furniture; qualified teachers; competent teachers; competent learners; books and instructional materials; the curriculum; and teaching time (Marope, 2005). Although Namibia had been independent for over twenty years at the time of the study, some pre-independence inequalities in resource input, still persisted. As a result of this, a substantial proportion of schools were still lacking the physical facilities that should constitute an enabling teaching and learning environment. In addition, a shortage of books and instructional materials still persisted even after independence, particularly in primary schools.

According to the study by Marope (2005), quality education has stagnated in Namibia since independence because of the following reasons: First, Namibia is a large country with a very low population density in most parts. Therefore, in some regions, schools are still very far away for some people and transportation is not provided. This has made some parents sometimes to refuse to send their children to school. Therefore, it is hard to enforce compulsory school attendance in such a big country. Second, even though the constitution prohibited the payment of school fees for primary schooling, primary education was actually not free until the year 2014. The amounts of the indirect school fees differed between the schools, but these were unaffordable to the very poor people who could not afford even the cheapest ones, particularly in light of rising unemployment.

In terms of the Namibian Constitution, education is a right to all Namibian citizens. In addition, primary schooling is compulsory, and children are required to remain at school until the completion of primary school or until the age of 16, whichever comes sooner. However, access to education was identified by Marope (2005) as a challenge in the education system of Namibia. In this regard, it should be noted that Net Enrolment Rate (NER) and Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) often measure the extent to which children are accessing education. According to a UNICEF (2011) report, both the Net Enrolment Rate (NER) and Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) in most Namibian schools have declined significantly for various reasons.

With regards to teacher quality, the study by Marope (2005) revealed that from a very low base before independence, substantial progress was made towards reducing the proportion of unqualified teachers across schools. Over the years since post-independence, improvements in teacher qualifications were observed, but they were yet to translate into effective teacher quality. Furthermore, the study by Marope (2005) revealed that even teachers with formal qualifications still lacked competencies that were critical to improve student learning. A large base of teachers were found by the study to have difficulties interpreting and implementing the curriculum, as well as communicating in the official language - English - as mandated by the constitution.

According to Marope (2005), student quality is an important element in the education system just as teachers are in facilitating teaching and learning. For Namibia, the scarcity of pre-primary education programmes implied that 80 per cent of children started school without the level of readiness required to manage primary school work. By not providing children the requisite readiness, Namibia placed the development of its education system on a weak foundation. This weak educational foundation had a direct bearing on the type of graduates Namibia produced for the labour market (ETSIP, 2007). Although the numbers of students increased, the lack of quality outcomes in terms of enough well educated students leaving primary, secondary, tertiary education and or vocational training with good grades and sufficient knowledge is by far the most important challenge facing the Namibian education system (Marope, 2005). According to Marope (2005), the general competence level of learners in Namibia are still low compared to other southern and eastern African countries, and schools in rural areas fare even worse than schools in the rest of the country. The study by Marope (2005) indicated that too many students left school with a deficient literacy or numeracy. The number of students that finished secondary or even tertiary education was still low, as was the percentage of students who finished secondary school or university with sufficient knowledge. Furthermore, due to the poor quality of education, the National Senior Secondary Certificate (NSSC) was internationally not yet accepted as a general qualification for university entrance.

According to the report on the Education and Training Sector Improvement Programme (2007), high education in Namibia lacked a central advisory and regulatory body that could interpret national development policies, priorities and goals. As a result of the absence of the above-mentioned bodies, higher education in Namibia has experienced problems such as the lack of vision and coordination; lack of articulation of programmes; and a lack of standards and procedures for accreditation and transfer of individual credits between institutions (ETSIP, 2007).

It would appear that the general education sector has failed to provide the necessary quantity and quality of outputs required to provide a base for higher levels of talent development (NHRP, 2012). According to Marope (2005), some of the explanations for the poor quality education system in Namibia after independence included the following:

- Weak foundation resulting from the limited access to Early Childhood Development (ECD),
- Poor quality of Early Childhood Development (ECD) and pre-primary programmes;
- Inadequate allocation of funds to quality-enhancing inputs, at both the primary and secondary levels;
- Curriculum overload;
- Insufficient teacher-student ratio
- Poor teacher competencies and weak school management;
- Poor accountability for results;
- Language that remained a crucial issue particularly in terms of students that struggled to switch to English after the 4th grade and as such, their overall performance suffered from these difficulties; and
- Many teachers also had their own problems of poor language skills, particularly in English.

In this regard, it is important to note that Early Childhood Development (ECD) and pre-primary education are widely recognised as having a significant impact on the subsequent performance of children in basic education programmes. They lay the

foundations for acquiring basic literacy and numeracy skills and they considerably reduce the dropout and repetition rates (ETSIP, 2007).

According to Marope (2005), until a few years ago, the Ministry of Education did not take vocational training seriously and it was substantially underfunded. Even though this has changed recently, most vocational training was still carried out informally in the companies, without any degrees or standardisation of the quality.

6.2.6. Education challenges and their impact on Talent Management

Although more than 80 per cent of the population was literate at the time of the research, and nearly 90 per cent of children of eligible age were enrolled in primary schools, the downside of it was that a substantial proportion of urban (40%) and rural (59%) dwellers only had primary education as their highest level of educational attainment, while about 12 per cent of the population had never been to school (NHRP, 2012; Marope, 2005). In addition, the ineffectiveness of the country's education system rendered most basic education graduates un-trainable and unemployable (NHRP, 2012; Marope, 2005). These levels of educational attainment were inadequate to provide the threshold of highly educated and highly skilled labour required to meet the country's talent demands (NHRP, 2012; Marope, 2005). An analysis of the education system in Namibia at the time of the research confirmed the acute shortage of skilled labour across all sectors of the economy, and especially in science- and mathematics-based professions such as engineers, agro- and natural resource specialists, technicians, business administrators, medical doctors, nurses, and mathematics and science teachers (NHRP, 2012). Such high levels of the skills shortage could be considered as the reason that constrained the availability of technically qualified and experienced aviation safety officers at the DCA.

This study found that as a result of the shortage of technically qualified and experienced aviation safety officers at its disposal, the DCA, through an instruction of the Cabinet Committee on Defence and Security had instituted an inter-ministerial committee composed of persons from the uniformed personnel such as the Namibian Police, Correctional Services, the Namibian Defence Force (NDF) and the Namibia Central

Intelligence Services (NCIS). The purpose of this committee was to advise the Director of Civil Aviation on aviation safety aspects, contrary to the provisions of the law and the convention on international civil aviation organisations. This issue points to the importance of the type of education system that can be offered to ensure the relevance of its products to the market.

In addition to the issue of the education system, diversity issues, although on a limited scale also posed challenges to the talent management programme of the DCA. The issue of diversity management and the challenges that were caused by this element are discussed below:

6.3. CHALLENGES CAUSED DIVERSITY ISSUES AT THE DCA

The discussion of what constitutes diversity was discussed in chapter 2. Therefore, the purpose of this section is to discuss the challenges caused by diversity at the DCA during the implementation of the talent management programme. In this context, it should be noted that the apartheid policy of the colonial South African government had a direct effect on the civil aviation industry in Namibia. As a result of Namibia's historical past of racial discrimination, the civil aviation industry in the country was traditionally male white dominated. This situation caused several challenges, among them the following:

Firstly, the DCA as a regulator needed people in Inspector positions that were more qualified or equal to the people they supervised in the industry. In order to enable the newly qualified pilots to accumulate more flying hours and to get industry experience, it was required, for example, of the DCA to negotiate with aircraft owners in the industry to accommodate the student pilots. Most aircraft owners were people from the previously advantaged groups and they had formed an association called the Aircraft Owners and Pilot Association (AOPA). Another example is in the area of Airworthiness. The minimum entry requirement for an Airworthiness Inspector is not only a license issued by the DCA, but also candidates should at least have five years' industry experience. In this regard, it should be noted that the owners of most Aircraft Maintenance Organisations (AMOs) in Namibia were people from previously

advantaged groups. Therefore, the DCA faced these challenges. The only way these challenges could be solved was by way of getting some of the candidates who obtained industry experience in the neighbouring countries before they came back to Namibia as Aviation Inspectors and these helped to solve some of these challenges.

Secondly, a major challenge that gave rise to the management of diversity was when dealing with ICAO foreign experts during the implementation of the talent management programme. As a result of lack of local capacity at the DCA during the implementation of the talent management programme, the ICAO headquarters in Monterio was approached to second foreign experts to assist the DCA. The request resulted in five foreign experts from different countries in the world in various safety-related areas of civil aviation being seconded to the DCA. Although member countries operate under the same standards and recommended practices (SARPs) as well as regulations based on the ICAO Annexes, actual day-to-day operating practices differ from country to country. This meant that the foreign experts from the different countries that were seconded to the DCA brought along with them several different operating practices from their countries. For example, some foreign experts were citizens of the United States of America whose aviation practices were based on FAA, while those from Australia and elsewhere would have different day-to-day operating practices. This approach led to some form of confusion on the part of the Namibian aviators that were supposed to be trained by foreign experts. Respondents expressed concern on how the foreign experts issued conflicting procedural instructions on the same issue. This approach resulted in the frustration of the employees of the DCA.

Thirdly, the issue of managing diversity at the DCA became apparent when local employees started displaying negative attitudes towards the foreign nationals that were seconded by ICAO to Namibia. Several respondents accused the foreign nationals of performing day-to-day operational duties that they were able to do themselves. According to the respondents, the ICAO experts were supposed to be involved in high-level policy formulation activities and also to act as mentors for the local staff. Several respondents blamed the management of the DCA for bringing in foreigners to take their jobs. These accusations developed into a situation where the DCA management found itself spending much time solving conflict situations between the local staff and the

foreign nationals. In addition, several respondents expressed concern in the manner in which the contracts of the ICAO experts, which were originally for one year, continued to be renewed on a yearly basis without some formal assessment that involved the local staff. On the other hand, the ICAO foreign experts also complained that the yearly renewal of their contracts made it difficult for them to organize their lives properly in order to focus their attention to the talent management programme. However, these conflicts were resolved after various initiatives by management that involved consultations at high levels through convening meetings to make the local staff understand that the ICAO foreign nationals were at the DCA to assist Namibia in implementing the corrective action plan.

6.4. CONCLUSION

This chapter discussed the challenges that were posed by the Bantu education system as well as the effects of the policies of racial discrimination in post-independence Namibia. The research results in this chapter have shown that the absence of the required critical mass of talent in aviation safety in Namibia was as a result of the challenges of the education system that continued to be ineffective post-independence Namibia as well as the challenges of diversity management at the DCA.

However, relative to its age and level of development, Namibia has done well in transforming her education system from the Bantu Education to an internationally accepted system of education although some legacies of the past still persist. The Bantu Education system was characterized by features such as fragmented education along racial and ethnic lines; unequal access to education and training at all levels of the education system; inefficiency in terms of low progression and achievement rates; irrelevant curriculum and teacher education programmes; and lack of democratic participation within the education and training system (ETSIP, 2007; NHRP, 2012; Marope, 2005). The new international education system after independence in 1990 was characterized by features such as quality, accessibility to many, effectiveness, efficiency, and relevance/responsiveness to the needs of the people (ETSIP, 2007; NHRP, 2012; Marope, 2005).

However, despite efforts to eradicate pre-independence inequalities in education, resource inputs and outcomes have not been sufficient and therefore persisting inequalities have weakened the potential redistributive effects of general education (Marope, 2005). This situation has led to critical constraints with the availability of appropriately educated and skilled labour to respond to current labour market needs, and to future needs if growth should accelerate.

As the DCA continues with talent acquisition, the challenge of managing diversity in the post-independence era is also a matter that needs attention, and this challenge has its roots in discriminatory practices of the apartheid era. This is so because the aviation industry has remained the same even twenty-four years after independence in terms its composition as seen from the point of view of those who were Aviators. The aviation industry was predominantly white male dominated and this hampered talent management programmes that required obtaining industry experience.

The next chapter answers the main research question, which seeks to establish how the corrective action plan of the DCA was actually translated into securing talent for the aviation safety. The chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study in light of the research problem and objectives, and in relation to theories advanced in the reviewed literature.

CHAPTER 7

DISCUSSION

7.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the chapter is to answer the main research question: “From the perspective of talent management theory, how did the corrective action plan of the DCA actually translate into securing talent for aviation safety?” To answer this question, the chapter discusses the literature that was reviewed on talent management in comparison to the findings of the study related to the DCA’s talent management activities. In the light of some of the findings that the fourth stream of talent management could not account for, the chapter proposes the creation of a fifth approach to talent management. Furthermore, the chapter proposes the development of a model of sustainable talent management for this fifth stream, before concluding.

7.2. FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

This study adopted a qualitative deductive approach whereby the starting point is what is known about a particular phenomenon, and based on these theoretical considerations, deductions are made that must then be subjected to empirical scrutiny (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In other words, from the existing theory, some propositions are made that are tested against practice (White & Marsh, 2006). This means that the existing theory determined what the research was investigating. The qualitative deductive approach was taken because using results of the data collected during interviews and from others sources, it has the capability to determine if the steps and activities followed at the Directorate of Civil Aviation when implementing the corrective action plan supported or refuted the established talent management theories.

Although the research took a deductive approach, it was found that the existing theory had not guided the actual talent management programme at the DCA of Namibia. That is, it was not a programme that was designed and run based on the theory of talent

management, but instead was designed by the DCA of Namibia in consultation with the ICAO in order for the DCA to implement the corrective action plan. The corrective action plan came as result of the findings of the 2006 investigation by the International Civil Aviation Organisation. The ICAO USOAP audits have been undertaken in Namibia in 1996, 2001 and 2004, followed with a comprehensive audit in 2006 in accordance with the Integrated Continuous Monitoring Approach agreed to by member states. Finally, the ICAO Coordinated Validation Mission was conducted in 2014 to confirm the implementation of this corrective action plan by Namibia.

As was indicated in the previous chapters, Namibia is a signatory to the Convention on International Civil Aviation, the Chicago Convention. The International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO) is a specialised agency of the United Nations (UN), which administers the convention. As a part of the international aviation community, Namibia is audited periodically by the ICAO for compliance to the Standards and Recommended Practices (SARPs) and the implementation of the eight critical elements of a safety oversight system. Therefore, the 2006 findings by the International Civil Aviation Organisation informed and predetermined the talent management programme at the DCA of Namibia. In terms of the established SARPs, the ICAO had set general guidelines to determine what could be considered as strategic positions and the type of training and development to be offered to such positions in a regulatory establishment such as the DCA of Namibia. Based on the information presented above, it can be stated the ICAO had an influential role in designing and shaping the talent management programme of the DCA. Therefore, talent management programme at the DCA of Namibia was designed by ICAO with the concurrence of the DCA from a professional practitioner point of view and was not derived from theory. This section compares the main findings related to how the talent management activities were put into effect by the DCA of Namibia, in relation to what was offered by the literature that was reviewed. In other words, the section is intended to validate, contradict or bring in new insights to the concept of talent management and related talent management activities.

The *concept* of talent management is different from the *activities* of talent management. The concept of talent management is broader and wider, as reflected in the definition of

Collings and Mellahi (2009:304) which states as follows: “Talent management consists of activities and processes that involve the systematic identification of key positions which differentially contribute to the organisation’s sustainable competitive advantage, the development of a talent pool of high potential and high performing incumbents to fill those roles, and the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organisation.” The definition recognises the fact that jobs differ in their contribution to the strategic success of an organisation and therefore organisations should adopt a workforce differentiation management approach. The definition also brings to light the importance of nurturing an internal talent pool in an organisation in order for it to secure a competitive advantage. It pays no attention to talent that could be developed outside the organisation. Furthermore, this definition of talent management places some emphasis on competitive advantage, a concept which was found not to be relevant to government organisations such as the Directorate of Civil Aviation. In addition, the definition does not consider the importance of stakeholder consultations. Taking the above into account, the definition does not seem to consider the elements of sustainability such as the economy and the legal ethical and philanthropic responsibilities (Carroll, 1991; Visser, 2005).

The specific findings of the study according to the five activities of talent management that include the creation/identification of strategic positions; attraction, recruitment and selection for strategic positions; retention strategies for strategic positions; succession planning for these positions as well as training and development for strategic positions are discussed below:

7.2.1. The creation of strategic positions at the DCA instead of only their identification

The fourth stream of talent management emphasises the identification of strategic positions in an organisation, which differentially and strategically contribute to the organisation’s performance (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). These are positions that are important and strategic to an organisation. Furthermore, even if it

takes into account the fact that all positions in the organisation are important, this approach to talent management takes the view that some positions are more strategic and therefore more important than others (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). According to the fourth stream, strategic positions are those that exert critical influence on the organisation's activities strategically, operationally, or both. These positions by their nature are needed to deliver on the key mandate of the organisation (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). In this particular study, the International Civil Aviation Organisation to which all member states subscribe in terms of general aviation safety standards already identified strategic positions. The DCA of Namibia had a responsibility of creating such positions.

According to the public service staff rule A.11, the public service of Namibia does not differentiate in the procedures of creating strategic positions from non-strategic ones. The procedures are the same. Since the Directorate of Civil Aviation was part of the larger public service of Namibia, the procedure that was followed in creating their strategic positions was the same as the one that was followed when creating other ordinary positions. The only difference was that strategic positions in a civil aviation were already classified as such by the International Civil Aviation Organisation and member countries already knew which positions were critical and therefore of strategic importance for their country operations. All they need to do is to create these positions. In the case of the DCA of Namibia, these positions included those of Aviation Safety Officers. It should be understood that aviation safety is fundamental to the operations of any civil aviation authority like the DCA of Namibia (Abeyratne, 1998; Janic, 2000; Motevalli & Stough, 2004; Lee, 2006). In this modern age, highly trained and technically skilled specialists are required to be able to demonstrate their commitment to the "safety culture" of the aviation industry.

According to Becker *et al.*, (2009), the starting point in talent management is the identification of key positions within the existing structure. After these key positions have been identified, then the people to fill the key positions should also be identified or appointed. Thereafter follows a process where the organisation invests heavily in the training of people that have been identified to occupy the identified key positions. The

fourth stream of talent management advances specific steps to be followed by organisations when identifying key positions. The literature reviewed in terms of identification of key positions suggests that the parameters are already defined by the existing structure (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009).

However, this study found that the DCA of Namibia did not take the approach of identifying key positions as advocated by theory. Instead, the DCA had created many new strategic positions during the talent management programme while they had gone through the consultative process of formulating their strategic plan that eventually informed their decision as to which of the already existing positions were strategic and which ones were not. The creation of strategic positions and the identification of already existing strategic positions using the approved strategic plan was followed by the process of advertisement of the newly created and identified strategic positions. Interviews were conducted that resulted in the selection of successful candidates that were then exposed to training as was required for their strategic positions.

Taking the above-mentioned into consideration, it appears as if the existing literature (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009) assumes that organisations are fairly stable, and therefore recommend only the identification of key positions amongst the existing posts. This seems to suggest that talent management activities are only applicable to already existing structures of an organisation. The literature reviewed (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009) fails to fully appreciate that organisations are living institutions that change depending on various factors within the environment in which they operate. Therefore, there was a need to create other new strategic posts or positions informed by the strategic plan of the DCA, rather than simply identifying existing strategic positions. This approach takes into account the fact that in the life span of an organisation, positions that were identified as strategic in the past may no longer be regarded as such in the future. For example, the organisational structure of the DCA in 1990 was not the same as at the time of the research. Similarly, the organisational structure of the DCA will not be same in the future. Equally, the importance of various roles within the DCA also changed and will continue to change from time to time. For example, there were 240 active pilot licences in Namibia in 2001

compared to 1936 in 2014. Similarly, there were 59 Air Operators Certificates (AOCs) issued in 2001 compared to 25 in 2014. There were also 447 aircrafts registered in Namibia in 2001 compared to 1317 that were on the register in 2014. Furthermore, there were 21 approved maintenance organisations in 2001 compared to 26 in 2014. These figures show that the aviation industry in Namibia has grown and the role of the regulatory authority such as the DCA would naturally change and grow in relation to the aviation activities in the country. The role of the ICAO in this regard would be to monitor this growth and expect the DCA to comply with its new staffing requirements, taking this growth into account. This kind of growth in the activities of an organisation would equally inform the creation of its strategic positions.

On the basis of the growth in the aviation activities discussed above, the Directorate of Civil Aviation approached the Public Service Commission for the creation of their positions with the full knowledge of which positions were strategic and which ones were not. The procedure that was followed in the creation of positions, be it strategic or non-strategic ones, was discussed in detail in Chapter Four of this study. Although literature (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009) suggested that there should be the identification of strategic positions from amongst existing ones, this study found that key positions could also be created, highlighting the fact that organisations are not static, but dynamic in nature. The position advocated by the literature (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009) assumes that an organisation already exists and strategic positions are merely identified from the existing ones. This finding extends the theory to include the creation of strategic positions in an organisation. The extension of the theory is particularly applicable to newly created organisations but could also have implications for existing and fully established organisations that grow or organisations whose mandate is redefined.

7.2.2. Attraction, recruitment and selection practices at the DCA

The process of attraction, recruitment and selection could be broken down into the following elements: the advertisement process, shortlisting of candidates, interviewing and selecting of candidates as well as the induction of new candidates in an organisation

(Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2011; Madia, 2011; Tucker, 2012). The findings of the study with respect to the elements that constitute attraction, recruitment and selection are discussed below.

7.2.2.1. Non-differentiated advertisement process: In terms of advertisements for key positions in an organisation, it has been recommended that this should not be treated like advertising for any other ordinary position (CIPD, 2007; Beardwell, 2007; Cober & Brown, 2006; Grobler *et al.*, 2006; Madia, 2011; Tucker, 2012; Zottoli & Wanous, 2000; Pollit, 2005; Tong & Sivanand, 2005; Stone *et al.*, 2006). Furthermore, according to Fernandez-Araoz *et al.* (2011) and Bluen (2013), advertisements for key positions should be accompanied by clear job descriptions that are as precise as possible. The advertisement process should be short and the whole recruitment and selection process should be finalised within a reasonably short period of time to avoid potential “high-flyer” applicants losing interest.

The study found that the Personnel Administrative Measures (PAM) of the job category Aviation Safety that was approved by the PSC did not differentiate among the post designations of Aircraft Operations Inspectors, Airworthiness Inspectors, Aerodrome Inspectors as well as Personnel Licensing Inspectors. They were all classified in one group in terms of their entry requirements not taking into account the fact that each post designation should have had its own entry requirements. The study also found that this situation created problems when it came to advertisements because all the four post designations that made up the occupational group Aviation Safety were classified as one group and given a generic description although the job descriptions were different. It should be understood that these are jobs whose minimum entry requirements are already pre-determined by the ICAO, but left to individual member states to decide on the superior entry requirements as long as the minimum is not compromised.

Furthermore, the study found that the DCA was part of the public service of Namibia at the time of the study. Therefore, the public service staff rules (PSSR) that required that all promotion positions in the public service of Namibia should be advertised in the media for four weeks also applied to the DCA. In terms of practice, the study found

that the advertisement of strategic positions at the DCA was treated just like all other ordinary positions. In this regard, strategic positions were not advertised in a specialised manner. The advertisements were crafted in the traditional and usual manner that was also used with ordinary positions at the DCA. There were no clear and precise job descriptions that accompanied the advertisement of strategic positions. The advertisement periods for both strategic and non-strategic position ran for a maximum of four weeks as prescribed by the public service staff rules.

In running the advertisements for the period as prescribed by the staff rules, the study found that the DCA could not attract qualified people to fill their strategic positions. The study found that the implications for not following the advice of the literature and instead simply advertising strategic positions like any other position in the organisation was that the DCA experienced difficulties in attracting and appointing good candidates. This is evident in the high vacancy rate of 80% of positions in 2009, which only dropped to a 59% vacancy rate by the end of 2014 (See figure 6 of Chapter Four as well as Table 11 of Chapter Five). Taking this factor into account, there is a need for the DCA to implement best practice, including ensuring that the employee value proposition is clear in the advert; the advert should not confuse potential top talent (Aspridis, 2009; Becker, *et al.*, 2009; Dessler, 2009; Martin *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, a good recruitment process for a strategic position should begin with properly designed job advertisement requirements that are specific to the strategic job (Armstrong, 2009).

Furthermore, the study found that although the DCA of Namibia lost potential “high flyers” as a result of the prescriptive nature of the public service staff rules, it was still able to recruit and select capable people using traditional methods of the recruitment and selection process that were also used for any other ordinary position. The study also found that complacency and the unacceptable slow rates of processing applications for employment characterised the recruitment and selection process at the DCA of Namibia. Therefore, the study found that the speed at which the recruitment process is conducted is important for its success (Pollit, 2005; Tong & Sivanand, 2005; Madia, 2011; Tucker, 2012; Stone *et al.*, 2006).

Armstrong (2009), Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, (2009) and others do not specify a time limit for the recruitment and selection process, but give general guidelines that it should be completed in a reasonable period of time to avoid losing good candidates who applied for strategic positions. The study found that in terms of the PSSR, the whole recruitment and selection process at the DCA should be finalised within 90 days. However, in terms of practice, the study found that recruitment and selection process could sometimes take up to six months before it is completed. The implication for the prolonged recruitment and selection process was that the DCA could not appoint some of the potential candidates in some isolated cases. This situation would have been avoided if the advice of the literature, or even the PSSR guidelines, were complied with.

7.2.2.2. Shortlisted candidates should possess appropriate experience in the particular field: The talent management literature (Ahlrichs, 2000; Armstrong, 2009; Aspridis, 2013) suggested that people who should compile the shortlist of candidates should have expert knowledge in the specific field related to the post. A checklist to avoid shortlisting people that do not qualify, while simultaneously ensuring those that do qualify, should also guide the experts in their fields. The study found that the Human Resource function of the DCA was centralised at the Ministry of Works and Transport. The procedure that was followed was that at the close of the advertisement, the HR department of the Ministry of Works and Transport would compile a shortlist of the candidates who they thought met the requirements based on the personnel administrative measures (PAM) in terms of qualifications and experience. In some cases, the experts with subject matter knowledge at the DCA were asked to check and verify the correctness of the shortlisting produced by the HR department. However, this approach sometimes caused disputes when the experts of the DCA would raise an objection to the inclusion or non-inclusion of certain individuals in the shortlisting. In other words, sometimes there would be differences in opinion between the DCA experts and HR staff members on who should be considered for shortlisting. It was found that these differences in opinions sometimes stalled the process, but were in most cases later concluded that the HR department's shortlist prevails.

Ahlich (2000) and Armstrong (2009) argued that shortlisting of candidates should be done by subject matter experts. It should be noted that the HR Practitioners who were shortlisting applicants for DCA posts were not specialists; they did not possess expert knowledge in the area of civil aviation. The implication of this deviation could be that people who were not qualified were considered for positions (Ahlich, 2000; Armstrong, 2009). It could therefore be argued that the failure of the DCA to comply with best practice guidelines offered in the theory could have contributed to their inability to recruit the right people.

7.2.2.3. The composition of the interviewing and selecting committee: With regard to the composition of the interviewing and selection committee, this exercise should not be left to the Human Resources Practitioners alone, but should include experts in the specific field in which the applicant is being considered (Ahlich, 2000; Bluen, 2013; Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2009). The inclusion of an expert in a specific aviation related field is meant to assess the applicant's job knowledge (Ahlich, 2000; Bluen, 2013; Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore, literature indicates that there are several selection methods and techniques that could assist in selecting the best candidate for a strategic position (Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2011). These methods and techniques include structured interviews and psychological tests which use systematic and standardised procedures to measure differences in individual characteristics such as intelligence and personality. Armstrong (2006) suggests the use of a combination of several selection methods and techniques in order to select the most suitable candidate for the key position. In terms of aviation safety, Appelbaum and Fewster (2003), for example, suggest that the selection criteria for a pilot should not only be based on technical skills, but should also include interpersonal skills. Ellis (2001) suggests it is good practice for the selection process for aviation safety to include a personality test as well as interviews by a recruiter, the candidate's potential supervisor and a peer employee. Furthermore, Ellis (2001) states that aviation companies should differentiate between different job categories. For example, Ellis (2001) is of the view that for frontline jobs in the aviation industry, companies should consider appointing on the basis of the attitudes that the candidate portray and then train them for specific skills because of the belief that skills can be taught but attitudes cannot be changed.

The study found that, to a large extent, the interviewing and selection committee consisted of the Human Resources Practitioners at the Ministry of Works and Transport with little and sometimes no involvement of experts in the particular field. This practice compromised the appointment of suitably qualified people to the DCA. Furthermore, the study found that, instead of using several selection methods as advocated by the literature (Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2011), the only selection methods that were used at the DCA of Namibia were application forms that were accompanied by the curriculum vitae of the applicants, in combination with structured interviews. The absence of using a wider range of selection tools could have compromised the selection process at the DCA. The implications for not following these provisions at the DCA could be seen in the poor rate of effective implementation of ICAO critical elements to the desired level. In this regard, it should be noted that the 2014 ICAO audit results found that the DCA of Namibia had only improved from the 48.04 per cent effective implementation of the corrective action plan in the eight critical elements (CEs) of the State's safety oversight system in 2006 to 59.67 per cent in 2014. This is an indication that their recruitment and selection method was not good enough to deliver significant progress of the corrective action plan. It is believed that the effective implementation of the corrective action plan at the DCA could have recorded improved results if subject matter experts were involved in the selection of applicants as recommended by the literature (Fernandez-Araoz *et al.*, 2011).

Finally, the study found that in order to attract good candidates, the Public Service Staff Rules on attraction, recruitment and selection at the time of the study allowed for a recruiting institution to offer a higher salary (e.g. purchase offer) than that provided for in terms of the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM) of the job category Aviation Inspector. However, it was found that attempts by the DCA of Namibia to use this provision during the implementation of the talent management programme was met with resistance from the PSC who demanded for a comprehensive approach to solving the problem, instead of handling deviations on an individual case by case basis.

7.2.2.4. The absence of induction programmes for newly appointed candidates:

Fernandez-Araoz *et al.* (2011) emphasises the importance of induction of new employees to the organisation as part of the entire recruitment and selection process. This is premised on the fact that induction exposes new recruits to the requirements of their job and the culture of the organisation. In the United States of America, Duncan Aviation was a leader in aviation service and maintenance, which had received top class rating for 25 years in Professional Pilot magazine's annual survey for avionics and maintenance. Falter (2000) states that it was company policy at Duncan Aviation for the president of the company to meet all new employees as part of their orientation, and within one week of their appointment. This approach made the new recruits comfortable; they felt they were welcome to stay.

The study found that there was no formal induction process offered to newcomers at the DCA. In this case, the new recruits were equally senior people who were expected to have in-depth knowledge of the newly acquired job and therefore needed no formal introduction into their new job roles. However, it was at least expected that they should be informed of basic rules around the DCA. Nevertheless, this situation had some disadvantages for the new employees because they were not received and welcomed by some senior people at the DCA

7.2.3. The absence of succession management planning at the DCA

The issue of succession management planning is central to the talent management process and that the absence thereof could render an organisation ineffective (Fegley, 2006; Khumalo & Harris, 2008; Rowe *et al.*, 2005; Rothwell, 2005). It is a proactive approach to managing talent and it involves the identification of high potential employees and the establishment of talent pools/pipelines for anticipated future needs, particularly to key positions of the organisation (Garman & Glawe, 2004; Giambatista *et al.*, 2006; Fegley, 2006; Rothwell, 2005; Sharma, *et al.*, 2011). It involves the tailored development of the potential successors so that there is a talent pool available to meet organisational demands as they arise.

The study found the absence of a succession management plan at the DCA during the period under review. This was a real issue because the DCA did not have pool of technically qualified personnel to act as successors to strategic positions. The DCA also did not have a sufficiently large pool of technically qualified personnel to be mentors to the successors. The study found that the absence of a critical pool of technically qualified personnel at the DCA could be as a result of the effects of inferior quality of education in the form of Bantu Education as discussed in Chapter Six of this study. This finding recognised the negative effects of Bantu Education that had brought about the situation of lack of suitably qualified people in the aviation industry in the Namibian labour market.

The study also found that although the DCA of Namibia did not have a succession management plan in place, as a government institution, it took advantage of the provisions of the of the Affirmative Action (Employment) Act 29 of 1998) in order to put successors in place. This specific law was originally meant to produce a balanced representation in the public service; it was not for succession management planning. The implication for not having a succession management plan was that the DCA could not fill all its approved positions, resulting in 59 per cent vacancy rate at the conclusion of the study in December 2014.

The inability of the DCA to have successors was as a result of a larger macro problem of a lack of talent in the country which needed to be addressed through a more expansive approach to succession. According to Strandberg (2015), sustainable talent management focuses on the supply of a pool of skilled, committed and motivated talent on a long-term basis, not only to the organisation itself in order to fill strategic positions, but also to other organisations operating in the same community. Sustainable talent management is needed for the current and future organisational and community success. The issue of sustainable talent management will be discussed in further detail later in this chapter.

7.2.4. Retention practices at the DCA

In terms of the retention of personnel to strategic positions, attractive conditions of service are typically identified as retention strategies for strategic positions (Hytter, 2006; Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2000; James & Mathew, 2012). These conditions include satisfactory pay levels, meaningful employee engagement, non-boring jobs, career development, good working conditions, recognition of staff, open communications, job security, upward mobility as well as employee motivation, among many (Hytter, 2006; Kaye & Jordan-Evans, 2000; James & Mathew, 2012).

The study found that the DCA was a government institution and therefore tended to have prescribed salaries and employment conditions. Despite the general directive, the study found that a provision existed in the PSSR where the DCA or any other institution of government could approach the PSC for a recommendation for a special dispensation on salaries and conditions of service for strategic positions. The study found that the DCA used the above-mentioned provision as part of their retention strategy. Interestingly, the study found that candidates were attracted and retained at the DCA for various reasons other than pay. In this regard, the study found that some were attracted and retained at the DCA because of their passion for the civil aviation profession, while others saw it as preserving their integrity. Several respondents indicated that they remained at the DCA because they wanted to grow the institution up to the point where it would become attractive to all in the civil aviation industry of Namibia. An important observation was that many remained at the DCA for a considerable length of time because they felt the job was engaging, powerful and conferred certain high level status on them in the community. Most employees at the DCA of Namibia remained in employment for a considerable length of time on account of their perceived power and status in the industry. This involves the power to issue or withdraw various types of aviation licences, including the power to ground an aircraft that has violated civil aviation regulations.

The issue of retention at the DCA was found to be of importance for organisational success. The study found that the total number of aircraft registered at the DCA between 2008 and 2014 was about 500. However, the total approved number of

technical personnel on the staff establishment of the DCA from 2008 to 2014 was too low, compared to the international recommended standards and practices. The international standards and recommended practices issued by the ICAO require that the number of technical personnel required should be based on the workload formula depending on the aviation activities in the country. The industry has ratios for the number of inspectors required given the number of aircraft on the register or the number of licences on issue. For example, at the section of Airworthiness the approved staff establishment in 2014 was eight while only six technical personnel were employed. However, the requirement using the above international formula would have given the DCA a total of twenty-one Airworthiness Inspectors. In the area of Personnel Licencing four were employed by December 2014, while twelve Personnel Licencing Inspectors were actually required based on the aviation activities in the country. The implication for not being able to retain the appropriate numbers of inspectors equivalent to aviation activities, as a result of inadequate retention strategies could, for example, compromise aviation safety in Namibia.

7.2.5. Training and development practices at the DCA

In terms of training and development in civil aviation, various authors (Abeyratne, 1998; Janic, 2000; Motevalli & Stough, 2004; Lee, 2006) have pointed out the importance of safety in the aviation industry and called for standardised competency based training guided by ICAO SARPs in order to determine the minimum professional qualifications for technical personnel performing safety oversight functions. This element is important because it allows for the application of uniform safety standards among contracting member states to ICAO.

The study found that although the DCA complied with the requirements of the competency-based training as set out in the ICAO SARPs, they did not have an approved internal training programme at the initial stages of the talent management programme that clearly defined and identified the type of people that would benefit from various safety-related training initiatives. As a result of this approach, the initial training interventions did not yield desired results because people received unsuitable

training in relation to the jobs they were employed to do. There was a need for a clearer training policy at the DCA. The study found that it was only after the secondment of the ICAO experts to the DCA that the training policy was approved. The ICAO experts prepared the training policy with the assistance of the local staff at the DCA.

The study found that the above situation improved after the approval of the training policy at the DCA in 2010. It is important to note that the newly approved training policy of the DCA adopted the ICAO's competency based training approach. In this regard, Abeyratne (1998) and Janic (2000) also emphasise the importance of a competency based training approach as appropriate for the civil aviation industry. Furthermore, the study confirmed that the civil aviation authorities in member states that were signatories to the Chicago Convention of 1944 were required to follow training guidelines set by the International Civil Aviation Organisation. The study also confirmed that such an approach was in the interest of universal aviation safety. The International Civil Aviation Organisation standards and recommended practices require uniformity and general conformity to universal aviation safety standards.

7.3. A MODEL OF SUSTAINABLE TALENT MANAGEMENT

The previous section has discussed the findings of the study in the light of the approach in the talent management literature that emphasises securing talent for strategic positions. From this perspective of the literature, several deficiencies on the DCA's corrective action plan were identified. However, there were also aspects of this study that tested the limits of this fourth stream of talent management. This section explains a model of sustainable talent management as a proposed fifth stream of talent management. In doing so, the approach of the study is to revisit the four streams of talent management with a view of critiquing them in the light of the findings of the study. In order to develop a model of sustainable talent management as this fifth stream, the study briefly explores the concept of sustainability as a foundation for looking at organisational responsibility and sustainability in general, and sustainable human resource management in particular. In doing so, the study borrows from the works of Carroll (1979, 1991) and Visser (2005) in dealing with corporate social responsibility

(CSR), while borrowing from that Ehnert (2006; 2009) and Kramer (2014) with regard to the concept of sustainable human resource management. Furthermore, the work of Googins, Mirvis & Rochlin (2008) on sustainability journey, and that of Strandberg (2015) on his five talent sustainability competencies form important building blocks to the model on sustainable talent management.

7.3.1. The deficiencies of the Fourth Stream of Talent Management

The definition by Collings and Mellahi (2009) was considered adequate as a starting point for defining talent management in this study. However, it was found that it does not adequately address the important issue of creating a pool of potential employees outside the organisation so that the supply of talent in the market remains adequate to the demands of the industry. The Collings and Mellahi (2009) definition reflected an interested in training and development that was limited to those that were already employed in the organisation. More specifically, the study found that Collings and Mellahi's (2009) definition of talent management has failed to address the below-mentioned issues because it focused purely on internal employees of an organisation, seemingly based on the assumption that the external labour market was adequate. This was not the case in an emerging economy like Namibia. As a result of this approach, the following issues were not addressed by the definition of Collings and Mellahi (2009):

- The creation and or the identification of a talent pool in the labour market to address the risks associated with the lack thereof;
- The provision quality education, including the school systems that had failed to adequately prepare for the present and future labour market for the strategic positions in the aviation industry; and
- The problems created by the standard staffing approach in relation to a differentiated one that would take into account the different job designations within a job family.

The study highlighted the fact that stream four of talent management does not adequately consider stakeholders outside the organisation. In this regard, it should be

noted that the study found that the education system in the country at Namibia's independence was characterised by factors such as: fragmentation of education along racial and ethnic lines; unequal access to education and training at all levels of the education system; inefficiency in terms of low progression and achievement rates and high wastage rates; irrelevance of curriculum and teacher education programmes to the needs and aspirations of individuals and the nation; and lack of democratic participation within the education and training system (OPM, 2000). Similarly, the study also found that the education system of the country remained weak, even during post-independence Namibia, undermining the ability of education to effectively play its expected developmental role (Marope, 2005).

The poor education system resulted in Namibia not being able to supply a critical mass of qualified and trained technical personnel for the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) so that it could effectively perform the State's regulatory and safety oversight function as contained in the Chicago Convention of 1944. It was further found that the absence of adequately qualified technical staff at the DCA resulted in them requesting for expatriates who were ICAO experts. Furthermore, the absence of a sufficient labour pool at the DCA eventually led to its inability to have successors during the implementation of the talent management programme.

Therefore, stream four of talent management has not sufficiently dealt with some of the unique challenges presented by the findings of this study. Based on this fact, the study proposes the introduction of the fifth stream of talent management. The proposed fifth stream of talent management would take into account the sustainable supply of talent for the benefit of an individual organisational entity such as the DCA of Namibia, as well as the broader Namibian aviation industry. The fifth stream would be of benefit to the community. The call for the fifth stream of talent management demands that organisations would consider how they would create value for potential and existing employees by investing in the long-term availability and supply of suitable employees, which will also ensure a high quality workforce for the present and the future (App *et al.*, 2012).

Therefore, this chapter explores the concept of Sustainable Talent Management, locating it within the broader concept of Sustainable Human Resources Management. Firstly, the concept of sustainability is introduced and its relevance for this study explained.

7.3.2. The Concept of sustainability

According to Ehnert (2006), three different stakeholder groups, namely, ecologists, business strategy scholars and the United Nation's Commission for Human Rights (UNCHR), have influenced the development of the concept of "sustainability." For example, reference is often made of sustainable employment, sustainable business, sustainable relationship and sustainable development (Ehnert, 2009a). All these refer to long-term and durable employment, business, relationship and development. Similarly, the UNCHR (2004) defined sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

According to Kramer (2014), elements of sustainability include a simultaneous focus on economic, environment and social dimensions, or in other terms, people, the planet and profit (Ehnert, 2006). Both Kramer (2014) and Ehnert (2006) concur that the concept of sustainability has more to do with the ability of organisations to preserve the present for the future while involving both internal and external stakeholders. Literature on sustainability (Ehnert, 2006 and 2009; Freitas *et al.*, 2011; Friedman & Miles, 2006; Kramar, 2014; Thom & Zaugg, 2004) emphasises the importance of external stakeholder involvement. Furthermore, most literature reviewed (Ehnert, 2006 and 2009; Freitas *et al.*, 2011; Friedman & Miles, 2006; Kramar, 2014; Thom & Zaugg, 2004) suggests that the long-term sustainability of organisations depends on efforts made by such organisations to address issues that may affect their sources of resources such as the labour markets, education systems or families. This highlights the importance of engaging with those stakeholders who can ensure the survival and growth of this resource base, which provides them with skilled and motivated human resources. Such an approach would allow organisations to have sufficient talent pool to address their future talent pipelines in order to fill their strategic positions.

7.3.3. Responsible and sustainable organisations

The concept of a sustainable organisation would refer to the long-term ability of an organisation to preserve the present into the future while involving both internal and external stakeholders, and not only shareholders (Kramer, 2014; Ehnert, 2006). The concept of sustainable organisation cannot be discussed in isolation of the concept of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). This is so, because it is only sustainable businesses that would be able to give back to the communities in which they operate. Therefore, the sustainability of an organisation is a necessary condition for an organisation to pay its CSR role in its community. Both Carroll (1979, 1991) and Visser (2005) agree that despite the different stages in the lives of organisations, sustainable businesses are the best placed institutions to make a significant positive contribution towards improving social, economic and environmental conditions of the communities they operate from.

Since the 1950s, several definitions of the concept of CSR have been offered in the literature (Carroll, 1979, 1991, 1999; Visser, 2005). According to Carroll (1983:608), “corporate social responsibility involves the conduct of a business so that it is economically profitable, law abiding, ethical and socially supportive. To be socially responsible then means that profitability and obedience to the law are foremost conditions when discussing the firm’s ethics and the extent to which it supports the society in which it exists with contributions of money, time and talent.” For the purposes of this study, CSR is viewed as an umbrella concept, which includes corporate citizenship, corporate sustainability, stakeholder management, business ethics and corporate social performance (Visser, 2005).

Carroll (1991) introduced a four-level pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility, which include four aspects. First, there are economic responsibilities, which, Carroll (1991) argues, form the foundation upon which all other levels rest and should be profitable. Second, the legal aspect deals with the laws which society requires should be obeyed; the laws determine what is right and wrong. The third aspect is the ethical level, which is

an obligation to do what is right, just and fair and to avoid harm at all times. Finally, the level of philanthropic responsibilities calls for organisations to be good corporate citizens and to contribute resources to the community in which they operate with the view of improving quality of life.

Visser (2005) looked at how CSR would manifest itself in an African context. From this point of view, Visser (2005) adapted Carroll's (1991) pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility model and agreed with Carroll (1991) that indeed the economic responsibilities still formed the foundation upon which all others rest. However, according to Visser (2005) philanthropy is given second highest priority, followed by legal and then ethical responsibilities.

For the purpose of this study, to understand the stage of development of the DCA, Carroll's (1991) pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility is condensed into three levels instead of the original four, namely, (1) economic, (2) legal and ethical, and (3) philanthropic responsibilities. Although Carroll's (1991) pyramid of Corporate Social Responsibility has four levels, the legal and ethical levels were condensed into one level in this case because in the context of the DCA as a regulatory authority, legal and ethical matters seem to be referring to the same issues. For example, "play by the rules of the game" (legal) would also mean that one is expected do what is right, just and fair (ethical). In terms of the developmental progress according to Carroll's (1991) pyramid, it could be argued that the DCA has addressed issues at the economic level; it has also met its legal and ethical obligations. It is believed that the DCA can now be working towards augmenting the philanthropic level, where it will be expected to contribute to the wellbeing of the community in order to enhance Sustainable Talent Management. This next level is explained in more detail later on when the role of the DCA in education is discussed.

Mirvis and Googins (2006) introduced the concept of a journey in responsible corporate citizenship or sustainability that most organisations go through. To track this developmental path in the lives of organisations, Mirvis and Googins (2006) focused on seven dimensions of citizenship that progress in stages. The first dimension is the Citizenship Concept, which focuses on how comprehensive and inclusive an

organisation is with regards to its role in society from a developmental perspective. A second dimension is concerned with the strategic intent of an organisation. The strategic intent measures the extent to which citizenship is embedded in the organisation's strategies, products and services, culture and ways of doing business. The third is the leadership dimension, which addresses how informed top leaders are about citizenship and how much leadership they show and to what extent they "walk the talk." The fourth dimension is structure, which looks at the development of an organisation in terms of movement of its citizenship from a marginal position to its management as a mainstream business activity. The fifth dimension refers to how proactive an organisation is when dealing with management issues in terms of policies, programmes and performance. The sixth dimension is stakeholder relationship, which looks at the development of the organisation in terms of the increasing openness and depth of such relationships. The last dimension is transparency, which refers to the extent of the organisation's openness and level of disclosure about its financial, social and environmental performances. According to Googins, Mirvis and Rochlin (2008), the role of the organisations in terms of their social corporate responsibilities (SCR) becomes more demanding as the organisation grows and becomes sustainable.

7.3.4 Sustainable Human Resources Management

In order for organisations to continue with the sustainability journey discussed above, they need the support of sustainable human resources management on a variety of dimensions (Wirtenberg *et al.*, 2007). In their study on the role of HR in building a sustainable organisation, Wirtenberg *et al.*, (2007) found its influence in the following ten areas: leadership development, training and development, change management, collaboration and teamwork, talent management, diversity and multiculturalism, ethics and governance, creating and inculcating values, health and safety, and workforce engagement. From the findings of the study above, it is evident that HR indeed has an influence on creating a sustainable organisation. Therefore, sustainable Human Resources Management is important for creating sustainable organisations that have benefits to the community they operate from. There are several definitions of Sustainable Human Resources Management. However, for the purposes of this study,

the following three are considered. According to Freitas *et al.*, (2011), Sustainable Human Resources Management is concerned with achieving organisational sustainability through the development of human resources policies, strategies and practices that support the economic, social and environmental dimensions at the same time. This definition points out to the important role of sustainable HRM to achieving organisational sustainability through sound human resources policies, strategies and practices.

According to Ehnert (2009:74), sustainable HRM is the pattern of planned or emerging human resource strategies and practices intended to enable an organisational goal achievement while simultaneously reproducing the HR base over a long-lasting calendar time and controlling for self-induced side and feedback effects on the HR systems on the HR base and thus on the company itself. According to this definition, sustainable HR assumes that an organisation is an open system that needs to develop and regenerate its human resources at least as fast as it 'consumes' them. In this regard, Ehnert (2009) basically refers to the fact that several outside interested stakeholders often influence sustainable HRM systems and policies of an organisation. These are stakeholders in the community in which an organisation operate from.

De Prins (2011) defines sustainable HRM as a process that should focus on optimally utilising and respecting human workforces within the organisation in which an explicit relationship is built between an organisation's strategic policies and its environment. According to De Prins' (2011) definition, sustainable HRM should be manifested in the policies of the organisation that will lead it to sustainable results that balance economic prosperity, social equity and environmental integrity.

The above definitions take a common approach and argue that sustainable HRM practices are required for the development of the human capabilities that are needed to operate in an environment facing environmental, demographic and social pressures (Wilkinson *et al.*, 2001; Ehnert 2009; Clarke 2011). All three definitions recognise the importance of external stakeholder consultations, balancing economic, social and environmental impacts, and sustaining the human resources of the organisation in the long term.

Kramar (2014) proposes three main approaches to sustainable HRM. The first approach emphasises economic outcomes and the creation of sustainable competitive advantage. Kramar (2014) refers to this approach as Capability Reproduction and focuses on the internal impacts of HRM policies. The second approach emphasises the external outcomes such as the broader performance outcomes that included ecological/ environmental and/or social and human outcomes. Kramar (2014) refers to this approach as that which promotes Social and Environmental Health. The third approach moves beyond just HRM practices and examines the interrelationships between management practices, including HRM and the organisational outcomes, which include environmental and social outcomes. Kramar (2014) calls this the Connections approach.

Furthermore, the third approach, referred to by Kramar (2014) as Connections, was chosen because it emphasises that sustainable HRM introduces the notion that organisations need to understand that the boundaries of what they are accountable for are no longer limited to those of their organisations, but are expanding and moving into the societies that they operate within. Taking the above-mentioned into account, organisations would no longer only consider the shareholders' profit but also stakeholders' interests such as social and environmental responsibilities in order to succeed in the long-term (Ehnert, 2009; Kramar, 2014). Ehnert (2006) argues that sustainable Human Resource Management should have a connection between today's balance of human resource exploitation and development and tomorrow's human resource base, an element that is lacking in the traditional talent management. In this regard, it should be noted that there is consensus among some academic researchers that sustainable Human Resource management should include environmental and social outcomes of the organisation (Ehnert, 2006; Kramer, 2014, Wirtenberg *et al.*, 2007).

According to Donaldson and Preston (1995:67), "stakeholders are persons or groups with legitimate interest in procedural and or substantive aspects of corporate activity". According to Freeman (2004), stakeholders are people who are vital to the survival and success of the organisation. Friedman and Miles (2006) state that the organisation itself could be considered as a grouping of stakeholders and the purpose of the organisation should be to manage their interests, needs and viewpoints. Therefore, stakeholders are important groups that are identified by the keen interests they take in the activities of an

organisation, regardless of whether the organisation has any corresponding functional interest in them (Freeman, 2004) or not. Every organisation has internal as well as external stakeholders. Internal stakeholders in an organisation are the employees, employee associations or unions, management and professional colleagues as well as senior management. External stakeholders of organisations include families, social groups, unions, the labour market, the unemployed as well as the community at large (Friedman & Miles, 2006).

7.4. A PROPOSED MODEL OF SUSTAINABLE TALENT MANAGEMENT FOR THE DCA

Taking the above-mentioned into consideration, and as a result of the fact that the fourth stream of talent management has not sufficiently dealt with some of the unique challenges presented by the findings of this study, the study introduces a model of sustainable talent management as the fifth stream of talent management. The proposed model of sustainable talent management advocates for the sustainable supply of talent for the benefit of both the individual organisations as well the greater community with primary interest in the aviation industry. This model also introduced key stakeholders before discussing each of the six activities of sustainable talent management. The important stakeholders in this regard are: the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), International Air Transport Association (IATA), European Union (EU) and the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), the Ministry of Education, the Aviation Industry, senior management of the DCA, HR personnel and employees of the DCA.

7.4.1. Building blocks of Sustainable Talent Management (STM)

The model of Sustainable Talent Management proposed by this study is premised from some work done on streams two and four of talent management, as well as Sustainable Human Resources Management, and Strandberg's work and other scholars' works on Sustainable Talent Management. The building blocks are discussed below.

The first noted building block for Sustainable Talent Management (STM) deals with the second stream of talent management. As it can be recalled from Chapter Two, the second stream of talent management explains the *development of talent pools*, focuses on future staffing needs of the organisation and manages the progression of employees through positions (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). According to Kesler (2002), talent pools are a set of processes designed to ensure an adequate flow of employees into jobs throughout the organisation. This approach focuses on the internal rather than the external labour market, and typically starts with the identification and mobilisation of internal talent pools (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Bryan, Joyce, & Weiss, 2006). The stream emphasised selecting and developing discrete pools of talent from people within the organisation (Byham, Smith & Pease, 2002; Cheloha & Swain, 2005; Cohn, Khurana & Reeves, 2005; Griffin, 2003; Kesler, 2002).

The second building block for Sustainable Talent Management deals with the fourth stream of talent management. The fourth stream of talent management emphasises the identification of *key or strategic positions* in an organisation, which have the potential to make a difference and create a competitive advantage for it (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2005; Collings & Mellahi 2009). While taking into account the fact that all positions in the organisation are important, this school of thought takes a view that some positions are more strategic and therefore more important than others. Hartman *et al.*, (2010) observe that this school of thought pays particular attention to the importance of identifying internal key positions, which should be supported by an identified internal pivotal talent pool

The third building block for Sustainable Talent Management is Sustainable HRM. This topic was discussed in detail in the preceding sections, where several distinctive elements were identified, including dealing with internal and external stakeholders, balancing economic, social and environmental impacts, and sustaining the human resources of the organisation in the long term.

The last building block for Sustainable Talent Management relies on the work of Strandberg (2005) who, also dealt with the issue of Sustainable Talent Management

(STM), but only in a limited scope. This study recognises the value of Strandberg's (2005) work on five talent sustainability competencies to enhance the proposed model of Sustainable Talent Management. According to Strandberg (2015), sustainable talent management could be defined as the ability of an organisation to continuously supply skilled, committed and motivated talent on a long-term basis, not only to itself, but also to other organisations operating in the same community, needed for the current and future organisational and community success. In his study, Strandberg (2015) found that there are five talent sustainability competencies, which organisations should entrench in their employees in order to position themselves for future success. Each competency extends and enhances existing employee competencies. These talent sustainability competencies consist of three skills and two knowledge areas. While the work of Strandberg (2015) is appreciated, it is limited because his five talent sustainability competencies, which organisations should entrench in their employees to position themselves for future success, are only applicable to employees of an organisation. Furthermore, the work is considered limited because Strandberg's (2015) five talent sustainability competencies focus only internally on employees of an organisation and pays no attention to external stakeholders. Therefore, this work does not provide a comprehensive model of sustainable talent management.

Combining these building blocks, a proposed definition of Sustainable Talent Management for the DCA is that: it involves those long-term oriented strategies and practices, developed in consultations with internal and external stakeholders, that are aimed developing a critical mass of talent pools focusing on current and future talent needs, for the benefit of an organisation, the industry and society at large.

7.4.2. Core activities of Sustainable Talent Management in the DCA

This study has identified the following six core activities of Sustainable Talent Management: strategic position analysis, supporting the provision quality education, differentiated staffing approach, sustainable retention strategies, succession management planning, and training and development. Each of these are discussed below as follows:

7.4.2.1. Strategic position analysis

Stream four of talent management is premised on the idea of identification of strategic positions in an organisation (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Therefore, in terms of stream four, talent management activities start with the identification of strategic positions (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). However, the findings of this study were that the DCA grew. Strategic positions were created based on engagement with ICAO as a key stakeholder regulating the aviation industry internationally. This recognises that organisations are dynamic and go through different phases in their life (Gouillart *et al.*, 1995). Furthermore, organisations sometimes change their mandate and owners. As a result of this, new strategic positions need to be created from time to time. In addition, some jobs may lose their importance or even be removed from the organisation structure. The findings of this study suggest that in talent management, strategic posts should not only be identified, but also created.

In addition to the above, stream four does not seem to consider the state of skills in the organisation (Becker & Huselid, 2006; Becker & Huselid, 2010; Huselid, *et al.*, 2005). The findings of this study indicated that even at the end of the Talent Management Programme, there was still a vacancy rate of 59%, and a supply of talent to key posts had not been created. In order to determine the level of skills available in an organisation, an internal skills audit (Sparrow, 2007) needs to be conducted by the HR function. Based on the internal skills audit, the organisation is then able to identify those strategic positions that are at risk. This should be incorporated into talent management planning activities where HR may need to engage with senior management to get their agreement to the implementation of specific talent management initiatives that mitigate these risks.

Finally, as part of risk mitigation, the DCA needs to look at the broader labour market to determine the general availability of such skills (De Prins, 2011; Ehnert, 2009; Freitas *et al.*, 2011). However, it is sometimes possible – as was the case in this study – that the labour market is inadequate and may not have such skills. This will require further engagement with external stakeholders and is discussed further in the next section.

In summary the model recognises the contribution made by stream four of talent management, but goes beyond that and proposes that a strategic position analysis should be performed. The strategic position analysis includes identifying and creating key posts, conducting a skills audit as a basis for a risk analysis and then surveying the labour market. In this regard, the role of HR in engaging stakeholders such as ICAO and senior management has been highlighted.

7.4.2.2. Supporting the provision of quality education

This is a new activity introduced by this model to improve stream four of talent management. Several scholars (Ehnert, 2006 and 2009; Freitas *et al.*, 2011; Friedman & Miles, 2006; Kramar, 2014; Thom & Zaugg, 2004) argue that the long-term sustainability of organisations depends on efforts made by such organisations to address issues that may affect their sources of resources such as the labour markets, education systems or families. Therefore, the role of quality education in supporting the creation of talent pools is important. In fact, Reich (1992) argues that the most powerful nations' competitiveness in the 21st century would depend on the education and skills of its people. Similarly, Twamasi, (2004) emphasises the important role of a proper education system in order to advance the economic status of greater society.

The lack of quality education to prepare Namibians for specialised jobs in the aviation industry was identified by the study as a limiting factor to the creation of talent pools. Using the systems thinking approach of Strandberg (2015), HR should understand the interconnections and interdependence among several stakeholders and work with the aviation industry as a whole to advise the education authorities on how to address the educational challenges and opportunities of the industry. In particular, in consultation with stakeholders advice needs to be given to the education authorities on the appropriate curriculum and syllabuses of schools, possibly even recommending that some schools be designated as feeder schools for specialist careers in the aviation industry.

The type of education system offered in the schools should include the teaching of Mathematics and Physical Science or any other subject that properly prepares learners to work in the knowledge economy of the twenty-first century. The aviation industry requires the education system that will be able to produce people that are able of bringing about social innovation to the DCA. According to Strandberg (2015), social innovation is the ability of an organisation to possess knowledge that generates business models and systems that advance both business and social value.

The model proposes an approach to the education system that is consultative and inclusive. It is this kind of a consultative and inclusive education system that will ensure that organisations have the knowledge and capacity to shift their focus from reactive problem solving to co-creating the future with stakeholders, in order to bring about social innovations (Strandberg, 2005). Furthermore, the model also incorporates Carroll's (1991) last level of philanthropic responsibilities. In this regard, the model requires the DCA to take on philanthropic responsibilities that demonstrate that it is a good corporate citizen by contributing resources to the community in which it operates, with the view of improving the quality of life in order to enhance Sustainable Talent Management (Carroll, 1991). In this case, important stakeholders such as the Namibian Aviation Industry, the government of the Republic of Namibia through the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Works and Transport (which is responsible for the entire transport sector of Namibia) should be engaged by the DCA through its HR function, in determining the curriculum and syllabuses of schools. Furthermore, other important role players in the private sector of the Namibian aviation industry as well as the DCA's senior management and employees should be consulted in determining the long-term needs of the aviation industry at large.

7.4.2.3 A differentiated staffing approach

The study found that in addition to lack of qualified people that should have filled strategic positions at the DCA, the issue of standard staffing approach as guided by the Public Service Commission of Namibia created staffing problems. The systems did not differentiate between different job designations when it came to staffing the DCA. The

one-size-fits-all approach was used and did not seem to produce results. Furthermore, although the Affirmative Act (Employment), Act 29 of 1998, guided the recruitment processes at the DCA, issues of diversity management were not properly articulated in any policy document of the DCA. The model proposes a differentiated approach to attraction, recruitment and selection of various job categories taking into account diversity in the Aviation Industry.

In this regard, the model proposes that HR uses the external collaboration approach (Strandberg, 2015) to the recruitment and selection process. Collaboration could be between business organisations and the aviation industry or business organisations and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). This type of collaboration would enable the DCA to jointly develop staffing solutions with the industry and work together for the health of the whole system and the benefit of the communities in which they operate.

In terms of attraction, the model calls for a differentiated approach to advertisements based on the type of jobs. The Aviation Inspectors' jobs should carry a detailed description of the type of inspectorate that is needed. For example, in a job family of Aviation Inspectors, there are several specialised inspectors' jobs such as Airworthiness Inspector, Flight Operations Inspector, Personnel Licensing Inspector and Aerodrome Inspectors. Therefore, the attraction, recruitment and selection of Aviation Inspectors should require a differentiated approach, whereby the unique skills set and competencies of the specific specialist job are to be tested and satisfied with before the actual appointment is considered. For example, according to the IATA (2012), such a test would include aptitude diagnostics of basic abilities, specific/operational abilities, social competencies and personality traits of the candidate.

Whereas a comprehensive procedure may be needed for Aviation Inspectors, a more simplified approach may be taken with regard to the recruitment and selection of people holding front line jobs in the aviation industry. The approach in terms of this model may require that only their attitude in relation to interpersonal situations be tested, without necessarily testing their interpersonal skills set (Falter, 2000). This is suggested,

because it is believed that skills for front line jobs could still be learnt while on duty, while attitudes are difficult to change.

Furthermore, other important role players such as the Public Service Commission, senior management of the DCA and employees of the DCA should be consulted in determining the staffing criteria. In this regard, the important facilitation role that is played by HR cannot be ignored because they should advise based on best practice obtained elsewhere

7.4.2.4. Sustainable retention strategies

The study found that some people remained in the employment of the DCA for a considerable length of time, because of the perceived status and respect that they were accorded by the aviation community. Therefore, social status is an important retention strategy the DCA may continue upholding. However, the study also found that many employees of the DCA left the services for various reasons including low levels of pay structures. Although it has been argued that pay satisfaction alone is not an adequate retention strategy, it can be a major de-motivator if the organisation does not pay at the market rate or at the level that people believe is reasonable (Bluen, 2013; Cappelli, 2000). Therefore, the DCA should develop sustainable compensation policies in order to retain talent.

Another important sustainable retention strategy proposed by the model is the display of a positive attitude and welcoming manner by leadership and senior management towards their subordinates. It is important that leadership and senior management should develop the practice of receiving and meeting newly appointed recruits in the organisation within a few days of their appointment. This approach should make the new recruits comfortable and feel that they were welcome to stay (Barkhuizen *et al.*, 2014; Falter, 2000).

Furthermore, employee engagement, which promotes the employees' emotional and intellectual involvement in their work, should be seen as an important retention strategy

for the DCA (Bhatnagar, 2007; Bluen, 2013; Hughes & Rog, 2008; HR Focus, 2006; HR Focus, 2007; Trevor, *et al.*, 2003). Employees should be engaged by their employers regularly in order to understand the type of work assignments that challenge them and make them fully occupied.

7.4.2.5. Succession management planning

Succession management planning is an important strategy for the long-term sustainability and viability of the organisations (Mandi, 2008). If succession management planning is in place as part of the organisation's strategy, it can prevent loss of the organisational knowledge and culture (Lynch, 2006). To highlight the importance of succession management planning, some studies have found that there exists a link between succession management planning and organisational performance (Khumalo & Harris, 2008; Rowe *et al.*, 2005; Rothwell, 2005).

Using the systems thinking approach of Strandberg (2015), the role of quality education to prepare Namibians to take over in specialised jobs in the aviation industry becomes important. Quality education system should be able to produce a critical number of learners in Mathematics and Physical Science, and other relevant subjects that properly prepare them for jobs in the aviation industry. Similarly, the aviation industry should be able to absorb high school graduates with the necessary subjects in order to create a pool of qualified people that could easily take over from retiring seniors. This is the pool, from which the DCA could also draw their successors.

In this regard, senior management and HR at the DCA should work together to produce a formal succession management plan. This should clearly indicates the type of activities to develop a pool of qualified candidates that would be considered when the time is right, with the successful candidate going through the transition period (Behn *et al.*, 2005; Hansen & Wexler, 1988; Sharma *et al.*, 2003; Lee *et al.*, 2003). It is advisable that the civil aviation industry be consulted in this regard.

7.4.2.6. Training and development

Training and development is a very important aspect of sustainable talent management. People need growth and career advancement. Organisations should offer training and developmental opportunities that help to develop and pursue higher purpose within them in order to enable personal and organisational transformation.

Stream four of talent management takes special interest in investing in the training of people holding strategic positions (Becker *et al.*, 2009; Collings & Mellahi, 2009). It encourages organisations to invest more in the training of people occupying strategic positions. However, the study found that in the civil aviation industry, ICAO guides training activities of all contracting member states. In this regard, organisations should set aside adequate financial resources to undertake this training. The model supports ICAO efforts, but encourages the DCA to provide budgets for training purposes considering importance of safety aspect in the aviation industry. It is proposed that compliance to regular in service training schedules as per job categories should be maintained. As an approach to sustainable talent management, the model propose that organisations should understand that their training efforts are not for themselves alone, but also for other organisations that operate in the same environment with them. Organisations should understand that there are interconnections and interdependence between several stakeholders and the social, economic, environmental domains at all times. The roles of the Aviation Industry, senior management of the DCA, HR and employees, should always be taken into account when proposing training initiatives.

7.5. CONCLUSION

The chapter discussed several findings of the study. The aim of the research was, from the perspective of talent management, to analyse the corrective action plan of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) as a process of securing talent for strategic positions in aviation safety in Namibia. The results of the findings of the study were discussed in this chapter from the perspective of the fourth stream of talent management, which emphasises securing talent for strategic positions (Collings and

Mellahi, 2009; Huselid & Becker, 2011).

The chapter also discussed the findings of the study from the perspective of stream four of talent management with its focus on strategic positions in organisations. The chapter highlighted the fact that some of the findings of the study were in line with this approach to talent management, but certain challenges that were encountered in carrying out the talent management programme could not be addressed from this perspective, thereby exposing the limits of this approach to talent management in an emerging economy like Namibia. Consequently, a model of sustainable talent management was proposed for the DCA of Namibia.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

8.1. INTRODUCTION

This is the final and concluding chapter of this study. The study was about talent management, a case study of Namibia's Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in securing talent for Aviation Safety, from 2008 to 2014. The aim of this research was, from the perspective of talent management theory in a diverse environment, to analyse the corrective action plan of the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) as a process it used to secure talent for key positions for aviation safety in Namibia. The aim of the study was divided into the following three specific objectives:

- Firstly, to explore and discuss the key challenges that informed the programme in terms of Namibian education as well as the international aviation safety requirements;
- Secondly, to describe and analyse the talent management strategies that were adopted in managing key positions within aviation safety at the DCA; and
- Finally, develop a model of sustainable talent management for the DCA.

The above-mentioned three objectives were met in the previous chapters, which presented the theory and discussed talent management activities. In view of the fact that this is a concluding chapter, it makes general recommendations and specific recommendations for the management of the DCA. Furthermore, the chapter highlights the main contributions of the study to the existing body of knowledge. Based on the model of sustainable talent management developed for the DCA in Chapter 7, recommendations are made for practice and further research.

8.2. MANAGEMENT RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the research in the previous chapter, the study makes two sets of recommendations. These are the general as well as the specific recommendations for

managers at the DCA of Namibia. The general recommendations are given to create an enabling and sustainable environment for talent management in aviation safety to prosper. The recommendations for managers at the DCA of Namibia are specific and should serve as actionable items to assist with future talent management programmes.

8.2.1. General Recommendations

This study makes six general recommendations. First, the study found that the Namibia Qualifications Authority (NQA) did not have the capacity to evaluate aviation related qualifications when they were requested to do so by the Public Service Commission (PSC). In this regard, it is recommended that the DCA of Namibia should engage with both the NQA and the PSC as external stakeholders so that the NQA qualifications framework covers areas in civil aviation.

Second, although the Namibian Constitution guarantees access to education as a right to all Namibian citizens, several studies have identified access to education as a challenge in the education system of Namibia (Marope, 2005; UNICEF report, 2011). According to these reports, both the Net Enrolment Rate (NER) and Gross Enrolment Rate (GER) in most Namibian schools had declined significantly for various reasons. Therefore, in terms of access to education, it is recommended that the Government of the Republic of Namibia undertake a review of the provision of education to learners who are missing out on education, possibly due to remoteness or the mobile lifestyles of some cultural groups. In particular, a needs assessment and feasibility study of the provision of alternative models of schooling for learners in remote areas, or from mobile social groups such as the San, should be conducted.

Third, the absence of a proper and fully functional aviation training institution in Namibia to support the civil aviation industry is an important matter that should be addressed. While civil aviation activities take place in a particular country, they are also required to comply with international civil aviation standards and recommended practices. In order for Namibia to participate effectively in international civil aviation, there is a need for the country to reduce its reliance on foreign countries for training of

civil aviation officials. In this regard, it is recommended that Namibia, in partnership with other SADC member states, consider establishing a fully equipped aviation and training centre to provide training in all civil aviation related aspects, in order to fully comply with international standards and recommended practices.

Fourth, training and development in the civil aviation is generally an expensive undertaking. However, a critical mass of adequately trained and qualified Namibians in the area of aviation safety is needed, if Namibia is to take advantage of the rapidly changing global environment. In order to do this, it is recommended that Namibia should identify and develop the skills and qualifications required in the civil aviation industry over different time frames. In this regard, Namibia could begin by investing in a critical skills area such as aviation safety to meet the current and emerging challenges in civil aviation, both domestically and the internationally.

Fifth, considering the absence of a large number of qualified technical personnel in civil aviation in Namibia, there is a need for the DCA to work together with career guidance teachers at targeted secondary schools in the country to encourage learners at that level to consider careers in civil aviation. This should be supported by the visible presence of aviation-related career guidance exhibitions at major trade fairs in the country. In order to make this a reality, the DCA could also introduce a dedicated bursary scheme in order to increase the critical numbers of qualified aviators in the industry. It should be noted that a safety regulatory authority does not only make use of qualified personnel, but such qualified personnel should also possess extensive industry experience. It is for this reason that it is recommended that the DCA allow their sponsored graduates to work for the industry to gain industry experience in order for them to have both the required qualifications and industry experience with the view of eventually taking up key positions at the DCA one day.

Finally, the issue of HIV/AIDS is another important consideration that needs the attention of the Government of the Republic of Namibia. Namibia is among the countries with the highest HIV/AIDS infection rate in the world. It is recommended that the potential negative impact of HIV/AIDS on aviation safety experts should be considered in all planning activities of the civil aviation industry.

8.2.2. Specific Recommendations

The study was about talent management and how the DCA actually translated the corrective action plan into securing talent for aviation safety. In other words, the study was essentially about how the DCA secured its talent in order to enhance its capability to exercise its safety oversight responsibility. It should be noted that safety oversight is the function by which ICAO member states ensure the effective implementation of critical elements (CEs), standards and recommended practices (SARPs) and associated procedures contained in the annex to the Convention and related ICAO documents. However, taking into account the fact that the successful implementation of all eight CEs and SARPs depends on the availability of a technically qualified people, the recommendations mentioned below were made to the management at the DCA of Namibia. The specific recommendations for management are presented below.

First, both the Public Service Act of 1995 and the Public Service Commission Act of 1990 make specific provisions on the role of the Public Service Commission in the recruitment and selection process of people employed in the public service of Namibia. Both laws gave the Public Service Commission executive powers when the provisions of the laws stated that the recommendation of the PSC could not be rejected by anyone except the President of the Republic of Namibia. This particular provision created problems in fast tracking the implementation of the decision where the recommendation of the Public Service Commission was challenged by other approving bodies. With regard to the above, it is recommended that the laws be amended to align the powers of the Public Service Commission to the envisaged advisory role as provided for in the Constitution of the Republic of Namibia. It is further recommended that in the interim, pending the amendments to the laws, the central control by the PSC in the preparations of staff rules should be decentralised and delegated to the DCA and various offices, ministries and agencies (OMAs) for efficient administration of the recruitment process. In this regard, it is also recommended that the PSC consider giving general human resource frameworks under which the DCA and various OMAs should operate based on best-benchmarked international practice. This approach would allow management at

the DCA and various OMAs some flexibility on the details and processes based on the framework provided.

Second, in terms of attraction, recruitment and selection of aviation safety experts for strategic positions, it is suggested that future recruitment and selection processes at the DCA should be completed within a prescribed short period of time to avoid talent loss. In this regard, it is recommended that the recruitment strategy should include several modes of advertisements such as Radio, TV, Internet as well as using Employment Agencies instead of only the traditional newspaper advertisements. This approach will afford the DCA a higher response rate that will also allow a wider choice. It is also recommended that the DCA make use of a wider range of selections tools, such as psychometric tests, aptitude tests and assessment centres, in addition to the traditional application blank and interview.

Third, while the Public Service Staff Rules and Procedures were designed for the purposes of exercising the necessary control mechanisms to reduce abuse of power by people in trusted positions, the study found that the strict adherence to the provisions of the Public Service Staff Rules and Procedures were often cited as justifiable reasons for the lengthy procedures in appointing suitably qualified individuals to strategic positions at the DCA. It is recommended that management at the DCA should develop a culture where there is a sense of urgency so that staff members see the urgency in matters of staffing. In this regard, it is suggested that the DCA considers developing a staffing charter they commit themselves to specific timeframes to the completion of the recruitment and selection process.

Fourth, it was noted that in order to attract good candidates, the public service staff rules on recruitment and selection at the time of the study allowed for a recruiting institution to offer a salary higher than that provided for in terms of the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM). However, for the job category Aviation Inspector it was found that the administration of such an incentive regime in terms of negotiations of salaries was not yet established by the PSC. Instead, the PSC had set salary scale ceilings that were not to be exceeded. These ceilings were set without considering

international benchmarks. It is recommended that the PSC should adopt general guidelines that are industry specific and allow the user OMAs some flexibility in terms of determining the salaries of the experts they would employ.

Fifth, head hunting is a recruitment process outsourced to an external agency only when internal recruitment processes fail to source a qualified candidate on a number of times. However, the process should at all times be guided by an approved policy regulating its operations. It is recommended that in addition to other recruitment and selection policies, the DCA should also develop a specific policy on head hunting because of the uniqueness of the industry it operates in.

Sixth, in terms of succession management planning, except for the provisions of the Affirmative Action Act, the study found there was no attempt by the DCA to introduce a succession management programme. Based on the above, it is recommended that a structured under-study programme for scarce skills in the job category of aviation safety be introduced at the DCA of Namibia in order to create a talent pipeline and to avoid talent loss.

Seventh, consideration should be given to the development of a retention policy for strategic positions at the DCA. In order to achieve this, it is suggested that external surveys be conducted with similar organisations in the Southern African Development Community (SADC) region and across other Commonwealth countries in order to determine good retention practices.

Eighth, at the time of the study, the PSC was responsible for setting entry requirements, including qualifications of all jobs in the public service. The Public Service Commissioners were retired civil servants drawn from different occupations who had no knowledge of technical jobs in the civil aviation industry. In the past, this had led to the PSC setting entry educational requirement to the DCA that were below standard as well as being irrelevant to the industry. Taking into account the fact that PSC is a constitutional body whose advisory functions are prescribed by the constitution of the Republic of Namibia, it is recommended that the PSC consider establishing a standing

subcommittee composed of retired experts from the civil aviation industry to assist them when dealing with issues of personnel in the industry.

Nineth, the PSC put in place norms guiding the creation of positions as well as creating a staff establishment. In terms of the norms that existed at the PSC at the time of the study, no Offices, Ministries, Agencies (OMAs) were allowed to create positions that were not in line with their mandate. For example, the DCA could not be allowed to create a position of a Medical Examiner because the PSC believed that such positions could only be on the establishment of the Ministry of Health and Social Services. Similarly, the DCA could not be allowed to create a position of a Legal Officer because the PSC believed that such positions could only be on the establishment of the Ministry of Justice. It is recommended that the DCA engage the PSC to move away from norms that are of a generic nature and take into account the uniqueness of specialised industries in the country such as aviation.

Tenth, in terms of staffing levels at the DCA, the study found that the international practice is that the number of technical personnel required should be based on the workload formula. The industry has ratios for the number of inspectors required, given the number of aircraft on the register and the number of licences on issue. However, the DCA fell short of the required number of technical staff based on this international formula that would apply for the 1317 aircraft on its register as at 31 December 2014. It is therefore recommended that the DCA consider adopting the internationally accepted staffing formula for technical personnel in order to cope with the aviation activities in the Namibian airspace.

Eleventh, with regard to training and development, the study found that the DCA was a civil aviation authority of Namibia. However, the study also found that the DCA did not have Civil Aviation Inspectors with superior qualifications to those in the industry that were to be supervised. It is recommended that the DCA inspectors should endeavour to appoint Aviation Inspectors who possess similar or superior knowledge than those they supervise in the industry. In more specialised areas such as Medical Examiners and Designated Examiners which the DCA may have difficulties to source, it is an

established practice that the state could delegate those inspector functions to third parties without compromising the authority of the DCA, depending on the complexity of the air activities generated. In order for the DCA to ensure its oversight responsibility, even when the competencies are sourced externally, the DCA still has to ensure oversight over those exercising those delegated responsibilities on its behalf. As a result of this responsibility, which remains with the DCA even in situations where inspector functions are delegated, it is recommended that it should consider the development and capacity building of training professionals such as Subject Matter Experts (SMEs), Instructors (Teachers), Examiners (Theory) and Assessors (Practice).

Finally, the study found that the DCA was already using competency-based training, which was designed to increase knowledge retention by understanding how to perform a specific task better. However, it is recommended that the DCA improve on their training record keeping allowing better and improved tracking of training activities and the skills and qualifications of its staff.

8.3. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

8.3.1. Limitations of the study

The limitations of the study were found to be in three areas of the research design. The first limitation in terms of the design of this study is that this was a case study of one organisation. The aim of case study is always to provide a rich, multi-dimensional picture of the situation been studied. In choosing this research design, the study argued in Chapter Two why it was appropriate for a single case study research design to be followed. However, it still provided only a limited perspective on talent management research. It is therefore recommended that other similar case studies of talent management of a small civil aviation industry in developing economies, with high levels of skills shortage, like Namibia be conducted.

The second limitation of the design was the limited data sample that was used. Data were collected using multiple methods and sources such as documentation, interviews

and archival records (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Eisenhardt, 1989; Remenyi, 2012; Yen, 1994). The sample of the DCA employees that was interviewed consisted of the Director of Civil Aviation, six managers and thirteen employees. While the total number of employees at the DCA was over 100 at the time of the research, it was not possible to interview them all and only 20 employees were interviewed. It could be argued that different findings could have been obtained if a larger sample was used. In this regard, the recommendation using the argument of a larger sample size is dealt with in the next section.

The third limitation in terms of the design of the study was that structured interviews were used. Some of the limitations that were presented by the use of structured interviews were their rigidity and lack of flexibility. By their nature, structured interviews do not present an opportunity to generate a lot of information, as the interview should follow certain prescribed questions. This matter was aggravated by the fact that, for ethical reasons, research assistants were hired by the researcher to conduct the interviews on his behalf.

In view of the fact that interviews as a primary data collection method presented some limitations to the study in terms of the sample size as well as the fact that they were structured, it is proposed that another method of data collection be used to determine the impact of the talent management programme at the DCA. In this regard, it is recommended that management obtain the services of an independent researcher to conduct a questionnaire survey amongst all the people at DCA who had gone through the talent management programme to determine employee satisfaction levels with the programme.

8.3.2. Delimitations of the study

In terms of the delimitation of the study the following were considered: firstly, the DCA is the only regulatory authority of the civil aviation industry in Namibia. Therefore, the study could not have put its focus elsewhere except the DCA and the delimitation of the study was in relation to talent management activities that took place at the DCA of Namibia. Secondly, the study only focused on the talent management programme over

the period from the beginning of 2008 until the end of 2014. Thirdly, in terms of the employees interviewed, the study did not consider interviewing operators and aircraft owners in the industry. Since the DCA regulates the conduct of these operators and the aircraft owners, they are important stakeholders in the aviation industry and may have had particular views on the corrective action plan of the DCA. Finally, although all employees of the DCA could have had information on talent management, not all could be interviewed. The study could not have interviewed all staff members of the DCA because the purposive sampling technique was used. In terms of the purposive sampling technique, only people considered by the researcher to be well informed about a particular subject matter were interviewed.

In view of the above-mentioned delimitations of the study, the following are recommended: firstly, the case study was conducted on the DCA which operates in a highly regulated environment. However, it is possible that a study of a similar institution in a non-regulated environment may produce different results. Based on this assumption, it is recommended a similar study be conducted to investigate the implementation of a talent management programme in non-regulated environments both in the private and public sectors. Secondly, the DCA of Namibia was part of a bigger entity called the Ministry of Works and Transport. The study found that there was lack of appreciation and support to the DCA on the part of officials of the Ministry of Works and Transport in terms of the talent management programme of the DCA. In particular, the study found that there was limited financial and human resources support from the Ministry of Works and Transport. In view of this dependence and lack of support that was experienced by the DCA during the implementation of the talent management programme, and combined with the fact that the DCA has become an autonomous civil aviation authority during 2016, it is recommended that a follow up comparative analysis study could be conducted in the near future. This would be to determine whether future talent management programmes are run differently in the DCA when operating in this independent manner.

Finally, it is also important to establish the extent of the influence of the International Civil Aviation Organisation on similar organisations to the DCA. Further research could

be conducted to determine the role of the ICAO in the talent management programmes of other aviation regulatory entities, both in the public and private sectors.

8.3.3. Contribution of the study of the Body of Knowledge

There are three main contributions of the study to the body of knowledge. First, the study developed a model of sustainable talent management for the DCA as a proposed fifth stream of talent management. The model of sustainable talent management advocates for the sustainable supply of talent for the benefit of both individual organisations and the greater community with primary interest in the aviation industry. The model introduces key stakeholders such as the International Civil Aviation Organisation (ICAO), International Air Transport Association (IATA), European Union (EU) and the Federal Aviation Administration (FAA), the Ministry of Education, the Aviation Industry, senior management of the DCA, HR personnel and employees of the DCA. Furthermore, the model has as its foundation stream two of talent management; stream four of talent management, sustainable human resources management and Strandberg's (2015) work on sustainable talent management skills and competencies. The model comprises six core activities of talent management, namely, strategic position analysis, supporting the provision of quality education, a differentiated staffing approach, sustainable retention strategies, succession management planning, and training and development.

The second contribution is made by recognising the fact that strategic positions are not only identified as advanced by stream four of talent management, but goes beyond that and proposes that a strategic position analysis should be performed. The strategic position analysis includes identifying and creating key posts, conducting a skills audit as a basis for a risk analysis and then surveying the labour market.

The third contribution of the study to talent management theory is with regards to educational engagement. While the focus of some of the existing activities of talent management has been adjusted to accommodate the need for sustainable talent

management, supporting the provision of quality education has been added as an important additional activity of talent management.

Based on the above-mentioned contributions of this study, two sets of research recommendations are made. The first set of recommendations is aimed at advancing scholarship on talent management theory while the second set is for management.

In terms of further academic research on sustainable talent management, it is proposed that further research be conducted to test the applicability and value of this model. This should be carried out using a case study design that focuses on organisations that are located in a growing industry of a developing economy which are experiencing skills challenges.

In terms of further research recommendations for management the following three are proposals are made: first, the model recognises the importance of education engagement to sustain talent management. Furthermore, the model also recognises the fact that education engagement is about reaching out to the community and various stakeholders in the education sphere. Because of the dynamic nature of the industry, qualifications for the industry may change from time to time as technology advances. In this regard, it is recommended that management of the DCA in collaboration with the civil aviation industry conduct research on the best practices and approaches on how the education system could adapt and create appropriate civil aviation qualifications that come as a result of technological change in the industry. Second, given the fact that organisations are dynamic and those strategic positions could also be created in addition to identifying them, there is a need to establish a database of strategic positions in an organisation. This would entail updating the database in terms of creation, abolishing or modification of strategic positions in the DCA from time to time as the needs of the organisation change.

Taking this situation into consideration, two recommendations are made in this regard. The first one is that management should conduct research on how to go about analysing strategic positions that are understood to be dynamic given the fact that organisations

change from time to time. The second one is that once the procedure for analysing strategic positions have been established; the DCA should put in place long term HR planning to perform future strategic position analysis. Finally, the importance of consultations with stakeholders in the education sector to advise on the appropriate curriculum and syllabuses of schools and possibly even recommending that some schools should be designated as feeder schools for specialist careers in the aviation industry was emphasised by the model. In view of this, it is recommended that management of the DCA in consultation with the education authorities conduct research on the current state of the education system in terms of the levels at which Physical Science and Mathematics are offered in the country. The results of the research will inform the future planning of the aviation industry.

8.4. CONCLUSION

In this concluding chapter of the thesis, general recommendations as well as specific recommendations for the management of the DCA were made. Furthermore, the chapter discussed the limitations and the delimitations of the study and summarised the main contributions of the study. In terms of these limitations, delimitations and contribution, recommendations were made for further research. This study has proposed that the DCA adopt a new approach to talent management. It is hoped that this sustainable talent management model will be of value to the DCA and that it will offer a valuable perspective for further research on talent management in other contexts.

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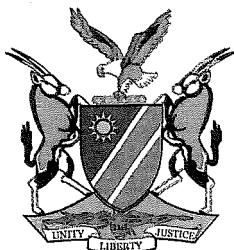
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REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

OFFICE OF THE PRIME MINISTER
CABINET SECRETARIAT

Tel: (061) 287 9111
Fax: (061) 226 189

Private Bag 13338
WINDHOEK
NAMIBIA

30 November 2011

Mr. George Simataa
P.O. Box 86259
EROS
Windhoek

Dear Mr. Simataa

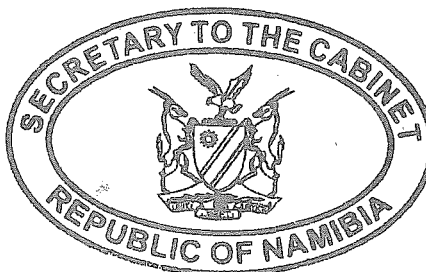
**APPROVAL TO PERFORM RESEARCH AT THE MINISTRY OF WORKS
AND TRANSPORT (DIRECTORATE OF CIVIL AVIATION) AND OTHER
GOVERNMENT INSTITUTION IF NEED BE**

Thank you for your request dated 9 November 2011 requesting permission to conduct research at the Ministry of Works and Transport particularly at the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) for the purposes of completing your PhD degree.

The title of your research topic looks very interesting and should be beneficial to the DCA and the ministry as such. Therefore this letter serves to inform you that your request has been considered and approved on condition that Government document are accessed only for purposes of your study and that Government receives a copy of your study upon completion.

Yours Faithfully,


.....
Frans H. Kapofi
SECRETARY TO CABINET





REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF WORKS AND TRANSPORT

Tel: +264 (0) 61 208 8111
Fax: +264 (0) 61 228 560
Telex: (50908) 709
Telegram: NAMTRANS

Private Bag 13341, Ausspannplatz
6719 Bell Street, Snyman Circle
Windhoek, NAMIBIA

Our Ref:.....

Your Ref:.....

Mr. George Simataa
P.O Box 86259
Eros Windhoek

Dear Mr. Simataa

APPROVAL TO PERFORM RESEARCH AT THE DIRECTORATE OF CIVIL AVIATION (DCA): MR. GEORGE SIMATAA STUDENT AT RHODES UNIVERSITY.

Thank you for your request dated 8 May 2013 requesting permission to conduct research at the Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) for the purposes of completing your PhD degree. The title of your research topic looks very interesting and should be beneficial to the DCA and the Ministry as such. Therefore this letter serves to inform you that your request has been considered and approval has been granted for your research assistants to conduct interviews with various employees you consider resourceful. You are also to access our facilities and use our documents strictly for academic research purposes. Please be informed that government documents remain confidential and cannot be used for anything else other than in the context of your research. However, approval is granted on condition that you provide this office with a copy of study upon completion.

Yours Faithfully,

Peter Mwatile
PERMANENT SECRETARY



“Effective and Efficient Delivery of Services”

All official Correspondence must be addressed to the Permanent Secretary.



REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF WORKS AND TRANSPORT

Tel: +264 (0) 61 208 8111
Fax: +264 (0) 61 228 560
Telex: (50908) 709
Telegram: NAMTRANS

Private Bag 13341, Ausspannplatz
6719 Bell Street, Snyman Circle
Windhoek , NAMIBIA

Our Ref:.....

Your Ref:.....

**TO : B.D Pienaar
DEPUTY PERMANENT SECRETARY**



**FROM : Peter Mwatile
PERMANENT SECRETARY**

DATE : 13 MAY 2013

RE : APPOINTMENT OF ACTING PERMANENT SECRETARY

Kindly be informed that the Permanent Secretary Mr. P. Mwatile will be out of office on official business on 14-17 May 2013.

During this period I have appointed you Acting Permanent Secretary and Accounting Officer of the Ministry. While trusting your sound judgment on decision making, may I request that you consult as much as possible on matters whose decisions may have serious consequences.

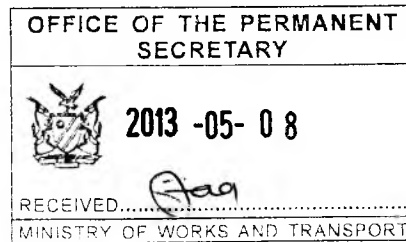
Sincerely Yours

**CC : Hon. Minister
Hon. Deputy Minister
Under Secretaries
Directors
Deputy Directors
All Staff members**

GEORGE SIMATAA
P.O.BOX 86259
EROS, WINDHOEK

08 May 2013

Mr. Peter Mwatile
Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Works and Transport
Windhoek
Namibia



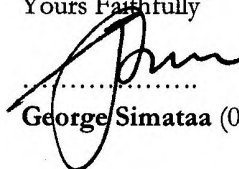
Dear Cde. Mwatile,

As you might know, I am enrolled as a research PhD student at Rhodes University in South Africa. The topic of my research is: *"Talent Management: A Case Study of Namibia's Directorate of Civil Aviation (DCA) in securing talent for Aviation Safety, 2008 to 2011."* You may recall that Namibia was referred to the Audit Results Review Board (ARRB) as a result of its failure to comply with several aviation safety measures in 2006. The subsequent audit by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) in 2011 resulted in a decision by the Council to remove Namibia from the Audit Results Review Board (ARRB). The reason given by the Council of ICAO was that Namibia (DCA) had made good progress in the implementation of the corrective action plan (CAP) since the last audit.

There purpose of this study Comrade Mwatile, is to investigate how the DCA implemented the CAP that eventually led to the Council of the ICAO to make a decision that saw the DCA eventually removed from the ARRB. In order to do this, the research requires that interviews be conducted with various people that played an active role in taking the DCA out of ARRB during the period under investigation. My trained research assistants on my behalf, using structured questions that I have developed, will conduct the interviews.

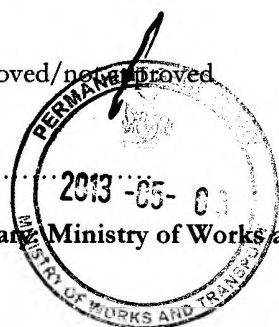
Therefore, the purpose of this letter is to request your permission to authorize these interviews and allow me access to some documents and other archival materials at the DCA that would help answer my research questions. Kindly be assured that the information will be obtained strictly for academic purposes and will be treated with the highest confidentiality it deserves. I am sure the study will equally be beneficial to the DCA and a copy will be made available to your office.

Yours Faithfully


..... 08/05/2013
George Simataa (0811446021)

The request is approved/~~not approved~~


.....
Peter Mwatile
Permanent Secretary Ministry of Works and Transport



Date: 8.05.2013



Brussels, 04 February 2008
TREN F/JLN/cm D(2008) 403000

Subject: Safety Oversight of Namibia

Dear Madam,

In the framework of relevant European legislation concerning carriers subject to an operating ban within the European Community (EC Regulation 2111/2005 hereby attached), the European Commission has gathered evidence showing a consistent pattern of safety related deficiencies on the part of Namibia as reflected in the analysis performed by us on the ICAO USOAP (Universal Safety Oversight Audit Programme) audit for Namibia hereby attached.

This analysis would indicate that the capability of Namibia to ensure the effective implementation of SARPs (Standards and Recommended Practices) is affected in four USOAP areas: LEG – primary aviation legislation and civil aviation regulations; ORG – civil aviation organisation; PEL – personnel licensing and training and OPS – aircraft operations certification and supervision. This analysis also indicates that Namibia has significant difficulties to ensure effective implementation of SARPs in two USOAP areas: AIR – airworthiness of aircraft and AIG – aircraft accident and incident investigation.

This letter addressed to the Civil Aviation Authority of Namibia constitutes an official consultation with the authorities with responsibility for regulatory oversight of Namibia in compliance with the provisions laid down in Article 3(2) of Regulation 473/2006 (hereby attached).

Ms. A. Simana Paulo
Director of Civil Aviation
Directorate of Civil Aviation of Namibia
Fax: + 264 61 70 20 66
Tel: + 264 61 70 22 13
Email: simpaulo@mweb.com.na

S:\J.Lopez\black list\Namibia\letters\080131_letter CAA Namibia.doc
Commission européenne, B-1049 Bruxelles / Europese Commissie, B-1049 Brussel - Belgium. Telephone: (32-2) 299 11 11.
Office: DM24 5/153. Telephone: direct line (32-2) 2961386. Fax: (32-2) 2967082.

E-mail: Daniel.Calleja-Crespo@ec.europa.eu

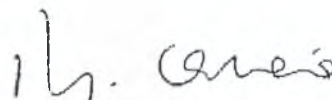
The Civil Aviation Authority of Namibia is kindly requested to provide the Commission detailed information about the measures that you are taking to resolve the situation, specially the update of the corrective action plan submitted by Namibia to resolve the findings in each USOAP area.

We would appreciate receiving such information by Friday, 22 February 2008.

Please address all correspondence on this matter to me with a copy by Fax to +322 296 70 82 or by E-mail to the following address: Jacinto.Lopez-Navalon@ec.europa.eu

Whilst thanking you in advance, I remain

Yours sincerely,



Daniel Calleja

Enclosures: EC Regulation 2111/2005
EC Regulation 473/2006
EC Analysis of ICAO USOAP Audit for Namibia

Info Copy: Mrs. E. Pape, Head of Delegation, Windhoek, Namibia
Mr. J. M. Pinto Teixeira, DG DEV E3

His Excellency Mr. Hanno Burkhard Rumpf
Ambassador of Namibia to the European Union
B-1150 Bruxelles, av. de Tervuren 454

NAMIBIA

EC Analysis of ICAO USOAP Audit performed between 25 April and 5 May 2006

Number of findings after the initial audit: 48

Area of Expertise	No of Findings		Safety Oversight System Critical Elements								Differences	Safety Oversight Functions (capability to ensure effective Implementation of SARPs)			
	Initial Audit	Follow-up Audit	Primary Aviation Leg. PAL	Spec. Operating Reg. SOR	CAA Structure & Oversight CAA	Technical Guidance Mat. TGM	Qualified Personnel QTP	Licensing & Cert. Obligations LCO	Contd. Surveillance Obligations CSO	Res. Safety Issues RSI		DIFF	LEG	ORG	PEL
LEG	2	-	1M	1s	-	-	-	-	-	-		II			
ORG	5	-	1M	-	1s	1M	1s 1m	-	-	-			II		
PEL	10	-	-	1M	1m	1s 1m	1s	1M 2s	1M 1m	-				II	
OPS	12	-	-	1s	1s	1M 2s 1m	-	-	2M 3s 1m	-					II
AIR	7	-	-	1M	-	1m 1s	-	1s	2M	1s					
AIG	12	-	3M 1s	-	1M 2s	1M 2s	1M 1s	-	-	-					

Note: LEG – primary aviation legislation and civil aviation regulations; ORG – civil aviation organisation; PEL – personnel licensing and training; OPS – aircraft operations certification and supervision; AIR – airworthiness of aircraft; AIG – aircraft accident and incident investigation; ANS – air navigation services; AGA – aerodromes; 1 – the state is capable to ensure effective implementation of SARPs; II – capability affected by significant findings; III the state is not capable to ensure effective implementation of SARPs; N – no differences to the SARPs exist; D – declared differences to the SARPs exist; ND – non-declared differences to the SARPs exist; m – minor finding; s – significant finding; M – major finding

RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR EMPLOYEES WHO WERE IN SERVICE AT THE DCA POST 2008 AND PARTICIPATED IN THE TMP, MARCH 2014.

1. Introductory statements.

- 1.1. Good morning/afternoon. My name is.., fourth student at the University of Namibia. At the moment I am a Research Assistant helping Mr George Simataa to collect data for his PhD studies.
- 1.2. Mr George Simataa is a PhD candidate at Rhodes University under the supervision of Professor Noel Pearse. He is interested in investigating the talent management program at the Directorate of Civil Aviation that is taking place in collaboration with ICAO since 2008. In particular, he is more interested in knowing what happened between 2008-2011.
- 1.3. Mr Simataa could not undertake these interviews in person for ethical reasons. As you might recall, Mr Simataa was the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Works and Transport, under which your Directorate resorts, during the period under review. Therefore his participation in these interviews would have made you uncomfortable.
- 1.4. The purpose of the interview is to get your opinion, views, beliefs, knowledge and experiences of the talent management process that took place here at the Directorate of Civil Aviation between 2008-2011.
- 1.5. The information obtained during this interview will be used strictly for academic purposes and your identity will remain anonymous. The recommendations from the study will also be made available to the Directorate of Civil Aviation to help improve the situation.
- 1.6. The necessary permission to conduct the interviews has been obtained from both the Permanent Secretary of Works and Transport and the Director of Civil Aviation. *(At this point, hand over letters of permission from the concerned authorities and allow the interviewee to carefully study them before you continue).*
- 1.7. I should also inform you that the interview is voluntary and therefore you are free to withdraw from the interview anytime during the interview should you feel that you are not interested anymore. May I also have your permission to recon the interviews for the purposes of capturing your responses accurately?
- 1.8. Having heard all these, are there any questions you want to ask before we start with the substantive interview session? *(Wait for reply)*. If not, may I then obtain your written permission and concurrence of the interview by signing on this consent form. *(Hand over the form and show him/her where to sign)*. Thank you for your time. It will take about 45 minutes for the interview. Are you now ready to start?

2. Employee experiences during the Talent Management Program (TMP)

- 2.1. Which year did you join the DCA? What attracted you to the DCA?
- 2.2. How did you know about the job at the DCA? Did you react to an advertisement or were you headhunted? Explain.

- 2.3. How did you find the recruitment process? Was it fair in your opinion? And was it completed within a reasonable period of time in your view? Explain your answer.
- 2.4. Did you consider yourself as adequately qualified for the job you were offered at the time of your recruitment? Explain your answer.
- 2.5. What were the requirements of your job at the time of your appointment?
- 2.6. What type of induction was given to you after your appointment?
- 2.7. How did the long servicing employees treat during your early days at work? In your opinion, do you think you were received well? Explain your answer.
- 2.8. How did management prepare you to undertake your new job?
- 2.9. Was it easy to make friends with people you found at work? If yes, what were their levels in the hierarchy?
- 2.10. Did you as an individual find it difficult to work in an organization that was undergoing some management interventions at the time of your appointment?
- 2.11. What are your comments with regard to the level of consultations and communication at the DCA during the TMP interventions?
- 2.12. Were you told of the positions that were identified as key to the DCA? If yes, was your position also identified? What did this mean to you? What was your immediate reaction? If no, how did you know key positions at the DCA?
- 2.13. If your position was not identified as one of the key positions at the DCA, were you informed of this situation? If yes, how did you feel about that and what was your reaction?
- 2.14. What types of interventions were offered to you to cope with the new situation at the DCA?
- 2.15. How were nominations for training done? Explain the processes and procedures.
- 2.16. It is now over 4 years since you were appointed at the DCA. What made you stay for such a long time given the competitive nature of the civil aviation industry?
- 2.17. What are your views about the pay structure offered at the DCA? Are you satisfied? If not what can make you satisfied?
- 2.18. What are your views about benefits and conditions of service offered at the DCA? Are you satisfied? If not what type of benefits and conditions of service will make you a happy employee of the DCA?
- 2.19. How many times have you been promoted since your appointment? Are you happy with your progression?
- 2.20. How many training courses have you attended since your appointment? Did you find them beneficial? Explain your answers.
- 2.21. What were the direct benefits of the TMP to you as an employee of the DCA?
- 2.22. What were the setbacks of the TMP in your opinion?
- 2.23. Given an opportunity to go over the TMP again, what will you do differently that you did not do last time?

- 2.24. Given an opportunity to advice management based on your previous experience on the TMP, which areas of improvement would you suggest to management?
- 2.25. What are your views of the DCA as an employer? Is it a good or bad organization to work for and why?

3. Concluding statements

- 3.1. We have come to the end of our interview session. But before we close off, I would like to know if you have any questions or comment to make. (*Wait for the question or comment, if nothing, then you proceed to 3.2*).
- 3.2. Since you don't have questions or comments at the moment, I am leaving my contact number as well as my email address with you for contacting me in future should the need arise. (*Hand over your contact details at this juncture*).
- 3.3. Finally, I would like to thank you for your assistance and for availing your precious time to this interview.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR DIRECTOR IN SERVICE AT THE DCA PRE AND POST 2008 WHO PARTICIPATED IN THE TMP, MARCH 2014.

1. Introductory Statements

- 1.1. Good morning/afternoon. My name is George Simataa, PhD candidate at Rhodes University under the supervision of Professor Noel Pearse. I am here to collect data for my PhD studies.
- 1.2. I am interested in investigating the talent management program at the Directorate of Civil Aviation that is taking place in collaboration with ICAO since 2008. In particular, I am more interested in knowing what happened between 2008-2011.
- 1.3. The information obtained during this interview will be used strictly for academic purposes and your identity will remain anonymous. The recommendations from the study will also be made available to the Directorate of Civil Aviation to help improve the situation.
- 1.4. The necessary permission to conduct the interviews has been obtained from both the Permanent Secretary of Works and Transport. *(At this point, hand over letters of permission from the concerned authorities and allow the interviewee to carefully study them before you continue).*
- 1.5. I should also inform you that the interview is voluntary and therefore you are free to withdraw from the interview anytime during the interview should you feel that you are not interested anymore. May I also have your permission to recon the interviews for the purposes of capturing your responses accurately?
- 1.6. Having heard all these, are there any questions you want to ask before we start with the substantive interview session? *(Wait for reply)*. If not, may I then obtain your written permission and concurrence of the interview by signing on this consent form. *(Hand over the form and show him/her where to sign)*. Thank you for your time. It will take about 45 minutes for the interview. Are you now ready to start?

2. DCA's Corporate Strategy

- 2.1. After ICAO's audit of 2006, some shortcomings were identified on the part of the DCA. It was decided that a corrective action plan (CAP) be put in place. What were the top two important highlights of the corrective action plan? What did it include and why?
- 2.2. Who was involved in putting together the Corrective Action Plan and why?
- 2.3. How was the implementation plan carried out in terms of consultations and preparing the employees for the initiative? Was it introduced in phases or in a radical manner? Explain your answer.
- 2.4. In your view, why was it necessary to implement the corrective action plan?
- 2.5. In your opinion, were adequate financial and human resources made available for the implementation of the corrective action plan? Explain.

3. Recruitment and Selection Practices at the DCA

- 3.1. What is the maximum recruitment period at the DCA from advertisement to placement? Do you consider that period as reasonable? If not are there considerations to improve the waiting period?
- 3.2. How was recruitment done at the DCA? Through advertisement or through headhunting? Explain your answer.
- 3.3. When interviews were conducted, who was involved and why? How big was the interviewing panel in terms of numbers?
- 3.4. Who was responsible for putting together an interviewing panel? And why?
- 3.5. Who had the final approval in terms of the appointments at the DCA?

4. Succession Management Practices at the DCA

- 4.1. Did the DCA have a succession plan in place? If yes, explain how it worked? Was it considered transparent and acceptable?
- 4.2. How did the succession plan help in solving issues of diversity and inclusiveness at the DCA?
- 4.3. How successful was the succession plan when it came to the appointment of aviation safety officers in view of the competitive nature of the industry?
- 4.4. In your view, did the succession plan help in achieving the goals set out in the corrective action plan? Explain your answer.
- 4.5. In your view, was the use of the succession plan considered the most appropriate management tool during the implementation of the corrective action plan? Explain your answer.

5. Attraction and retention Practices at the DCA

- 5.1. How did the DCA ensure that the correct calibre of aviation safety people joined the organization?
- 5.2. Given the high cost associated with recruitment compared to the small size budgets traditionally at the disposal of most HR departments, how did the DCA succeed in attracting high quality candidates for aviation safety?
- 5.3. Records at the HR department indicate that majority of the staff at the DCA stay longer than five years before they move to other jobs. What are some of the retention incentives the DCA offer to its employees?
- 5.4. Did the DCA experience high turnover during the period under review? If yes, in your experience, what are the effects of high turnover in an organization such as the DCA?
- 5.5. According to exit interviews conducted, what are the most common reasons given by those who have left the DCA to join other organizations?

6. Identification of Key Positions at the DCA

- 6.1. Reports at the DCA indicate that positions in aviation safety were identified as key positions. Why was it so? Who was involved in the identification of key positions? How did the process take place?

- 6.2. Do you think the particular positions in aviation safety at the DCA directly affected the operations of the organization including revenue generation? Explain your answer.
- 6.3. To what extent do you think do aviation safety officers make mistakes costly to the operations of an establishment such as the DCA? Explain your answer.
- 6.4. In your view, to what extent is poor performance by an aviation safety officer immediately detected? Explain your answer.
- 6.5. In your experience, to what extent is the selection and eventually appointment of a wrong person to any position of an aviation safety officer costly to the DCA in terms of revenue loss?

7. Staff Training and Development Practices at the DCA

- 7.1. As a manager, I am sure you are familiar with the provisions of the training policy at the DCA. What are the most two important high lights contained in the training and development policy of the DCA?
- 7.2. In your opinion, what is the purpose of training at the DCA? Is it for skills development or motivation purposes? Explain your answer.
- 7.3. To what extent was line managers involved in the training needs analysis of their subordinates at the DCA?
- 7.4. Considering the importance of the occupational group aviation safety within the DCA, to what extent was the design and delivery of their training discussed by management?
- 7.5. Who was involved in the evaluation of training processes before and after training to ensure quality controls?

8. Assessment of Employee Change Readiness at the DCA.

- 8.1. In your own assessment, did the employees understand and know the kind of problems the DCA was undergoing before introducing the TMP? Explain you answer.
- 8.2. To what extent did the employees find the introduction of TMP as the necessary intervention to solve the problem at hand? Was it explained to them? How were they engaged in this regard? Explain.
- 8.3. What processes did management engage in to satisfy the employees that the top leadership of the DCA and the ministry were in full support of the TMP initiatives? Explain.
- 8.4. How did the DCA build confidence in the employees in assuring them that indeed the TMP was going to be a success? Explain.
- 8.5. To what extent did the employees believe that the introduction of the TMP was likely to have positive implications for themselves and the DCA? For example, did the employees believe the TMP will enhance their knowledge, skills, and abilities to match their revised jobs?

9. Concluding Statements

- 9.1. We have come to the end of our interview session. But before we close off, I would like to know if you have any questions or comment to make. (*Wait for the question or comment, if nothing, then you proceed to 3.2*).
- 9.2. Since you don't have questions or comments at the moment, I am leaving my contact number as well as my email address with you for contacting me in future should the need arise. (*Hand over your contact details at this juncture*).
- 9.3. Finally, I would like to thank you for your assistance and for availing your precious time to this interview.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR MANAGEMENT IN SERVICE AT THE DCA PRE AND POST 2008 WHO PARTICIPATED IN THE TMP.

18 MARCH 2014.

1. Introductory Statements

- 1.1. Good morning/afternoon. My name is George Simataa, PhD candidate at Rhodes University under the supervision of Professor Noel Pearse. I am here to collect data for my PhD studies.
- 1.2. I am interested in investigating the talent management program at the Directorate of Civil Aviation that is taking place in collaboration with ICAO since 2008. In particular, I am more interested in knowing what happened between 2008-2011.
- 1.3. The information obtained during this interview will be used strictly for academic purposes and your identity will remain anonymous. The recommendations from the study will also be made available to the Directorate of Civil Aviation to help improve the situation.
- 1.4. The necessary permission to conduct the interviews has been obtained from both the Permanent Secretary of Works and Transport. *(At this point, hand over letters of permission from the concerned authorities and allow the interviewee to carefully study them before you continue).*
- 1.5. I should also inform you that the interview is voluntary and therefore you are free to withdraw from the interview anytime during the interview should you feel that you are not interested anymore. May I also have your permission to recon the interviews for the purposes of capturing your responses accurately?
- 1.6. Having heard all these, are there any questions you want to ask before we start with the substantive interview session? *(Wait for reply)*. If not, may I then obtain your written permission and concurrence of the interview by signing on this consent form. *(Hand over the form and show him/her where to sign)*. Thank you for your time. It will take about 45 minutes for the interview. Are you now ready to start?

2. Recruitment and Selection Practices at the DCA

- 2.1. What is the maximum recruitment period at the DCA from advertisement to placement? Do you consider that period as reasonable? If not are there considerations to improve the waiting period?
- 2.2. How was recruitment done at the DCA? Through advertisement or through headhunting? Explain your answer.
- 2.3. When interviews were conducted, who was involved and why? How big was the interviewing panel in terms of numbers?
- 2.4. Who was responsible for putting together an interviewing panel? And why?
- 2.5. Who had the final approval in terms of the appointments at the DCA?

3. Succession Management Practices at the DCA

- 3.1. Did the DCA have a succession plan in place? If yes, explain how it worked? Was it considered transparent and acceptable?
- 3.2. How did the succession plan help in solving issues of diversity and inclusiveness at the DCA?
- 3.3. How successful was the succession plan when it came to the appointment of aviation safety officers in view of the competitive nature of the industry?
- 3.4. In your view, did the succession plan help in achieving the goals set out in the corrective action plan? Explain your answer.
- 3.5. In your view, was the use of the succession plan considered the most appropriate management tool during the implementation of the corrective action plan? Explain your answer.

4. Attraction and retention Practices at the DCA

- 4.1. How did the DCA ensure that the correct calibre of aviation safety people joined the organization?
- 4.2. Given the high cost associated with recruitment compared to the small size budgets traditionally at the disposal of most HR departments, how did the DCA succeed in attracting high quality candidates for aviation safety?
- 4.3. Records at the HR department indicate that majority of the staff at the DCA stay longer than five years before they move to other jobs. What are some of the retention incentives the DCA offer to its employees?
- 4.4. Did the DCA experience high turnover during the period under review? If yes, in your experience, what are the effects of high turnover in an organization such as the DCA?
- 4.5. According to exit interviews conducted, what are the most common reasons given by those who have left the DCA to join other organizations?

5. Identification of Key Positions at the DCA

- 5.1. Reports at the DCA indicate that positions in aviation safety were identified as key positions. Why was it so? Who was involved in the identification of key positions? How did the process take place?
- 5.2. Do you think the particular positions in aviation safety at the DCA directly affected the operations of the organization including revenue generation? Explain your answer.
- 5.3. To what extent do you think do aviation safety officers make mistakes costly to the operations of an establishment such as the DCA? Explain your answer.
- 5.4. In your view, to what extent is poor performance by an aviation safety officer immediately detected? Explain your answer.
- 5.5. In your experience, to what extent is the selection and eventually appointment of a wrong person to any position of an aviation safety officer costly to the DCA in terms of revenue loss?

6. Staff Training and Development Practices at the DCA

- 6.1. As a manager, I am sure you are familiar with the provisions of the training policy at the DCA. What are the most two important high lights contained in the training and development policy of the DCA?
- 6.2. In your opinion, what is the purpose of training at the DCA? Is it for skills development or motivation purposes? Explain your answer.
- 6.3. To what extent was line managers involved in the training needs analysis of their subordinates at the DCA?
- 6.4. Considering the importance of the occupational group aviation safety within the DCA, to what extent was the design and delivery of their training discussed by management?
- 6.5. Who was involved in the evaluation of training processes before and after training to ensure quality controls?

7. Assessment of Employee Change Readiness at the DCA.

- 7.1. In your own assessment, did the employees understand and know the kind of problems the DCA was undergoing before introducing the TMP? Explain you answer.
- 7.2. To what extent did the employees find the introduction of TMP as the necessary intervention to solve the problem at hand? Was it explained to them? How were they engaged in this regard? Explain.
- 7.3. What processes did management engage in to satisfy the employees that the top leadership of the DCA and the ministry were in full support of the TMP initiatives? Explain.
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REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

MINISTRY OF WORKS AND TRANSPORT

**STATEMENT BY THE HON. MINISTER, ERKKI
NGHIMTINA, MP' AT THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY ON THE
IMPROVED NAMIBIAN AIRSPACE.**

HONOURABLE SPEAKER

HONOURABLE MEMBERS

I raise to report to this August House on the progress made by the Ministry of Works and Transport with various reforms been undertaken at the Directorate of Civil Aviation.

As you might know, the Republic of Namibia is among the 190 contracting States to the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) based in Montreal, Canada. In terms of the Convention on International Civil Aviation, the Council of ICAO is required to report to contracting States any infraction of the said Convention as well as any failure to carryout recommendations or determinations of the Council.

Furthermore, the Council is required to report to the ICAO Assembly any infractions of this Convention where a contracting State has failed to take appropriate action within a reasonable time after notice of the infraction.

In order to establish the level of implementation of international Standards and Recommended Practices at a national level, the Assembly adopted a resolution which requires all contracting States to be audited by ICAO expert teams. As a result of this, The Republic of Namibia, in April 1996, became one of the first few States on the African Continent that subjected itself to a voluntary audit by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO). One of the critical audit findings was the non-existence of qualified Professionals at the Directorate Civil Aviation (DCA) to effectively perform the State's safety and security oversight responsibilities in line with its primary objective as contained in the Chicago Convention on International Civil Aviation. This is because it is impossible for any State to comply with its primary objective to ensure the safety of passengers, crew, ground personnel and the general public in all matters related to safeguarding against acts of unlawful interference with civil aviation, without a pool of competently skilled and qualified technical personnel.

Hence, the development of universally accepted Technical Standard and Recommended Practices (SARPs) as well as comprehensive audit system approach by the ICAO, to test the strength of a State safety and security oversight system continuously against Eight Critical Elements (CE). A State's level of compliance or non-compliance is then categorized by the European Aviation Safety Agency (EASA) or the Federal Aviation Agency (FAA) based on ICAO audit results into one of the three categories: Category I is a State that is capable of ensuring the implementation of SARPs. Category II is a State that is found by ICAO audit being affected by significant findings, while category III is a State is not capable of ensuring effective implementation of SARPs. Namibia demonstrated throughout successive ICAO – Universal Safety/ Security Oversight Audits programme (USOAP / USAP) a consistent pattern of safety and security related deficiencies in five areas of expertise of the Eight Critical Elements. Hence, its categorization; under II and III, in five areas of expertise in relation to the Eight Critical Elements considered important for a State's Safety/Security Oversight System.

Therefore European Commission (EC)'s analysis of ICAO USAOP audit performed between 25 April and 5 May 2006 showed that Namibia's low score in the six highlighted critical elements (CE) out of the Eight demonstrated not only its inability to maintain an acceptable level of safety oversight, but also its inability to attract competently skilled and qualified technical personnel to carry out the State's safety and security oversight responsibilities, in line with the aforementioned primary objective. Hence, the notification from the European Commission (EC) that almost banned the national air carrier (Air Namibia), from flying into European air space in 2008. An analysis of Namibia's Safety Oversight showed it's incapability to effectively implement SARPs in four of the eight critical elements. Namibia's total of forty-eight (48) findings averaging from major to significant findings severely impaired its safety oversight capability and hence, its subsequent referral to the ICAO Audit Result Review Board (ARRB).

These finding were in the following areas:

Licensing, certification, authorization and approval obligations.

In the areas of personnel licensing and certification the DCA was very deficient and non complaint and it was their serious opinion that Namibia is

not fulfilling its obligations under the Chicago Convention in terms of its continuing safety oversight responsibilities. One good example was the Air Operator Certification (AOC) of Air Namibia, given the complexity of its operations as an international carrier with flights throughout Africa and to Europe and the type of aircraft fleet operated. It was likely that Air Namibia's AOC was not validly issued in terms of the provisions of the Chicago Convention, Annex 6 Part 1.

Legislation

The ICAO findings revealed that the current Civil Aviation Act is outdated and does not meet the standard and recommended practices of ICAO. Therefore it was recommended that the act be reviewed and brought in-line with international standards. Cabinet authorized the Ministry of Works and Transport to engage ICAO Legal Experts to assist our National Legal experts with the review and amended of all Legislation and regulations relating to Civil Aviation. Significant strides were made. The Bill will be submitted to Cabinet and Parliament by June 2011.

Technical Regulations

Some visible progress has been achieved in addressing certain specifics of the ICAO -2006 Audit Findings. However, it was recommended that the SADC – Region use similar model regulations as the foundations for their own civil aviation regulatory development.

Airworthiness Certification

ICAO approved eight critical elements used to measure a State's capability to execute its safety oversight obligations under the Chicago Convention and gave an overview on the categorization of findings i.e. Significant, Major and Minor. The minor findings were discussed with inspectors during the assessment. These are:

(i) The Primary Civil Aviation Legislation, (ii) Specific Civil Aviation Regulations, (iii) State's Civil Aviation System and Safety Oversight Function; (iv) Technical Personnel, qualifications and Training; (v) Technical Guidance, tool and response to safety critical information; (vi) Licensing, certification, authorization and approval obligation; (vii) State Surveillance Obligations and (viii) Safety Resolutions. Clearly, at the time of

the audit, Namibia did not comply in five areas of the eight critical elements considered important under the Chicago Convention. The expert said the main reason for non-compliance with the last 5 critical elements is:

- Insufficient number of Inspectors qualified and competent to effectively perform oversight of all civil aviation activities in the country;
- The number of inspectors (2) at the moment did not correspond to the size of the aviation industry in Namibia, i.e. 569 registered aircraft, 29 air operators and 32 approved maintenance organizations.
- At that moment the DCA has only (1) qualified maintenance inspector with necessary training. The DCA needs to appoint 6 more qualified inspectors, 3 operations and 3 maintenance. As the training of inspectors is a time consuming process, if the inspectors were to be appointed immediately they would not be able to operate independently for one and a half to two years.

Therefore, SADC expert recommended the-

- Appointed with immediate effect (6) qualified and experienced inspectors because of the size of air operations, whilst training young Inspectors which would take up to two years before they would add value to the system, is considered as a medium to long term strategy. The Ministry recruited the six ICAO experts and they are hands on the job. Honourable members, as you know, such expert services must be paid for. For the past two years, the Ministry spent N\$ 20 million, which I must say it is put to good use. **I am therefore proud to announce that the name of the Republic of Namibia has been removed from the ARRB list on 2 March 2011.**
- The State of affairs within Airworthiness Subdivision requires immediate corrective actions of airworthiness inspector staffing.
- The expert concluded that the effectiveness of a State's Safety System is a mirror reflection of the number of accidents and eight accidents within less than a year is too much for the size of the aviation industry in Namibia. The expert commented that if the lack of inspector staffing is not addressed immediately the number of aircraft

accidents will continue to increase and the Government will have to bear the responsibility for that. This is a matter of grave concern and Namibia must act to comply with its international obligations, responsibilities.

Honourable Speaker, Honourable members of the House, my Ministry engaged six experts from ICAO to train our staff on various processes involved with issuing of pilot licenses, engineers licenses, Issuance of certificates and authorization for airline operations, developed manuals, inspectors, inspector's handbooks, procedures etc. In a nutshell, Namibia closed most of the gaps which were discovered during the audits such as the recruitment of local staff. There are still some outstanding findings which will be addressed as soon as the new civil aviation Bill is enacted into law by June this year

Finally, Mr. Speaker, we would like to state categorically clear that even if Namibia was removed from the ARRB list, there is no room for complacency. The Directorate of Civil Aviation has been instructed to expedite the establishment of the Namibian Civil Aviation Authority which will enable us to attract and retain suitably qualified staff. Since there is still a lot to be done, the Ministry of Works and Transport is in the process to extend the contracts of the ICAO experts by another year.

I thank you for your attention.