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**The Impact of Talent Management Transparency on Employees'
Outcomes**

by
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**Management sciences
(Human Resources Management)**

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Résumé

Malgré le fait que les organisations implantent de plus en plus de programmes de gestion des talents (Cappelli, 2006, 2009), et en dépit des nombreux écrits sur cette nouvelle tendance dans la gestion, peu de recherches reposent sur des bases empiriques solides (Gelens et al., 2013; Malik et Singh, 2014). En outre, sur le petit nombre d'études réalisées sur la gestion des talents, la plupart se sont surtout intéressées aux employés identifiés comme des « talents », laissant plusieurs questions par rapport à la situation des employés non identifiés comme des talents, et sur les façons dont le programme de gestion des talents peut les affecter. De plus, la gestion des talents présente de nombreux défis, notamment que les entreprises doivent respecter les règles de segmentation de main-d'œuvre, tout en faisant en sorte que tous les employés sachent leur valeur dans l'entreprise. Dans le but qu'un programme de gestion des talents soit un avantage concurrentiel pour l'organisation, certains auteurs dans la littérature, et de plus en plus d'organisations, voient la transparence comme un outil bénéfique. En conséquence, la transparence dans les programmes de gestion des talents n'a cessé de croître durant la dernière décennie (Bentein, Guerrero et Klag, 2012; Ready, Conger et Hill, 2010). À la lumière de ces faits, l'objectif de cette étude est d'analyser l'impact de la transparence de gestion des talents sur les employés non identifiés comme des talents.

À cet effet, nous avons décidé de nous concentrer sur l'influence de la transparence sur l'estime de soi organisationnelle et l'intention de quitter l'organisation, à travers le rôle médiateur de la perception de justice procédurale. Nous avons également analysé le rôle modérateur du désir de devenir un talent, dans la relation entre la transparence et la perception de la justice procédurale. En nous basant sur des recherches théoriques et empiriques, et en nous inspirant de la théorie heuristique de l'équité, nous avons posé les hypothèses que la transparence a une influence positive sur les attitudes des employés.

Afin de vérifier nos hypothèses de recherche, nous avons collecté des données auprès de deux organisations, opérant dans différents secteurs de l'industrie. Ces deux

organisations présentait différents niveaux de transparence par rapport à leur programme de gestion de talents. Notre échantillon était composé de 135 personnes, et nous avons réalisé des analyses en équations structurelles dans le but de tester notre modèle. Ces dernières nous ont montré que la transparence a une influence positive sur la perception de justice procédurale, même lorsque les non-talents désirent devenir des talents. En outre, la justice procédurale médie l'influence positive de la transparence sur l'estime de soi organisationnelle, ainsi que l'influence négative de la transparence sur les intentions de quitter l'entreprise.

Bien que cela ne fasse pas partie de nos hypothèses de recherche, nous avons testé également les différences de perception de transparence chez les employés. Nous étions intéressés à explorer la concordance de la perception de transparence à partir d'un point de vue subjectif versus un point de vue objectif. Malgré le fait que le niveau de transparence dans la gestion de talents était objectivement différent dans les deux organisations, le point de vue des employés sur les niveaux de transparence ne différait pas d'une entreprise à l'autre.

Les résultats obtenus dans cette étude représentent une contribution théorique et empirique dans le domaine de la gestion des talents. En outre, les résultats peuvent être utilisés comme un guide pour les mesures pratiques à prendre dans la gestion des talents des organisations.

Mots clés : gestion des talents, programme de gestion des talents, transparence, justice procédurale, estime de soi organisationnelle, intention de quitter, désir d'être un haut potentiel.

Abstract

Despite the fact that more and more organizations count with talent management (TM) programs (Cappelli, 2006, 2009), and in spite of the wide literature written about this new tendency in management, few research is based on solid empirical foundations of a successful talent management program (Gelens et al., 2013; Malik and Singh, 2014). Moreover, out of the very few studies performed on TM, the focus has been, by far, mostly centred on employees identified as talents, leaving several questions on what happens to non-talent employees, and the way a TM program can affect them. Besides, managing talent within an organization presents many challenges, in particular, companies have to respect the rules of workforce segmentation, all that by making sure, simultaneously, that all employees know their value in the company. In means to ensure that a TM program becomes a competitive advantage for the organization, certain authors in the literature, and more and more organizations; believe that transparent policies are a beneficial tool. As a consequence, transparency in TM has not stopped increasing in the past decade (Bentein, Guerrero and Klag, 2012; Ready, Conger and Hill, 2010). In light of these facts, the objective of this study is to analyze the impact of talent management transparency on employees not identified as talent.

We decided to focus our study on organizational attitudes. More specifically, we were interested in exploring the influence of TM transparency on OBSE (organizational-based self-esteem) and the intention to quit the organization, through the mediating role of procedural justice perception. Given a certain level of transparency, we also analyzed the moderating role of non-talents' desire to be a high potential (if present); on their perception of procedural justice. Based on theoretical and some empirical research, and making use of the fairness heuristic theory, we stated that transparency has a positive influence on employees' outcomes.

In order to verify our research hypotheses, we collected data from two organizations, operating in different sectors, and both with different objective levels of talent management transparency. Our sample constituted of 135 individuals. We made used of

structural equation modeling to test our model. The analyses showed us that TM transparency has a positive influence on employees' procedural perception, even when non-talents would like to become a talent. Furthermore, procedural justice perception mediates the positive influence of transparency on organizational-based self-esteem, and procedural justice mediates TM transparency's negative influence on turnover intentions.

Although it was not part of any of our research hypotheses, we also tested differences in the perception of TM perception among employees. We were interested in exploring the congruence of talent management transparency from an objective and a subjective point of view. Despite the fact that level of talent management transparency was objectively different in the two organizations used in this study, employees' point of view on the transparency levels of their TM system; did not differ from one company to the other.

The results obtained in this study represent a theoretical and an empirical contribution in the field of talent management. Moreover, the results can be used as a guide for practical measures to be taken in organizations' talent management police.

Keywords : talent management, talent management program, talent management transparency, procedural justice, organizational-based self-esteem, intention to quit, desire to be a high- potential

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List of Abbreviations

TM	Talent Management
OBSE	Organizational-based self-esteem
HP	High potential
HR	Human Resources

Acknowledgment

A couple of years ago I decided to do a Masters program. I chose to write a thesis instead of doing the internship program and although I wasn't sure of where I was going, I did my choice without hesitation. I realized on the way that writing a thesis was more complicated than what I thought it would be. A path with different challenges, ups and downs, but more interestingly, with lots of learning. I therefore embrace all the difficulties that I experienced through this process, because they taught me a lot of things I didn't know about me yet, including my perseverance, my capacity of discipline, my patience, and the hugeness size of the motivation I had for obtaining my Masters degree. Not to mention, how the thesis allowed me to continue to develop myself in so many different ways.

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Introduction

Talent management is not new of this century, as contemporary practices such as poaching or on-boarding talent, the reliance on social networks for hiring and other ad hoc arrangements look remarkably like arrangements in place before World War I (Cappelli, 2009). However, it is only in 1998, after McKinsey & Company wrote about talent in a now-famous report called “Better Talent is Worth Fighting For”, that talent management was officially launched (Beechler and Woodward, 2009). Since then, securing talent has become a matter of important concern for companies (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Carter, 2011; D. A. Ready, Hill, & Conger, 2008), and it is estimated that between 40% and 60% of global companies nowadays have high potential programs set in place for the management of their most talented employees (Pepermans, Vloeberghs, and Perkisas, 2003; Silzer and Church, 2010; Slan-Jerusalim and Hausdorf, 2007).

Context

These days, talent management is of growing concern for HR professionals for several reasons. To begin with, securing the right talent within an organization is a major topic in the contemporary business community. One of the main reasons is that the total cost of replacing an employee, including direct and indirect costs, is within the range of 70 % to 200% of their salary (Allen, Bryant and Vardaman, 2010). Another reason why talent management (TM) is key these days has to do with the low retention levels of the Y generation, who will represent 75% of the workforce by 2025 (Deloitte, 2014). Known to becoming bored, seeking enjoyment or following the road, Millennials are known for changing companies faster than other generations, especially when the right retention policies are not used (Luscombe, Lewis and Biggs, 2013). Last, but not the least, the shortage supply in the labour market is another reason, while many studies are forecasting a shortage of talents for the near future (Global talent risk, 2011). This shortage is mainly caused by baby boomers beginning to leave the labour workforce (Cappelli, 2006), as well as a lack in development programs in competencies in the past decades. The World Economic Forum has researched this in depth and claims that “to

sustain economic growth, by 2030 the United States will need to add more than 25 million workers and Europe will need to add more than 24 million employees, almost all industries and countries will require sizeable increases in the percentages of highly educated people in their workforces” (Global talent risk, 2011).

Moreover, managing talent comes with its challenges. The identification of talent itself is far from being a simple task. In fact, such a process may not lead to the results expected, and there is always the risk of spotting a merely replacement instead of a high potential candidates (Bentein, Guerrero and Klag, 2012). Defining talent is an important challenge, considering that this definition is subjective to what the organization decides (Silzer and Dowell, 2009); and so far, there exists no empirical foundations to define a talent (Nijs *et al.*, 2014). Another major issue to consider is whether or not a program will be effective in terms of learning objectives, allowing the high potential to develop as expected (Bentein, Guerrero and Klag, 2012). Additional to this latter point, it is crucial that programs do not arouse an excess of expectations and/or perceptions of injustice among employees (Bentein, Guerrero and Klag, 2012). Finally, the level of transparency a TM program should have in order to function at its most optimal capacity, is an eminent issue. Indeed, most organizations are reluctant to be transparent within TM practices, and for numerous reasons. For instance, it has been speculated that if high potentials find out about their status, they may expect more than what the organization can offer them (Berard, 2013). It is also believed that these employees may also become arrogant and behave unprofessionally because of their status (Berard, 2013). Moreover, if everyone in the organization knows who is a high potential, this awareness could act as demotivator for those who have not been identified as talents, which could result in extra work load for the group of high-potential employees. For these reasons, several organizations prefer not to give much information about TM programs.

The concept of transparency in talent management still needs to be developed. Up to this present time, few studies have shown interest in the way transparency in talent management can influence employee attitudes and behaviours (Björkman *et al.*, 2013).

However, many authors recognize the importance of being transparent in a talent management program. For instance, Bentein et al. (2012) states that it is fundamental for high potentials and non-high potentials to acknowledge the criteria used to identify talent. In the same way, Bérard (2013) believes that disclosing to high potentials about their status increases their feelings of engagement towards the organization, intensifying chances of talent retention. The author further claims that transparency permits to create more learning opportunities for talents as it becomes possible to discuss openly with them about development activities: “employees deserve specific, honest and balanced feedback on performance and potential... honesty is the best policy” (Bérard, 2013: 41). In addition, there is some evidence of a growing trend in transparency in talent management (Ready, Conger and Hill, 2010). In a survey performed by Ready on a sample of 45 companies, 85% informed their employees when they were chosen as part of the talent pool compared to 70% a decade ago.

Taking into account that there is very few empirical research performed in TM transparency, the fact that many authors believe in its benefits, and considering its growing tendency in organizations, we analyze in this research the impact of TM transparency on employees’ outcomes.

Focus of the Study and Research Question

The objective of this study is to analyze the impact of TM transparency on employees’ outcomes (i.e., organization based self-esteem, and intention to quit), and more specifically among non-high-potential employees. We focus on this specific category of employees for two main reasons. First of all, most talent management programs are of exclusive character, as opposed to inclusive (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010). As its own name states it, these programs normally adopt an elitist perspective, where 80% to 95% of employees of an organization are not identified as talents (Swales, 2013). Hence, we consider important to study the impact of transparency among these employees who represent a weighty number of the workforce. In addition, we notice that if due to poor management a talent program generates feelings of unfairness among non-high-potential employees, the objectives and advantages expected from those employees may be lost.

Second, while a few studies have concentrated on the reactions of high potentials to transparency (Björkman *et al.*, 2013), even less outnumbered are the ones that focus on the reactions of non-high-potential employees (Sonnenberg, Van Zijderveld and Brinks, 2014).

Another focus of our study is on the mediating role of procedural justice. According to Gelens' model (Gelens *et al.*, 2014), knowing if one is a talent or not has an impact in organizational attitudes. Considering that procedural justice has repeatedly been observed as a solid determinant of discretionary attitudes (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter and Yee Ng, 2001; Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001), we are interested in the perception of procedural justice as an intermediate mechanism in the relationship between transparency and employees' outcomes. In order to analyze such a relationship, we will inspire ourselves mainly on the fairness heuristic theory, which explains how a fairness perception is formed and how it affects employees' attitudes.

Third, in the present study we will look at the impact of TM transparency on turnover intentions. A high rate of intention to quit among employees can be harmful for the organization. It may be an indicator of poor work conditions, such as stress, dissatisfaction with colleagues and (or) management, and other psychosocial factors. Furthermore, a high intention to quit can lead to turnover, which is very costly for the employer (Allen, Bryant and Vardaman, 2010). The intention to quit has been the interest of many authors for several decades (Dailey and Kirk, 1992; Loi, Hang-Yue and Foley, 2006), but to our knowledge this is the first time that it is explored in the context of TM.

Fourth, we will explore the impact of TM transparency on the OBSE (organizational based self-esteem). It has been proven that the feeling of being valued, competent and important for their organization is associated with positive relationships with supervisors and managers, and increased work performance (Bowling *et al.*, 2010). In this sense, analyzing this relationship is of relevance as it enables us to comprehend until what extent TM transparency can have a positive impact on employees' self-perception.

Fifth, personal values and career goals have been proposed as determinants that can affect the way policies of a talent management program are perceived (Malik and Singh, 2014). Hence, this research analyzes the moderating effect of personal characteristics, on the perception of procedural justice, given certain transparency. More specifically, we will explore the influence of the willingness to be identified as a talent on the relationship between transparency and procedural justice.

Hence, our study aims to answer the following question:

How transparency can affect the attitudes of employees not identified as talents? Does the intention to be identified as a talent moderates that relationship?

Contributions of the Study

This research brings theoretical and empirical contributions. In terms of theoretical contributions, to our knowledge this is the first study that defines and operationalizes TM transparency. With regards to empirical contributions, considering that talent management is known for being a field with very few empirical research (Björkman *et al.*, 2013), the testing of our theoretical model represents a scientific advancement in TM and will become a foundation for future research studies related to this subject.

All in all, this study is also a source of practical contributions. First, this research makes it possible to know the influence of transparency on turnover intentions and OBSE, which will allow companies to enhance their TM policies by taking into account employees' attitudes in regards to transparency. Second, this study will enable us to establish to what extent the willingness to become a talent influences the perception of procedural justice in a context of TM transparency. These findings should be very useful for organizations, when it comes to questions about the development of talent management policies, and to the ways in which TM information is communicated. In brief, the results of our study will allow organizations to either modify or better adapt the design of talent management practices and policies in the benefit of all their employees.

Chapter 1

Literature Review

1.1 Talent Management: A historical perspective

Talent management is not a new practice and it has been applied before World War I. As stated by Cappelli (2009), contemporary practices of talent management outside hiring or poaching talent, the reliance of social networks for hiring, and other ad hoc arrangements look remarkably like arrangements in place before World War I.

Before 1950, talent management was present in North America. Companies counted up “job ladders” for internal promotion. For instance, among other companies, General Motors counted up programs to develop future managers (Capelli, 2009: 186).

During the 1950, the importance of developing management and executive talent internally was clearly understood (Capelli, 2009: 200). As stated by Capelli, talent management got further developed and by 1960s, management consultants were called on, more and more, to advise business on talent programs. In general, programs got more sophisticated and more innovative.

However, later on, investments for these programs declined. A study in 1984 surveyed large and mid-sized employers on their management development practices and compared the results to a similar survey that has covered practices in 1970s. The study found a sharp decline in investments in sophisticated programs for forecasting talent needs (Capelli, 2009: 208). In turn, the shortage in investments slowly started a shortage for talents in the market.

The tension around talent shortage continued through 2005. As indicated by Cappelli (2009), Thomas Leppert (chair and CEP of Dallas-Based Turner Corporation) stated that “the No. 1 issue for us is people—finding good, strong people with the right education and training, and being able to retain them” (Stribling, 2005). Today, things have not changed too much. As talent keeps being a resource in short supply, it has become a

subject of concern for multiple companies (Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Carter, 2011; D. A. Ready, Hill, & Conger, 2008). For that reason, and in means to eliminate the risk of experiencing talent shortage, nowadays more and more organizations are implementing in-house talent programs. In fact, it is estimated that between 40% and 60% of global companies have high potential programs in place for the management of their most talented employees, in other words “A” players, often referred to as high-potential employees (Pepermans, Vloeberghs, and Perkisas, 2003; Silzer and Church, 2010; Slan-Jerusalim and Hausdorf, 2007). In the next sections we will explore the definition of talent.

1.2 Definition of Talent

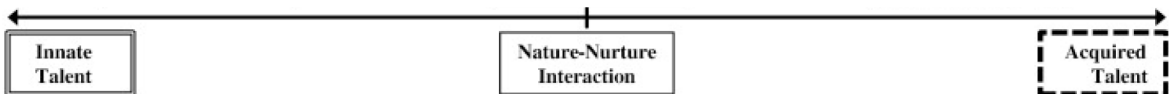
1.2.1 Etymology of the Word Talent

The term “talent” has varied greatly with time, research done on the etymology of the word indicates that it is thousands of years old (Tansley, 2011). The first dictionary definition of “talent” refers to “a denomination of weight, used by the Assyrians, Babylonians, Greeks, Romans, and other ancient peoples” (Transley, 2011). The word “talent” became a part of the French language and the English language via the Bible. In Matthew 25:14, there is a reference to a man who, about to go on a journey, entrusts his property to his servants, giving each five talents, two and one respectively “according to his ability”. By the thirteenth century, the word “talent” was related to an inclination or a disposition; and two centuries later, its meaning was related to treasures, riches, mental endowments and natural ability. Finally, by the nineteenth century, the word “talent” was viewed as embodied in the talented—hence, a person of talent and ability. This last definition is the one we have today. While the idea that talent is embodied is widely accepted, debates around whether talent is innate, acquired, or a mix of both are still going on.

1.2.2 Contemporary Debates about Talented Individuals

In contemporary debates about talent, some authors postulates that talent is mostly innate, while other authors conclude that talent is mostly acquired. Hence, these arguments can be mapped on a continuum ranging from completely innate to completely acquired.

Figure 1.1 Talent has an innate-acquired continuum



Source: adapted from Meyers, Van Woerkom and Dries (2013)

The understanding of the definition of talent as mainly innate or mainly acquired or both has important implications on the design of talent management practices a company will have. For instance, it will influence whether talent management should focus more on the identification/selection or the development of talent (Meyers, Van Woerkom and Dries, 2013), and to what extent it will be important to focus on the development of competencies or acquired competencies.

Proponents who see that talent as a **mainly innate**, based their reasoning in two main arguments (Meyers, Van Woerkom and Dries, 2013). First, there is the idea that there exist very few exceptional performers. The literature gathers that exceptional performers do not exist in abundance. For instance, Gagné (Gagné, 2004) argues that the number of gifted people is quite restricted, with estimated percentages of about 10% of people (compared to persons of the same age). Similarly, Ulrich and Smallwood (Ulrich and Smallwood, 2012) estimated that only 10% to 15% of employees are high-potentials.

A second argument posits that even with the same amount of training, certain people will always outperform others. For example, Meyers, Van Woerkom and Dries (2013) give the example of Sir Francis Galton, who describes the final examinations of mathematicians at Cambridge University. These examinations used to take place after 3

years of study or, in other words, 3 years of equal training for everyone. Galton stated that the performance differences between the mathematicians were striking, as the best mathematician could gain twice as many points as the second-best mathematician and up to 30 times as many points as the lowest ranking mathematician (Galton, 1962). In more recent literature on giftedness, studies reveal that there are substantial differences in the amount of practice that chess players need before they achieve the master or grandmaster level (Howard, 2008). Individual differences in the proclivity to learn have also been acknowledged by scholars who investigate talent in the organizational context, and differences in learning agility has often been highlighted as valid predictors of individual career success (Lombardo and Eichinger, 2000). In summary, these arguments consider that although training may have an impact in performance, talent is mainly due to innate features.

At the other end of the continuum, we find proponents who conceptualize talent as **mainly acquired**. They base their reasoning on three main arguments. First, researchers claim that deliberate practice is the single most important predictor of performance. Another argument is that talent evolves from (early) experience. Finally, a third argument is that almost everyone can become a “prodigy”.

Several researchers state that deliberate practice (practice primarily directed at performance improvement is of adequate difficulty, involves informative feedback, and provides ample opportunity for repetition and correction of errors), is the one principal predictor of performance (Meyers, Van Woerkom and Dries, 2013). For instance, according to Ericsson et al. (Ericsson and Krampe, 1993) and Platz et al., (Platz *et al.*, 2014), the amount of time that an individual engages in deliberate practice is monotonically related to his or her performance. In other words, practice will only increase and never decrease the level of performance.

Second, some studies claim that early ability alone is not a proof of innate talent. It is considered that presumed prodigies children would not have been able to excel on their own. For example, it is known that Mozart’s father was an ambitious musician who

dedicated a lot of time and energy to the musical education of his two children (Therivel, 1998). Thus, it can be accredited that Mozart was provided with rich learning experiences from a very early age. In a study performed by Davidson et al (1996), the authors found that the best students, had parents who were highly supportive of the musical education of their children. It can then be assumed that these children had more hours of practice than children whose parents were not supportive. The importance of gaining experience has also been stressed in literature on leadership potential. Meyers, Van Woerkom and Dries (2013) mention how it has been revealed that employees who solely rely on those skills they already have instead of learning new ones, are more likely to fail in later career stages (McCall and Lombardo, 1983). Furthermore, Arvey, et al., (Arvey *et al.*, 2006) found that 30% of the variance in leadership role occupancy was explained by genetic factors (latent potential), whereas the lion's share of variance was explained at 70% by environmental influences like experiences and training (more than twice the percentage explained by genetics).

Third, based on a behaviourist perspective, it has also been argued that almost everyone can become a “prodigy”. An often-cited example for this supposition is the Ospedale della Pietà, an orphanage in 18th century Venice (Abbott *et al.*, 2002). At that time, orphans at this institution received a profound education in music and were taught by Antonio Vivaldi, amongst others. As a result, the institution brought forth a disproportionately high number of accomplished musicians and composers, which is unusual given the rare occurrence of accomplished musicians in the general population (Abbott *et al.*, 2002). Yost and Chang (Yost and Chang, 2009) went so far as to claim that any employee can be developed into an excellent performer. The only prerequisite is that the organization facilitates the realization of individual potential by finding a position where employees can play to their strengths and by teaching them how to develop themselves.

In summary, these arguments make a strong case for the importance of nurture in skills development. However, empirical evidence shows that it might be too strong to suggest that everyone can become a prodigy. In a sense, like many recent theories, we believe

that talent lies in a third conceptualization, somewhere in the middle of the continuum (figure 1). We hold the view that talent is an **innate-acquired interaction**. The next paragraphs will discuss two main theories about innate-acquired interactions as the basis of talent. We consider that both of these theories can explain how talent is developed.

First, several researchers have taken interest in the question of how genes and environment interact to shape manifest features or behaviours. Papierno et al., (Papierno *et al.*, 2005) proposed that the emergence of exceptional abilities or talent can be explained by the multiplication of person—environment interactions. He further referred to the “Matthew effect” as the idea that individuals who possess certain abilities will amplify their possessions to a disproportional extent as compared to individuals who possess much less of the same type of abilities. Meyers et al., (2013) argue that environmental stimulation (e.g., piano lessons) can lead to high ability gains of a person who disposes of a strong genetic predisposition to respond to this stimulation (e.g., musicality).

Second, it has been argued that talents are dependent on several contextual and individual factors. In this sense, initial talent or innate potential can be wasted if the context is not conducive to its development and/or if certain individual factors are lacking (Abbott and Collins, 2004). In this line of reasoning, Biswas-Diener, Kashdan and Minhas have advocated that strengths are not stable across time and situations like pure traits, but that they are very dependent on contextual factors, personal values, interests, and other strengths (2011). This premise can be illustrated by an example given by Meyers, Van Woerkom and Dries (2013). For instance, the strength “bravery”, might lead a person to become a firefighter, but just as well a high-altitude construction worker. The choice to become a firefighter then depends upon contextual factors (e.g., several family members are firefighters), personal values (e.g., serving the community), interests (e.g., adventures), other strengths (e.g., being someone with lots of energy), or a combination of several of them.

By observing these two theories, one can conclude that they present some differences. For instance, while in the first theory nothing seems to be lost, in the second theory there

is a possibility of losing the talent if the context does not permit the individual to develop it. Despite such a difference, both theories underscore the importance of environment and genes for talent development, and consider the impact coming from practice as important. In the following section, we will elucidate more in depth the definition of talent within organizations.

1.2.3 Talents: Organizational Perspective

The word “talent” used, in a managerial sense, was officially launched in 1998 when McKinsey & Company, America’s largest and most prestigious management-consulting firm, published their now-famous report proclaiming that “better talent is worth fighting for” (Beechler and Woodward, 2009). According to McKinsey, talent is “the sum of a person’s abilities, his or her intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgment, attitude, character and drive. Hence, for McKinsey, talent refers to ‘the best and the brightest’ and many organizations adopted the term to refer to their ‘A Level’ employees who rank in the top 10% to 20% (Chambers *et al.*, 1998).

In 2001, it was argued that talent represented a code for the most effective leaders and managers at all levels, who could help a company fulfill its aspirations and drive its performance. In a sense, talent represented some combination of a sharp strategic mind, leadership ability, emotional maturity, communication skills, the ability to attract and inspire other talented people, entrepreneurial instincts, fundamental skills and the ability to deliver results (Michaels, Handfield-Jones and Axelrod, 2001)

A similar notion is proposed by Ready, Conger and Hill (2010). Ready articulates the characteristics of high-potentials as follows: they consistently deliver strong results credibly; they master new types of expertise quickly; and they recognize that behaviour counts. They also suggest that high-potential talent is hardwired with the drive to achieve excellence, a relentless focus on learning, an enterprising spirit, and a capacity to make careful assessments of risk (Ready, Conger and Hill, 2010).

We can conclude there is more than one definition for what a talent represents. As a matter of fact, Iles, Chuai and Preece (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010) highlighted the lack of consensus concerning what talent may fall within the scope of a talent development

process. In line with this view, Transley (Tansley, 2011) concluded that how talent is defined for talent management purposes is a tricky issue. This can range from:

- No use of the term talent in policy or processes and an absence of an organizational definition;
- Some limited use in policy and processes and an emerging understanding of an organizational definition at certain levels of the organization;
- A widespread use of the term in strategy, policy and processes and common understanding of an organizational definition.

Hence, according to Transley, there are marked differences in the extent to which the term talent is in use in organizational practice. Organizations find greater value in formulating their own meaning of what talent is than accepting universal or prescribed definitions (Tansley, 2011). So there will be considerable differences in how talent is defined in a local authority, a transnational organization and a small enterprise (Tansley, 2011). For example, Transley (2011) shows the definition of talent in different organizations At Gordon Ramsay Holdings, talent is essentially viewed as the creative flair of chefs.

- At Google, those regarded as talented are referred to as being a “Googler”, which is described as being confident, an “ideas person” and” a challenger who thinks outside the box”.
- At PricewaterhouseCoopers talented individuals are those who possess “drive, energy, an applied intelligence, a willingness to take on challenges and demonstrate the ability to make a distinctive difference to the business”. These may be leadership-based or management-based or in a different function or discipline (Whiddett and Hollyforde, 2007).

The definition of talent can also vary inside the organization, as different parts of the organization can appeal to different skills and knowledge. Thus, high-potentials from one same organization may have different types of talented individuals (Transley, 2011).

While making an analysis of the different definitions of the word “talent” and how companies use it, some observations can be made. With regards to the differences, one can consider that there is an important variability that exists from one company to

another, with respect to development of the definition of a talent. For example, the definition from PricewaterhouseCoopers counts up several characteristics and seems more detailed than the definition from Google and Gordon Ramsay Holdings. With regards to the similarities, we can take into consideration that in all the definitions of the word “talent”, the terms *outstanding performance*, *willing to take a risk* and *to take challenges* are words that come back across these definitions.

Although most organizations count up their own definition of “talent”, many report great difficulty in measuring talent accurately, reflecting the lack of theoretical foundations for talent-identification in the human resources management literature (Nijs *et al.*, 2014). In light of that situation, some authors are starting to operationalize the concept of talent with indicators.

Operationalizing Talent

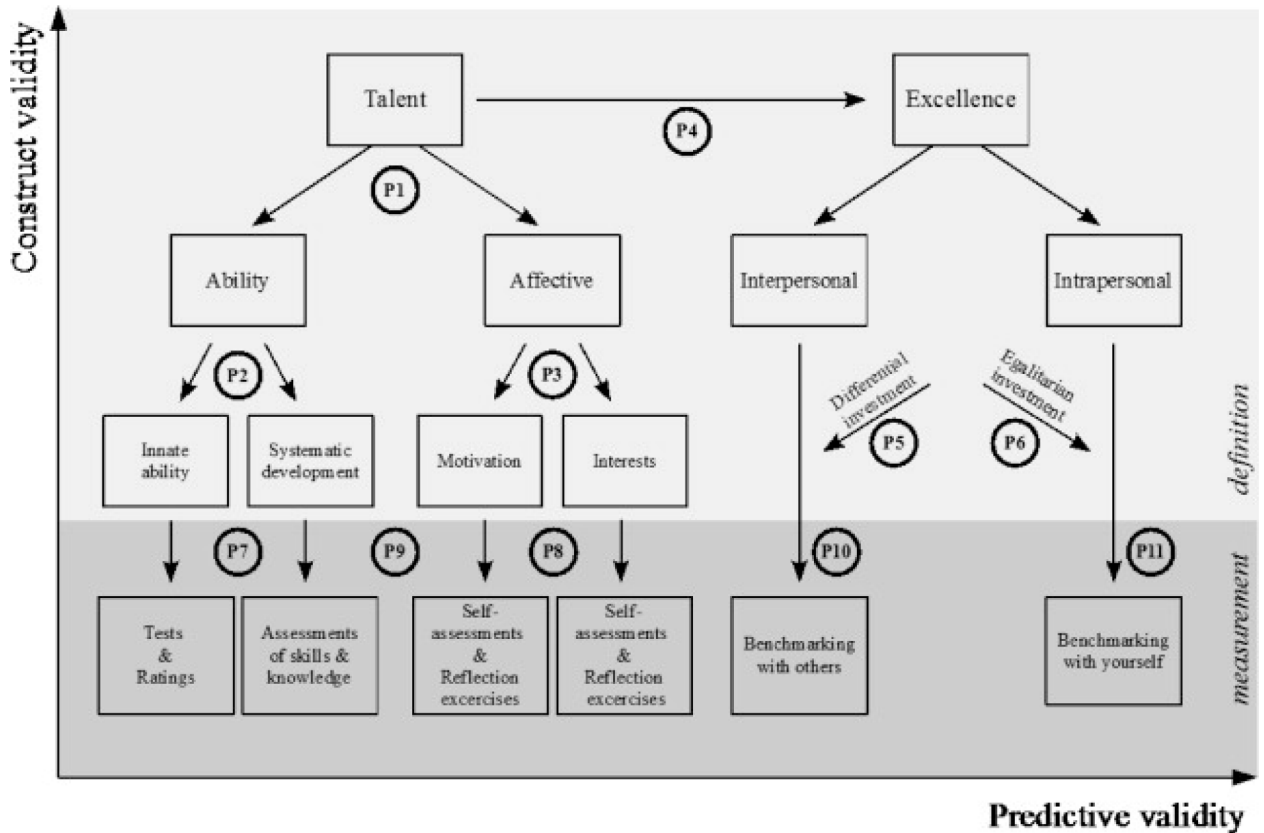
Recently Nijs *et al.*, (2014) have established a theoretical basis for talent management by presenting a conceptual framework of talent in which the definition, measurement of talent and its relation to excellent performance are elucidated. Nijs *et al.*, (2014) propose that talents can be operationalized in two concepts: ability and an affective component. They further propose two predictors of ability (innate abilities and systematic development) and two predictors of the affective component (motivation to invest and interest). Figure 2 illustrates the operationalization of the concept of talent proposed by the authors.

“Ability” refers to a skill, or proficiency in a particular area (Merriam-Webster Dictionary). Across all relevant literature streams, talent is frequently associated with, and sometimes equated to excellent performance; and thus, a certain ability must be necessary in order to be a talent. In this view, Nijs *et al.*, (2014) propose that talent refers to systematically developed (and) innate abilities that drive excellent performance in one or more domains of human functioning. Innate abilities refer to gifts, while systematic development refers to the dedication time and practice given to an innate ability in order to deliver an excellent performance.

An affective component involves a person's feelings/emotions about the attitude object (Tremblay, 2000). As mentioned by Nijs et al., (2014) the main point of these studies suggests that the factors ultimately accounting for achievement are likely to be the unique personal and behavioural dispositions that the individual brings to the actual performance. In theory, an affective component of talent refers to non-intellectual attributes that will affect the performance of individuals, like interest and motivation.

In addition to talent encompassing an ability and an affective component, Nijs (2014) adopts as a basic assumption that talent is evidenced by excellence—or put otherwise, that excellence should be the main criterion for talent. An organization can operationalize excellence in different ways. According to Nijs (2014), if an organization operationalizes excellence as performing better than other individuals, as shown in figure 2 (proposition 5), it is going to be more likely to adopt talent-management practices with a differential investment (orientation towards investing on a select group of individuals). If an organization operationalizes excellence as performing consistently at one's personal best, it is going to be more likely to adopt talent-management practices in which there is an egalitarian investment (proposition 6).

Figure 1.2 Conceptual Model of the Definition, Operationalization and Measurement of Talent



Source: Nijs, Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries and Sels (2014)

1.3 The Definition of Talent Management

Depending on the company, the focus of the talent management program can vary from one organization to another.

In 2006, Lewis and Heckman analyzed the different approaches of talent management used by organizations, and they identified three relevant ones. As mentioned by the authors, the first approach defines talent management as a collection of typical human resource department practices, functions, activities or specialist areas such as recruiting, selection, development, and career and succession management. The authors claim that managing talent requires doing what human resources has always done, but doing it faster (via the internet or outsourcing) or across the enterprise (rather than within a

department or function). According to Lewis and Heckman (2006), recruiters discuss talent management in terms of sourcing the best candidates possible (Sullivan and Burnett, 2005, training and development advocates encourage “growing talent” through the use of training/leader development programs (Cohn, Khurana, & Reeves, 2005, p. 64). An example of this approach can be seen in the definition given by Schweyer (2010: 38): talent management is encompassing all human resources processes, administration and technologies. It commonly refers to the sourcing, screening, selection, on boarding, retention, development, deployment, and renewal of the workforce with analysis and planning as the adhesive, overarching ingredients.

Lewis and Heckman (2006) observed that a second approach on talent management focuses primarily on the concept of “talent pools”. Talent management is then a set of processes designed to ensure an adequate flow of employees into jobs throughout the organization (Kesler, 2002; Sandler, 2003). As stated by Lewis and Heckman, this approach is close to what is typically known as succession planning/management or human resource planning (Jackson & Schuler, 1990; Rothwell, 2010). Central to these approaches, is projecting employee/staffing needs and managing the progression of employees through positions, quite often via the use of enterprise-wide software systems (Lewis and Heckman, 2006). An example of this approach can be seen through Duttagupta’s (Duttagupta, 2005) view: in the broadest possible terms, talent management is the strategic management of the flow of talent through an organization. Its purpose is to assure that a supply of talent is available to align the right people with the right jobs at the right time, based on the objectives of strategic business (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010)

Finally, Lewis and Heckman (2006) noticed a third perspective which focuses on talent generically, without regards for organizational boundaries, specific positions and succession planning. Two general views on talent emerge from this approach. The first regards talent as a highly competent performer to be sought, hired, and differentially rewarded. Advocates of this approach classify employees by performance level (e.g., “A”, “B”, and “C” levels to denote top, competent, and bottom performers,

respectively). An example of this view can be seen in Creelman's definition (Creelman, 2004): talent management is best seen not as a set of topics, but as a perspective or a mindset. A talent management perspective presumes that a certain group of talented individuals play a central role in the success of the firm. All corporate issues are seen from the perspective of "how will this affect our critical talent?" and "what role does talent play in this issue?" (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010). The second view of generic talent states that every employee can be developed and managed to high performance.

The observations made by Lewis and Heckman (2006) have been criticized for not going far enough in capturing the contrasts between each approach (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010). Subsequently, Iles, Chuai and Preece (2010) presented an analysis contrasting the different approaches and identified four main perspectives on TM, which are outlined and discussed below: exclusive-people; exclusive-position; inclusive-people and social capital.

The Perspectives of Talent Management

Iles, Chuai and Preece (2010) identified four perspectives on talent management. Figure 3 illustrates four quadrants, where each represents a type of talent management. The axe of the X goes from position (key work positions) to people (employees). The axe of Y goes from exclusive (a selected group of employees) to inclusive (all employees are considered). In this sense, the four quadrants refer respectively to the exclusive-people, exclusive-positions, social capital, and inclusive-people.

As stated by the authors, the "exclusive people" perspective takes a relatively narrow view of talent: those people who have the capability to make a significant difference to the current and future performance of the organization (Morton, 2005). Based on this perspective, it is not possible for everyone in the organization to be considered as a talent and managed accordingly. Talented employees are seen as fundamentally different from others in terms of their current and past performance and competence, as well as their potential (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010). As stated by the authors, Branham (2005) postulates the Pareto Principle, i.e. that 20% of the workforce can contribute 80%

of the value. This type of TM implies that talent is neither title nor position-related; it is based on segmentation—the division of the workforce into sections to be treated differently, such as through differentiated “employee value propositions” (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010). On a side note, the authors mention how Larson and Richburg (2004) refer to GE’s controversial segmentation of its employees into categories “A” (the top 10–20%), “B” (the middle 70%) and “C” (the lowest 10–20%), and how these authors argue that such segmentation is fundamental to talent management.

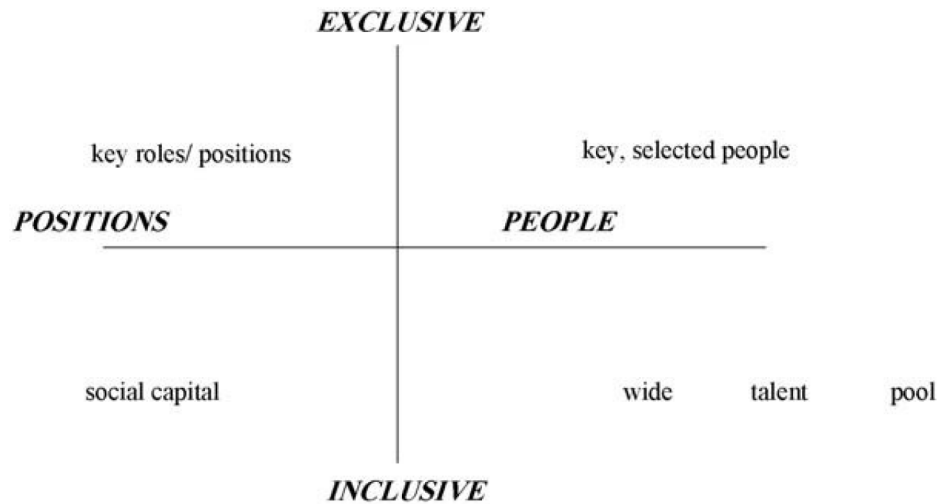
The second type observed by the authors is the one of “Exclusive-positions”. This perspective on talent management also takes a narrow/exclusive position, but on a different basis. The authors affirm that in this perspective, the talent-defining process is closely coupled with the identification of “key positions” in the organization. It makes little sense to “top-grade” or recruit solely “A players” across the enterprise, removing all “C players”; the starting point of talent management is the identification of strategically critical jobs (what they call “A positions”); only the people (“A players”) occupying those positions can be considered talents. A portfolio approach is recommended, placing the best employees in strategic positions, and good performers (“B players”) in support positions; “nonperforming” jobs and employees (“C players”) that do not add value are to be outsourced or eliminated (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010).

A third type observed by the authors is the “Inclusive-people”. In contrast to the two exclusive perspectives on talent management, this approach takes an “inclusive” stance, often from humanistic considerations, that potential everyone in the organization has talent, and that the task is to manage all employees to deliver high-performance. From this view, everyone has a role to play and something to contribute, whilst often offering little guidance on how to do so. This inclusive “whole workforce” approach to talent management seems comparatively rare in practice (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010).

The final and fourth type observed by the authors is the perspective of “social capital”. This perspective views the majority of talent management writing as too dependent on an individualistic orientation. Thus, from this “social capital” perspective it is important

to develop talent without downplaying the role of team contingencies, cultures, divisions of labour, leadership and networks, as they give talent direction and opportunity.

Figure 1.3 Types of Talent Management



Source: Iles, Chuai and Preece (2010)

Analyzing transparency, in both inclusive and exclusive perspectives, will have important implications on how talent management will be held. In the context of this paper, we have chosen to focus on exclusive talent management perspectives only. Programs of this perspective are of interest because, from far, most talent management programs existing today are of exclusive character (Iles, Chuai and Preece, 2010). For instance, according to CIPD (Clake and Winkler, 2006), the results show that in 2012, 54% of the UK organizations have talent management practices such as coaching and in-house development programs in place. In 40% of these instances, talent management practices were focused on all employees, while approximately 60% of these organizations focused on a specific group of employees, i.e. its so-called “talents” (Sonnenberg, Van Zijderveld and Brinks, 2014). Second, the concept of transparency in the context of these programs is of particular concern due justly to their exclusive character. In fact, companies may show special reticence in communicating different types of information relative to talent management. Even more specifically, we are specially interested in studying what happens with transparency levels and non-high-

potential employees, who represent at least 85% of the workforce in exclusive-programs (Malik and Singh, 2014).

1.4 Talent Management and Transparency

According to the definition of Merriam-Webster's dictionary, the word "transparency" is defined as being (1) free from pretense or deceit; frank; (2) easily detected or seen through: obvious; (3) readily understood" (2015). This definition can be applied into an organization, as it can facilitate the acceptance and comprehension of certain rules and policies. In this sense, transparency can be pertinent in talent management programs.

However, transparency within talent management has been a long time controversial subject. In a study performed by Silzer, it was found that for the most part, enterprises did not reveal interest in having an open, honest, and transparent conversation regarding high potential management (Silzer & Dowell, 2010: 239). Additionally, these authors also found that most companies did not release information to the individual, communicating his high potential status, but rather communicated indirectly through assignments and development opportunities. Although it is still not the norm, recently some companies are starting to be more open about talent management, which has resulted in a trend towards transparency within talent management (Ready, Conger and Hill, 2010; Swapna, 2010; Gosselin, Cruz and Jodoin, 2013). Furthermore, presently many authors in the literature recommend organizations to be more transparent (Bentein, Guerrero and Klag, 2012; Berard, 2013; Slan-Jerusalim and Hausdorf, 2007; Swailes, 2013).

The Definition

Talent management transparency is of particular interest in research, because most of its literature is not supported by either theoretical or empirical principles. Moreover, there is no current definition of transparency in the context of talent management. In light of this situation, studies about talent management transparency can help organizations to understand the subject better, and as a consequence, allow them to use it efficiently.

We intend to define the concept of talent management transparency starting from the definition of organizational transparency in corporate governance. Bandsuch, Pate and Thies (2008) define organizational transparency between the board of directors and investors as determined by the accuracy and accessibility of the information provided to stakeholders. In this sense, transparency means that at its core information is both accurate and accessible. The level of accessibility can be measured by whether information is given or not (Bandsuch, Pate and Thies, 2008), and till what extent.

As stated more specifically in the field of talent management, Malik and Singh (2014) have explored the concept of *visibility* in high-potential programs. The authors define “visibility” of a talent management program as the explicit and implicit information sharing about workforce segmentation. Visibility can be compared to the concept of accuracy given by Bandush (2008), since both concepts refer to the level of clarity of the information, with the difference that the former concept is more particular to talent management. For that reason, from now on, we only use the concept of visibility. In this manner, talent management transparency can be described as information that is visible and accessible.

Moreover, transparency can be seen as a continuum going from no transparency to high levels of transparency. A TM program can be highly visible in certain aspects, and low in visibility for others, while being accessible to several groups employees (directors, managers, supervisors, talents, non-talents, etc.) or to only certain groups. For example, a program can be visible on information on how one can be part of the talent pool, making it available to all employees in the company. The same program can be less visible on other aspects (i.e.: vague description about the typical talent profile for employees interested in the program). Then, visible information of a TM program can be accessible to only certain employees (i.e.: the status of high-potential is only known by the direction), or to various groups of employees (i.e.: the company tells all its employees about the existence of a TM program). In this sense, on a continuum, companies can be transparent on different aspects, and towards different groups of employees.

By synthesizing this information, for there to be a minimum of talent management transparency, there must be a small amount of information, accessible to at least one person. Hence, talent management transparency can be represented in a continuum with two axes, where information must attain a minimum level of visibility and a minimum level of accessibility, for there to be a minimal level of TM transparency.

1.4.1 Types of Transparency in TM

As previously mentioned, transparency is a continuum that goes from very little transparency to highly transparent, and a company can be transparent in different ways, and towards different groups of employees (i.e.: by counting with an official verbatim for its TM rules, by informing employees who are talents about their status in the company, by making public to all employees the existence of a TM program, etc.). There are different types of talent management transparency that have been observed within organizations. In order to explore these different types, we will use the concept of talent management transparency and represent it through a matrix, composed of two axes: *Who* and *What*.

What: The Y Axis

The Y-axis represents the level of visibility of information, which we label as *What* on the matrix. This axis contains two cases. The first case is named “policies and practices tend to be less known”. That is, information is unclear on different aspects or only communicated partially. The second case is named “policies and practices tend to be better known”, where information transmitted is more accurate and more likely to be communicated in its totality.

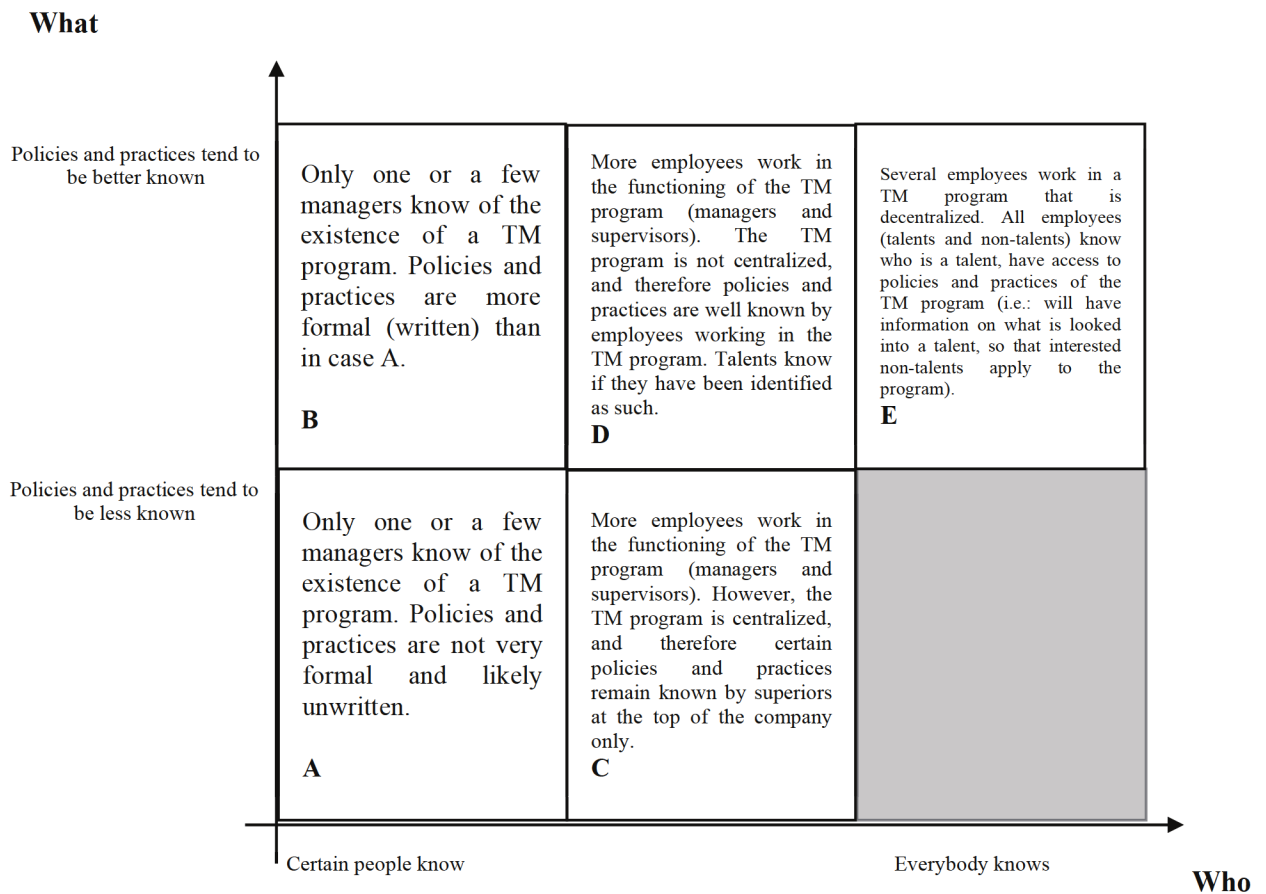
Who: The X Axis

The X axis is called *Who*, and it represents individuals (or groups of individuals) having accessibility to information. Information can be available from one group of employees, to all groups of employees. The different groups of employees include, among others, those parts of the high direction, managers and supervisors at different levels,

individuals identified as talents, and individual non-talent identified. This continuum contains three cases, starting from “certain people knows” to “everybody knows”.

What is considered as dependent on *Who* because one’s position is in the organization will determine the visibility of the information (i.e.: in a company with few talent management transparency, being a lay employee may implicate not knowing that there is a talent program). Refer to figure 5 for a representation of the matrix.

Figure 1.4 Types of Transparencies



In the next sections we will explore each of these types of transparencies.

Cell A

In this first situation, crossing the axes allows us to see that the number of people aware of the existence of the TM program is strictly limited, and so is the information about TM policies and practices. In these cases, talents are not aware that they have been identified as such. That type of information tends to be reserved to a small number of people, often part of the high direction (Berard, 2013). Moreover, because in this case, the number of employees in charge of the TM program is small (it can go from one employee to a few more), TM policies risk being less formal. From our point of view, cell A represents the lowest transparency level a talent management program can have.

Cell B

In cell B, the same situation as the one found in the cell A repeats. However, the main difference in the latter is that policies and practices are better known than they are found in the former cell. In other words, there is no ambiguity from any point of view (i.e.: definition of a talent, talent profile, etc.) All policies and practices are rendered into a clear and specific verbatim that covers all aspects of the program. Therefore, even if the number of employees in charge of the TM program is small, practices and police will tend to be applied with more formality.

Generally speaking, sometimes companies prefer to adopt profiles likes cell A and cell B for their TM programs because of different reasons (Silzer and Dowell, 2009: 239). First, leaders fear that the information may get misinterpreted by an employee (who is a talent), and mislead him to expect promotions or development opportunities that the company may not be prepared to provide to him (p. 239). Second, it has been speculated that informing a high potential about his status can lead to a decline in job performance, as he may think that promotions will be automatically granted to him (p. 239). Third, once an employee knows he is part of the talent pool, it is believed that he could feel too much proudness, and start to think that he deserves more than what he is being offered (Silzer & Dowell, 2010: 239; Ready *et al.*, 2010). Finally, even if an employee is chosen as a high potential, he may no longer be part of the talent pool later in time. In such a situation, leaders fear that once an individual learns that he is no longer part of the

development pool, he will feel demotivated and may eventually leave the organization (p. 239).

Cell C

In this third situation, crossing the axes allows us to see that the number of people aware of the existence of the TM program has increased, but not the knowledge about policies and practices. More specifically, the C case represents a situation where a larger number of employees (compared to cells A and B) work within the TM program as a project. That is, supervisors and managers at different levels participate in the selection and development process of talents. However, even if the number of employees implicated in the functioning of the TM program is bigger in this case (compared to cases A and B), TM stays a centralized system, where main decisions are taken by people at the top of the company. In this sense, policies and practices may not be all known by all employees implicated in the functioning of the TM program, or yet these may be known partially only, or (and) ambiguity may be present in the description of the rules.

Cell D

Crossing the axes in this situation allows us to notice that although the number of employees having access to information relative to the TM systems stays about the same, more information is available. In this manner, in case D, there is less centralization of the TM program, and employees working in different areas of TM program will be having more power in decision-making. Which means, they will be forced to have good knowledge of all policies and practises ruling the TM program. Moreover, talents will know about their status, and they will also have access to the policies and practices of the program.

More and more companies are communicating employees about their status, and it seems that doing so may have its advantages. In fact, informing the status has been the subject of a growing trend with an increase within the past 20 years (Ready, Conger and Hill, 2010). Some multinational companies such as *Eli Lilly*, *Chez Dwo Chemical* and *Aviva* are examples of organizations that now implement that policy (Bentein, Guerrero

and Klag, 2012). For instance, at Eli Lilly, people know if they are considered high potential and they are responsible for maintaining their own personal information file, their development plans and career scenarios. To avoid exaggeration, this file is reviewed by their superiors. At Dow Chemical, employees know they are high-potential classification purposes and may apply directly for available positions. Aviva talent management direction opted for transparency while communicating with each potential regarding the way he (or she) is perceived in the organization and by members of the direction. Furthermore, Aviva encourages frequent meetings to discuss about the actions to take with each high potential according to his (her) needs and expectations.

Recently, it has been speculated that informing high-potentials about their status may serve to prevent the exit of performing employees who leave because they think the company doesn't offer a serious career development for them (Ready, Conger and Hill, 2010).

Furthermore, it seems that not communicating a high-potential about his status may not prevent him from not knowing about it. A study conducted by Fresina and Associates (1987), featuring 225 corporations in 10 industries, found that 78% of companies did not inform high-potentials of their designation, but 90% of the time high potentials knew it (Burke, 1997).

Cell E

Finally, the case E represents a situation where policies and practices of the TM program are well known, and this by all employees working in the organizations. More specifically, not only several employees are implicated in the good functioning of the TM program, but all employees (including talents and non-talents) have access to the rules of the program. Consequently, not only talents know about their status but also, non-talents know who are their talent peers (as mentioned by Ready, Conger and Hill, 2010, although it is not the majority, certain organizations inform all employees within the organization about who has been identified as talent).

IBM (Swapna, 2012) and *Lockheed Martin* (Swapna, 2012; Malik and Sigh, 2014) are among organizations that can be placed in cell E. In companies with this TM profile, information regarding the profile of the type of talent they are looking for may become public to all employees. For instance, in GE, IBM, and Microsoft, companies that count with highly transparent talent programs (Huselid, Beatty and Becker, 2005), all employees are somewhat aware of the skills, qualities and performance expectations for being included in high-potential programs (Malik and Singh, 2014). Employees at IBM seem to take the initiative well, as this company has stated that informing employees about high-potential programs shows those who wish to escalate that there is a future for them at IBM (Swapna, 2012). The company also stated that it further permits employees to know what is expected from them in order to be considered in the program, making the process fair for both the employee and employer (Swapna, 2012).

In the next section we will briefly mention the different research that has explored the attitudes and behaviours of talents and non-talents within high potential programs.

1.5 Attitudes and Behaviours Measured in Talents and Non-Talent Identified Employees

With regards to talents, one research shows that telling a high-potential about his status has rather positive effects. Fernandez-Araoz, Grysberg and Nohria (2011) found that communicating the status is associated with enhanced retention and improved productivity. More recently, Bjorkman (2013) found that those who believed to be high-potentials were more likely to be associated with commitment to increasing performance demands, building competencies that are valuable for their employers, and to actively support its strategic priorities.

With regards to non-talent-identified employees, however, there are several companies that prefer not to inform all of its employees about who has been identified as a high-potential or even about the existence of a talent program in the company. There are several reasons why. A first concern has to do with the idea that while many employees do not bother not being selected for a talent program, some could feel profoundly

excluded (Swales, 2013). A second concern has to do with distributive justice. In fact, some employees who are excluded from opportunities might feel that they have worked just as hard but somehow failed to be recognized as talents and therefore consider that they have suffered an injustice (Swales, 2013). Third, non-talent-identified employees may question the fairness in relation to the operation of talent programs. The primary practice underpinning talent identification is the assessment of performance typically through an appraisal scheme. Appraisal is highly a political and subjective arena and non-talent-identified employees may question whether raters inflate scores in appraisals in the interests of certain individuals (Longenecker and Ludwig, 1990).

Although there are not many studies that analyzed the behaviour of both talent and non-talent employees, working for one same company, Gelens' study (2014) found interesting results studying both populations in an organization with an exclusive talent management program. In a company where non-talent-identified employees were aware that they were not part of the selected group of high-potentials, the results of Gelens' study indicated that perceptions of distributive justice were significantly higher for employees identified as a high-potential (Gelens *et al.*, 2014), compared to non-high-potential employees.

Another important research on the subject comes from Sonnenberg, Van Zijderveld and Brinks (Sonnenberg, Van Zijderveld and Brinks, 2014). These authors studied the effect of incongruent talent perceptions with regards to the psychological-contract fulfillment. Incongruence is defined as situations where the organization's executives perceive an individual as "talent", but the individual is unaware of this. Yet, incongruence can also be defined the other way around that is, when the organization's executives do not consider an individual as a "talent" while the individual himself believes he is talent in his organization. Sonnenberg *et al.*, asked talent and non-talent employees whether they perceived themselves as a *talent* in their own organization. 88% of the respondents (94% of the talent group and 84% non-talent employees) considered themselves as a talent for their organization. Upon these results, the authors recognized the importance of clearly defining the meaning of a talent profile, and communicating it to all employees (talents

and non-talents identified). As a matter of fact, they recommend to actively attend to perceptions of incongruence because the results show that the psychological-contract fulfillment is weakened by incongruent talent perceptions.

1.6 Organizational Based Self Esteem

Organization-based self-esteem (OBSE) is defined as the degree to which an individual believes him/herself to be capable, significant, and worthy as an organizational member (Pierce and Gardner, 2004). On one hand, it reflects the self-perceived value that individuals have of themselves as important, competent, and capable within their employing organizations (Pierce and Gardner, 2004).

We believe this variable deserved exploration in the context of talent management for several reasons. As mentioned by Bowling et al., (Bowling *et al.*, 2010), self-consistency theory suggests that employees are motivated to maintain a consistent level of self-esteem (Korman, 1970). Bowling et al., further states that individuals with high self-esteem respond to work in ways that maintain favourable views of themselves (i.e.: they perform effectively at their work and develop positive job attitudes). On the other hand, individuals with low self-esteem are expected to respond to work in ways that maintain their unfavourable views of themselves (i.e.: they hold negative job attitudes and to be ineffective performers). Moreover, Bowling et al., (Bowling *et al.*, 2010) found that OBSE is positively related to job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviour, among others. From this point of view, analyzing OBSE can permit organizations to know more accurately how TM transparency can permit employees to have favourable views of themselves.

1.7 Intention to Quit

The rate of turnover of employees has various effects on the organization and the society at large (Mobley, 1982). The effects could either be positive or negative. In this sense, a greater comprehension of the process of labour turnover can increase the degree of which organization and employees can influence this effect.

As stated by Poon (2012), turnover intention refers to a conscious and deliberate willfulness to leave one's organization (Tett and Meyer, 1993). Turnover as an individual's motivated choice behaviour has widely been a studied outcome variable in industrial and organizational psychology literature for almost fifty years now (Owolabi, 2012). Although not all types of turnovers are negative, voluntary turnover that is dysfunctional and unavoidable can be very costly for any organization when considering the amount of investment an organization made in the recruitment, selection, classification and training of personnel (Owolabi, 2012). For that reason, identifying factors that contribute to dysfunctional turnover is important in order to take appropriate preventive actions.

1.8 Desire to be a High-Potential

We define the desire to be a high-potential as the intention of an employee on being identified as part of the talent pool.

The literature has stated before that individual factors are likely to have moderating role in the HR attributions about high-potential programs (Malik and Singh, 2014). Moreover, as stated by Malik and Singh (2014), there is a need for this research to examine individual factors (Guest, 2011; Nishii & Wright, 2007). We decided then to explore the desire to be a high-potential because it is a personal goal; while for some individuals becoming a high-potential may represent a very important career objective, for others, it may not be part of their life plans. Considering that this variable has not been studied before, we believe it is important to explore it for several reasons. First of all, as mentioned above, not too many researches has explored the moderating impact of individual factors on the perception of HR systems. Second, the results can tell us till what extent TM transparency could be beneficial, when employees explore whether high or low levels of becoming a high-potential, which in turn could permit organizations to better adjust their Talent Management practices and policies.

1.9 Perceived Procedural Justice

Organizational justice refers to people's perceptions of fairness in organizations (Greenberg, Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan 2005), and these fairness perceptions have been demonstrated to have effects on various attitudinal and behavioural outcomes (e.g., Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). One type of organizational justice is procedural justice.

Leventhal (1980) first introduced the concept of perceived procedural justice. He described six rules that need to be followed before one perceives a practice to be procedurally just. In particular, the practice should be consistent over time and across persons, not be influenced by personal self-interest, be grounded in correct information, be changed when diagnosed as unfair, represent the interests of all parties, and take moral and ethical values into consideration. In addition, Lind and Tyler (1988) stated that employees perceive procedural justice when they have the feeling that they can influence the process to a certain degree (i.e., the voice effect: providing employees with opportunities to share their thoughts and opinions). All these procedural rules could be applied to, for instance, the identification procedures of high-potentials (Gelens et al., 2013).

We decided to study the procedural justice for several reasons. First, as stated by Leventhal (1980), fair procedures are likely to arouse positive feelings around a group, to recognize the authority of leaders; increasing the chances of ensuring a voluntary compliance with the rules. Second, as mentioned by Gelens et al., (Gelens *et al.*, 2013), many authors have argued that procedural justice is the most important component of perceived organizational justice (e.g., Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Therefore, it has been the most studied sub-dimension of the organizational justice framework (Gelens *et al.*, 2013). Third, although Gelens (Gelens *et al.*, 2014) studied procedural justice in a talent management context, but as a moderator, we believed it is also important to analyze this same variable as a mediator (to our knowledge, this is the first study that does so).

Chapter 2

Research Framework

This second chapter has for objective to present the framework which is at the base of this research. First, we will present our model of research, as well as the dependent, independent, mediator and moderator variables of this study. Second, we will present our research hypotheses with their respective justifications.

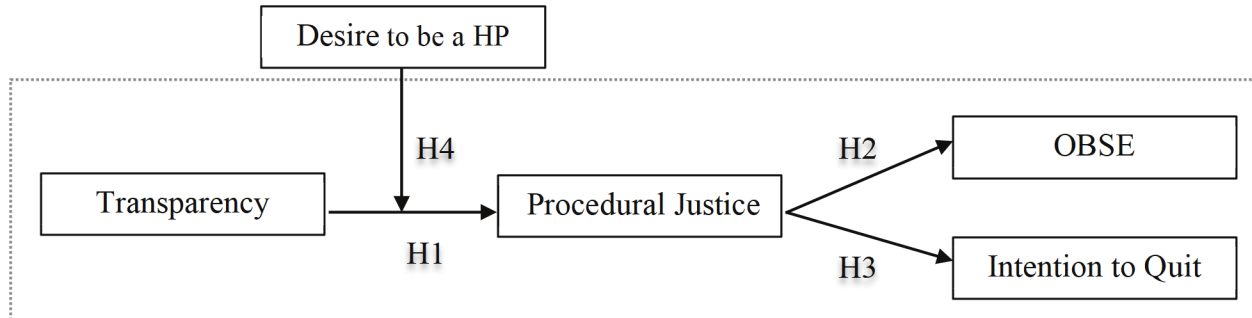
2.1 The Theoretical Model

The literature has permitted to illustrate what is known today about talent management, its impact, and the increasing interest for this field. The little research performed on non-high potential-identified employees reveals that we don't know much about individual behaviours and attitudes on these employees, which suggests the need to research further on the subject.

Our model proposes that procedural justice will mediate the relationship between talent management transparency and employees' outcomes. More specifically, we postulate that transparency is positively related to the perception of procedural justice, which in turn is positively related to the organizational based self-esteem, and negatively related to one's intention to quit. Our model further proposes that the influence of talent management transparency on the perception of procedural justice will be diminished by personal characteristics such as the desire to be a high potential, and the tendency to compare to others. These relations are depicted in figure 2.1.

Furthermore, we will explain the links between the variables of the model, which will also allow us to postulate our hypotheses. We start by introducing the concept of the Fairness Heuristic theory to the reader. This concept allows to illustrate – how one is given certain information – an individual can form a fairness judgment that will have an impact on his attitudes.

Figure 2.1— The Theoretical Model



2.2 The Fairness Heuristic Theory

The fairness heuristic theory allows us to explain the influence of the procedural justice perception on the individuals' attitudes and behaviours. Hence, we make use of this theory in order to explain the influence of procedural justice on OBSE and the intention to quit; those variables are present in our model. First, we will explain the definition of the fairness heuristic theory. Then, we describe how the theory works and we provide an example specific to the talent management context. Next, we will explain the reasons why, in our research, the theory is adequate to show the influence of procedural justice on organizational outcomes. Finally, we will specify how the heuristic theory is still useful even when we consider the mediating role of procedural justice in our model.

The fairness heuristic theory postulates that a fairness judgment is formed by using a heuristic approach. According to this theory, when a person is engaged in a situation with one or more individuals, one will use information from a variety of sources, in order to derive a general impression of how fairly he or she is being treated (Lind, Kray and Thompson, 2001). The fairness heuristic theory further states that once a fairness impression is generated, the person will then use this fairness judgment to decide how to react in an immediate or long-term future.

This theory recognizes the existence of three cognitive phases (Lind, 2001). The first phase pertains to the situation before a person has started forming fairness judgments, and is labelled the pre-formation phase. During this cognition phase, it is hypothesized that the person deals with the question of when to care about fairness and why. For

example, John works for ABC, a company that has a talent management program. He is aware of the existence of such a program, and has the intention to be identified as a talent. Therefore, he deposits his candidacy, hoping to be called at some point. John does not think the answer will be negative, because he has been doing a very good job from the beginning. In fact, if the answer is negative, he would question the integrity of ABC. But John has been thinking a lot on the decision ABC will make, so much that sometimes he gets distracted. Therefore, he decides that he will stop caring about that subject until he gets the answer from ABC. In this example, it can be perceived that during the pre-formation phase, John decides that he does care about fairness in the decision ABC will make regarding his file because he has been working very hard, and he also decides when we will care about fairness (when he gets an answer, and a negative one).

In the second phase, a fairness judgment is formed. In this phase, labelled as the formation phase, people will seize on whatever fairness-relevant information is available and form a judgment about the fairness of their treatment. Examples of this type of information may include, among others, interpersonal experiences of identity enhancing or identity diminishing treatment, characteristics of formal rules and procedures, or the distribution of outcomes across group members. If we resume with the example of John, a couple of months later, he is told that he has not been identified as a talent at this time. John is surprised by ABC's decision, but he is even more astonished to see he did not receive any further information on the reasons why his application was rejected. In fact, John thinks he works very hard, harder than any other employee in his department; and if someone deserved to be identified as talent, he is the one. John does not think that ABC's decision was based on a fair judgment. In this second phase, the theory also posits that it is the very first fairness judgment that will have the greatest impact on the overall fairness perception, a phenomenon known as "the primacy effect" (Lind, Kray and Thompson, 2001). For example, the next day John goes to work, his supervisor takes a moment to call him into his office, and tells him as a spokesperson of ABC, he is very satisfied with his work, and that he should continue like that. However, John does not feel very happy with the words of his supervisor; he still thinks ABC has been unfair

in their decision with regards to his application for the talent program. The supervisor notices John's discontent and he would have liked to explain to him the reasons why his candidature to the TM program was rejected. However, his supervisor did not reveal anything to John, because it is not a policy of ABC to give explanations to employees on rejected candidatures. In brief, in this phase it can be seen that John experiences injustice because he does not have the necessary information on the decision at the moment to make a judgment. Moreover, even if ABC tells John how good he is, is the fact that his application was rejected; an incident that occurred first, which has the biggest impact on his overall impression of ABC.

The third phase is denoted as the post-formation phase. During this cognitive phase the person uses fairness judgments in his or her reactions to subsequent events. The types of reactions may include: deciding to obey group authorities or not, accepting or rejecting compromises in the resolution of disputes, exceeding or not strict quid pro quo requirements in exchanges, and trusting or yet not having confidence in members of the group. Carrying on with the example of John, during his next family party, he mentions how hard he has been working for ABC, but he did not get into the talent pool. He thinks the procedures ABC uses to evaluate employees are biased. After all, they weren't even transparent enough to justify to him why his candidature was rejected. He also mentions that he may eventually look for positions in other companies because he no longer feels well treated at ABC. In this phase it can be noticed that the perception of low procedural justice incites John to leave ABC.

In order to apply the fairness heuristic theory, an individual must expect substantial interaction with a person or a group of people, or even yet, he must identify personally with a person or a group of people (Lind, Kray and Thompson, 2001). Strictly speaking, the fairness heuristic theory posits that people go into fairness-assessing mode whenever factors that were not anticipated (affecting negatively the interaction) occur; and it is in that mode that fairness-relevant information, available at that moment, will have the greatest impact on fairness judgments (Lind, Kray and Thompson, 2001). Hence, the fairness heuristic theory is adequate to explain the influence of the perception of

procedural justice on organizational outcomes and in the context of TM programs for three reasons. First, a talent management program within an organization allows substantial interactions among employees. For instance, in the case of an employee who aspires to become a talent, he may make his interest obvious in front of his immediate supervisor or managers, in order to look for guidance on the subject, and build special interactions with them. An employee interested in escalating in the company may also build connections with senior employees and colleagues that can tell him about their experience either as a talent or a non-talent employee. In the case of employees who are talents, TM programs are likely to promote social connections among other talents.

Second, talent management programs may increase the feelings of identification from the employees to the company. For example, an employee, who has the intention to develop his competencies and climb the ladder within the organization, is likely to identify with the idea of having a TM program in the company. An employee who was identified as a talent, enjoyed his experience in the talent program, and ended up working in the company for several decades, is likely to have developed a strong identification with his organization.

Third, the existence of a TM program is likely to create situations which are not necessarily expected by employees, while affecting the interaction the employee has with the company, and putting him in a fairness assessing mode. As a matter of fact, an employee who would like to be identified as a talent, but does not get in the talent pool may feel very disappointed. An employee who has not wished to get into the talent, but does get identified as a talent, may also experience a feeling of discontent. Someone who is in the talent pool but cannot be positioned in the company yet will also experience some sort of discontentment.

The fairness heuristic theory is adequate for our research even when we consider procedural justice as a mediator role between transparency in TM and organizational outcomes. Undoubtedly, the lack of transparency can mislead a person into wrong or inaccurate information that will be used to form a procedural justice judgment. In the

aforementioned example of John, he built interactions with people representing ABC, which made him feel identified enough with ABC's organization to the point that he decided to apply to the company's TM program. However, the rejection of his application was quite a surprise for him. And the lack of transparency of ABC leads him to use the information he had at the moment to form a judgment. Furthermore, John's intention to quit his workplace has been affected because he feels discriminated against ABC.

2.3 Link between Transparency and Procedural Justice

In this section we elaborate on three arguments that link talent management transparency and procedural justice.

Setting a reminder of the definition of procedural justice, Leventhal (Leventhal, 1980) stated that an individual uses six rules to evaluate procedural justice: (1) representativeness, which implies that allocation process is representative of the concerns of all recipients (2) ethicality, which implies that allocations must adhere to prevailing ethical and moral standards of the community (3) correctability, which envisages that decision makers unintentionally may violate one or more of the rules and err in making allocations, but will be able to modify allocation decisions and correct errors (4) consistency, which specifies that allocation procedures should be consistent across persons and over time (5) bias suppression, which implies that decision makers should prevent personal self-interest or biases in the allocation process (6) and accuracy, which means that all allocation decisions must be based on accurate information. Leventhal mentions that an individual applies procedural rules selectively and follows different rules at different times. Moreover, one procedural rule may be considered much more relevant than others, in which case judgments of procedural fairness may be dominated by that rule (Leventhal, 1980). In the next paragraphs, we will elaborate on the relation between transparency and procedural justice by making reference to the rules of consistency, bias suppression and accuracy. We believe these three rules are related to the definition of transparency, representing a point of communality between procedural justice and transparent talent management practices.

First, the notion of consistency is important for both organizational transparency and the perception of procedural justice. Rawlins (Rawlins, 2008) defined organizational transparency as important and substantial transmitted information. Hence, once the information of a given procedure or program that has to be communicated to employees has been established, being consistent with this information across all individuals is a crucial condition for transparency. Consistency in this form is related to the notion of equality of opportunity. By a way of example specific to talent management, if within an organization individuals working in certain departments are the only ones who know about the talent management program – whereas the rest has not been informed about it – the transparency within the company is being faulty, which can be perceived as an act of favoritism. In this sense, consistency in the information across individuals can be seen as a requirement for the perception of transparency. Consistency, through the notion of equality of opportunity, is also important in the perception of procedural fairness. For instance, applying similar procedures to all potential recipients of rewards should enhance the perception of fairness. As an example, giving people applying for the same position, aptitude tests that differ in difficulty, certainly weakens the perception of fairness. This reasoning permits us to see that in both transparency and procedural justice, the concept of consistency in the sense of opportunity equality takes an important place. Moreover, while consistency in the information across individuals is a requirement for the perception of transparency, it should increase the chances of a positive perception of fairness.

Second, both transparency and procedural justice are related to the concept of bias suppression. The 2015 edition of Merriam-Webster Dictionary defined transparency as characterized by visibility or accessibility of information in matter of business practices. Visibility and accessibility can, in turn, suppress the perception of bias. As a case in point specific to TM, visibility of the program (i.e. permitting employees to know about its existence, about its goals, and purposes) and accessibility of information relative to that program (i.e. communicating what constitutes talent in the organization, and what are the criteria required to be identified as a talent) can rule out the perception of

prejudice and discrimination in favour of, or against one person or group. Because visibility and accuracy are important characteristics of transparency, it can be said that the perception of transparency will suppress the perception of bias. Like mentioned above, bias suppression is also one of the rules for the evaluation of procedural justice. A positive fairness perception is more likely when decisions are made aside from personal beliefs or self-interest, and failure to do so is likely to reduce the perception of justice (Leventhal, 1980). For example, an employee is likely to think that procedural fairness has been violated if he believes that he has not been identified as a talent, because the decision has been made with prejudice, partiality, or favoritism. This reasoning indicates that the perception of transparency in talent management can reduce bias perception and, therefore enhance procedural justice perceptions upon decision making. Moreover, in a study performed by García-Izquiero, Moscosi and Ramos-Villagrasa (García-Izquierdo, Moscoso and Ramos-Villagrasa, 2012), it was found that participants who were informed about organizational promotion methods, perceiving them as transparent, reported a high level of perceived procedural justice.

Third, transparency can have an effect on procedural justice because the former requires accuracy, which is an important concept in the evaluation of the latter. The 2007 edition of the Merriam-Webster Dictionary defined transparency as “readily understood”. Boyd (Boyd *et al.*, 2007) stated that in a communication flow where information is being transmitted, transparency ensures accuracy. Later, Rawlins (Rawlins, 2008) defined organizational transparency as counting with truthful information. These definitions permit us to conclude that transparency requires accuracy. In the case of talent management, accurate information on the definition of *talent*, and the *qualities searched in a high potential* should be ensured among those who are part of the identification processes, because it permits a good functioning of the TM program. Accuracy and clarity are also important when communicating with talents about the steps they will need to follow in order to attain the goals of the talent program. Taking into account that accuracy is also a substantial factor in the evaluation of procedural justice, some examples of its importance can be given. For instance, procedural fairness is violated when performance is evaluated on the basis of inappropriate information. It is also

necessary, to retain the candidature of a potential talent based on good and accurate information that can be later justified to stakeholders, employees, and other parties (otherwise the procedural fairness of the TM program is likely to be questioned). Therefore, the accuracy and clarity provided by the fact of being transparent should increase the chances of a more positive perception of procedural justice.

In conclusion, procedural justice and transparency are related through the concepts of consistency, accuracy and bias. Whereas transparency in talent management practices will foster consistency across individuals and accuracy, the perception of procedural fairness should increase. Furthermore, bias suppression, as a consequence of transparency, can also lead to higher perceptions of procedural justice. This logic allows us to believe that the recognition of transparency will allow perceiving procedural justice more positively.

Hypothesis 1: *The perception of transparency in talent management practices will be positively associated to employees' perceptions of procedural justice.*

2.4 Link Between Procedural Justice and OBSE

To our knowledge, no research has examined the link between procedural justice and OBSE. As a brief reminder, OBSE is defined as the degree to which an individual believes himself to be capable, significant, and worthy as an organizational member (Pierce *et al.*, 1989). In this current section we make use of four of the six rules used to judge the level of procedural fairness (accuracy, bias suppression, consistency, correctability) to establish a link between fairness and OBSE.

First, the rule of accuracy states that a process should be based on good information and informed opinion. In a following example related to TM, procedural fairness can be violated if potential candidates' performance is evaluated on the basis of inappropriate information or information coming from incompetent sources. As a matter of fact, if an instrument used by an organization is not accurate enough and, for example, tends to undervalue performance, employees may find it unfair if they feel that they work very

hard but their evaluation is low. This situation can also have a negative impact on the OBSE of employees, since they may feel incompetent and incapable of achieving performance goals. On the contrary, over evaluating performance can also have a negative impact on employees' OBSE. In fact, if employees are assigned more complex tasks, they might be unable to perform well, which can result in greater feelings of incompetence. To that matter, Pierce and Gardner (Pierce and Gardner, 2004) found that factors impairing the employee to perform successfully at work were negatively associated with OBSE, as they made employees feel insecure about their professional efficiency and their own capacities.

Second, the bias suppression rule dictates that personal self-interest, and blind allegiance to narrow preconceptions, should be prevented at all points in a process. In fact, individuals are likely to believe that procedural fairness is violated when there is unrestrained self-interest. For example, most employees would consider unfair a procedure where those who have family ties with the managers are mostly identified as talents (as managers fail to separate self-interest from equitability, they lead towards a situation of favoritism). This situation also illustrates a lack of consistency, a rule that states that procedures should be consistent across all individuals. As only certain employees are being given special advantage in the earlier example, this could violate the rights of equal opportunity, therefore affecting the impression of how important employees are for their organization.

Third, the correctability rule dictates that opportunities must exist to modify and reverse decisions made at various points in a process. For instance, in some TM program, employees who apply to become part of the talent pool but get refused, can reapply and possibly get into the program later on. Such a rule is likely to affect in a positive way employees' perception of procedural justice about the TM program. As Leventhal (Leventhal, 1980) recalls, the level of fairness will be increased by the presence of procedures that allow for review and modification of decision in a process, because even the most well-intentioned and competent decision makers commit errors oversight, and because employees can correct themselves and improve the situation over time. That

feeling of fairness should influence positively the relation between employees and the management involved in the program, because such circumstances are likely to make employees feel competent individuals, and feel more valued by their organization. To this end, studies have shown that feeling valued by their supervisor and supported by management, positively affect OBSE, as it increases employees' esteem from their organization (Bowling *et al.*, 2010).

In conclusion, because of the presence (or lack of) of accuracy, bias suppression, consistency and correctability, the perception of procedural justice in TM should positively affect the levels of OBSE. Thus it can be said that the higher the perception of fairness, the more the individual will feel capable, competent, important and valued by his organization, which defines the levels of an individual's OBSE. Hence, the level of OBSE can be seen as the consequence of a social exchange between employees and the organization. The organization shows employees how important and valued they are for the company through fair procedures, and by feeling that employees will experience high levels of organizational-based self-esteem.

2.3.1 The Mediating Role of Procedural Justice Between Transparency and OBSE

In the context of this research, we consider procedural justice as a mediator variable between transparency in talent management and organizational-based self-esteem. We have first seen, in the beginning of the chapter, that transparency in talent management can have an impact on the perception of procedural justice. In fact, considering the six rules used to evaluate the presence of procedural fairness: representativeness, ethicality, correctability, accuracy, consistency and bias suppression, we argued that the last three can be highly influenced by transparent practices. As transparency in TM practices foster consistency across individuals and accuracy, it should increase the perception of procedural fairness. Furthermore, bias suppression, a consequence of the presence of transparency, can also lead to higher perceptions of procedural justice. This permits us to believe that the level of transparency in TM should foster procedural justice perceptions among employees. We have also shown that procedural justice can

influence OBSE positively. More specifically, we have seen that accuracy, bias suppression, consistency and correctability can affect how competent, valued and important the employees think they are for their organization.

This logic allows us to state that higher levels of transparency should positively affect OBSE through a more positive perception of procedural fairness of the TM system. We believe that by perceiving more transparency, there should be a positive influence on the OBSE, because communication between employees and managers should be improved, employees should also be more likely to feel that their human rights are being respected, and that they are competent individuals in the eyes of their organization. Giving a specific example to the context of TM, an individual applies to the talent program but unfortunately does not get in. As he is unable to get information on why his application was rejected, he is likely to believe that the procedures aren't fair. In these circumstances, the fairness heuristic theory states that the person will act upon the situation, forming judgments that may or may not be correct. For instance, he may think his application was rejected because he is not valued enough by his organization, or that he is not worthy for them, or even yet that he is not capable of accomplishing certain things; all elements negatively affecting his OBSE. Hence, in this example, it can be seen how the lack of transparency can influence OBSE by bringing employees to perceive lower levels of procedural justice. This reasoning leads us to formulate the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: *Procedural justice will act as a mediator variable between transparency and organizational-based self-esteem.*

2.5 Link Between Procedural Justice and the Intention to Quit

In the present section, we analyze the link between procedural justice and the intention to quit. As mentioned in the first chapter, the intention to quit is an employee's plan to leave his current job and look forward to find another one. In the next paragraphs, we will elaborate on the relation between the intention to quit and procedural justice by making reference to four of the six rules of procedural justice (accuracy, consistency,

bias suppression, correctability). We believe these four rules are related to the concept of turnover intentions, representing the connection we look for in order to link procedural justice and the intention to quit.

First, the intention to quit is related to the notion of accuracy. In the context of TM, accuracy can affect an employee's intention to quit. For instance, precise and clear information on how talents are identified in the organization can increase one's intention to stay in the organization, especially for those interested in being part of the program. In fact, these employees will then count on the right tools that will allow them to increase their chances of getting into the program. From this point of view, accuracy of information, with regards to a TM program, can increase the intentions to stay (thus decreasing turnover intentions). Loi, Hang-Yue and Foley (Loi, Hang-Yue and Foley, 2006), who found empirical evidence on a negative impact of procedural justice on the intention to leave, suggest that managers should convey clear messages to employees that the organization feels responsible for, and values, its employees. The authors claim that open and regular communication with employees is likely to increase positive perception of fairness and as a consequence, to reduce turnover intentions.

Second, the notion of consistency can have an impact on turnover intentions. When applied over time, the presence of consistency ensures the stability of procedures, which can also ensure stability to employees' future plans. For example, employees wishing to become talents may inform themselves about the identification process of the program, so they can eventually be identified as talents. If procedures and practices are not being informed with consistency, which causes that certain employees have more or less information on certain subjects, it can increase the intentions to leave. As a matter of fact, employees having access to less information may feel less valued and less important for their organization, which in turn, may increase their intentions to leave. Employees having access to more information, compared to others, may think that the system is not fair, which may disappoint the positive beliefs they had about their organization, affecting negatively, their intentions to stay.

Third, the presence of biases in policies should also be related to the intention to leave an organization. If employees can easily see that potential talents get identified based on managers' self-interest, it is, in principle, an ineffective promotion system as it does not value enough employees' skills. This situation should make feel other employees depreciated. As a consequence, they may be tempted to look for job opportunities in other organizations, where favoritism wouldn't occupy such space. As Daileyl and Kirk (Daileyl and Kirk, 1992) state: "In spite of the quality of the work environment or how well employees like the work itself, when employees believe that they are not respected and treated fairly by their managers, they will naturally turn their thoughts to quitting." Hence, the presence of biases should increase turnover intentions.

Fourth, correctability can affect the intention to leave. In fact, opportunities which allow employees to appeal to organizational decisions provide positive image of the organization for all employees. Considering that even the most well-intentioned decision-makers commit errors or oversights, policies which favor correctability should allow employees to overturn organizational decisions, especially when the situation justifies the demands for a correction. As an example, if an employee being refused into the TM program can appeal the decision, he might perceive that the review process will, in the end, produce better decisions. This situation should naturally increase the organizational fidelity of the employee in question, and also that of colleagues who see that the company has procedures that allow the review and modification of certain decision process. Hence, the presence of correctability is likely to decrease turnover intentions.

In conclusion, we have seen that the presence (or lack of) accuracy, constancy, bias suppression and correctability, influence turnover intentions. Moreover, we have seen that empirical research has shown that procedural justice can affect negatively the intention to leave.

2.5.1 Procedural Justice as a Mediator Variable Between Transparency and the Intention to Quit

In the beginning, of the chapter we demonstrated that transparency is positively related to the perception of procedural justice; afterwards, we demonstrated that procedural justice is related to employees' intention to quit. In this section, we will explain how higher levels of transparency should allow lower perceptions of the intention to quit, by providing employees with more positive perceptions of procedural justice.

We believe that by perceiving more transparency, employees should experience their intentions to quit diminishing, because they may experience better communications with their organization, and feel more valued and respected by their company. If we apply a specific example in the context of TM, François would like to improve himself professionally. He knows that a TM program is implemented in his company, but would like to know more about it. François tries to get general information about the program, but his supervisor remains rather uncooperative on the subject because it is not part of the company's policies to divulge information about such program. After doing some research on the subject, François finds out another company, a competitor comprises a program which allows its employees to climb the ladder within the organization and develop their professional skills. Furthermore, he is able, at most, to acquire clearer and more relevant information from this company's website. François questions the reasons why information about the TM program at his own organization is so hidden. He thinks they do that so they can choose only favourites, and he draws to a conclusion that the program available in his workplace is far from being fair to its employees. François now thinks more and more about applying for a position at the other organization which is far more transparent. In brief, this example shows that the lack of transparency increases François's intention to leave his organization, because his perception of procedural justice about the TM program is depreciated. This reasoning leads us to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: *Procedural justice will act as a mediator variable between transparency and the intention to quit.*

2.6 The Desire to Be a High Potential as a Moderator

We define the desire to be a talent as someone that would like to be identified in a talent development program. To our knowledge, there is no empirical study that has focused on the moderating effect of the desire to be a high potential in the relationship between transparency and procedural justice. We elaborated already on some points that may allow us to establish a relationship between the desire to be a high potential and the link between transparency and procedural justice.

Recently, Guest (Guest, 2011) stated that research in human resources management has ignored important variables such as workers' values, goals and personality. Along similar lines, Nishii and Wright (Nishii and Wright, 2007) mentioned that these variables play a great role in forming perceptions of human resources systems in employees. Malik and Singh (Malik and Singh, 2014) further suggest that certain individual characteristics can influence the perceptions of justice in regards of talent management systems. In this sense, the process by which individuals will perceive justice in talent management procedures, in relation to the transparency level of the organization, may be modified by their own individual characteristics like the desire to become a high potential.

We have demonstrated in a previous section that talent management transparency can have a positive impact on the perception of procedural justice. In fact, we came to the conclusion that procedural justice and transparency are related through the concepts of consistency, accuracy and bias. Whereas transparency in talent management practices will foster consistency across individuals and accuracy, the perception of procedural fairness should increase. Furthermore, bias suppression, as a consequence of transparency, can also lead to higher perceptions of procedural justice. In the present section, we link the desire to be a high potential to the perception of accuracy and bias suppression. We believe that the willingness to become a talent can affect the perception of accuracy and bias suppression, negatively affecting the relation between transparency and procedural justice.

First, the desire to be a high potential can have an impact on the relationship between transparency and procedural justice, because it can affect negatively the perception of accuracy. For example, in the context of TM, an employee willing to be identified as a talent may realize the company gives abundant information for interested employees. Hence, the individual may be able to find specifics on the goals of the TM program, the application process and the criteria looked into a potential talent. However, upon applying to the program, he gets a letter letting him know that he was not accepted into the talent pool this time. The employee now thinks that the information given about the program was not clear enough to permit him to prepare himself like he should have for his application to the TM program, and concludes that otherwise, he would have been able to be admitted into the program. Hence, in this example, it can be seen that in the presence of transparency (on the information about the program), the employee wanting to become a talent is likely to have his overall perception of procedural justice negatively affected because he thinks that information on the program was not clear enough.

Second, the desire to be a talent can influence the relationship between transparency and procedural justice because it can have a negative impact on the perception of bias suppression. Following through an example specific to TM, an employee may be interested to be in talent pool, yet year after year, he is rejected. Some months later, after the talent recruitment ends, the employee finds out that his coworker, who is also a close friend of his manager, got in the TM program. The employee thinks he knows the reason why his coworker got admitted in the talent pool and why he has not. He concludes that there is favoritism when it comes to the selection of talents. In this example, we can establish that in a context where there is transparency (i.e. employees know there is a TM program and they also know who is a talent), an employee wanting to become a talent is likely to have his perception of procedural justice negatively affected because he thinks there is favoritism in the TM system.

In conclusion, the desire to be a high potential is likely to have an impact on the relation between transparency and procedural justice. As it was shown, the desire to be a high potential can negatively affect the positive influence transparency has on the overall

perception of procedural justice because it takes off objectivity on the perception of accuracy and bias suppression. Hence, the extent to which the desire to be a high potential corresponds to the act of taking TM program's information rather personally (compared to someone who is not interested in becoming a talent), the desire to be a high potential should influence the link between transparency and procedural justice. This reasoning leads to state the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: *The desire to be a high potential will moderate the relationship between transparency and procedural justice. The influence of transparency on procedural justice is diminished when a non-high potential employee has a strong desire to become a high potential.*

Chapter 3

Methodology

This chapter will present the different methodological choices performed in the context of this thesis. In this sense, we will present a description of the research design, the data collection, the organizational context, the sample and the scales used to measure the variables, the analysis methods applied, and the indexes of adjustment chosen.

3.1 Research Design and Justification of the Tools

A research design represents the methodological strategy of researchers in order to favour the best possible interpretation given the circumstances of a study (Saks, 2000). In the present research, we have decided to take a quantitative approach. In fact, we have shown that there is an important amount of knowledge concerning several variables of our research, such as procedural justice, the intention to quit and the OBSE. Although the concept of transparency in talent management is relatively new, organizational transparency and transparency in general have been studied before. Furthermore, while we have elaborated logical arguments in order to establish the link among certain variables of the model, empirical studies have permitted us to mention the connection existing among other variables of our model (such as the link between transparency and procedural justice, and the link between procedural justice and the intention to quit). In this sense, a quantitative research design will permit us to validate or reject some of our hypotheses but also to reconfirm an important part of our model.

The measuring instrument used for this study was a survey. As a matter of fact, questionnaires are suitable instruments when it comes to the study of attitudes and opinions within a population (Van Campenhoudt and Quivy, 2011: 167). Our survey, which was created and put into use in 2015, allows to measure adequately the key concepts of the thesis (subjective transparency in talent management, the desire to be a high potential, procedural justice, OBSE and turnover intentions), offering the possibility to perform correlations and structural equation modeling (SEM). As a

consequence, this research tool is coherent with the research design chosen, because it provides us with quantitative data. These research tools further consider joining an important number of participants at a minimal cost.

It is important to mention that the survey used in this study has more items than the ones we used for the analysis of our model. In fact, the survey was created to collect data that goes beyond the scope of our study. More precisely, the survey counts with 79 items, and 8 sociodemographic questions. In the present research, we used the items related to the variables considered in our model, and certain sociodemographic characteristics (a table with these characteristics is shown later in the chapter).

3.2 Collection and Preparation of the Data

Previous to the beginning of the study, the author realized an initial and brief exploratory research under the supervision of one of her thesis supervisors. This research, which took place in five companies, aimed to explore the differences in TM transparency between those organisations. Interviews were performed with human resources employees, and by taking into account their point of view, it was concluded that the levels of TM transparency among the five organizations were dispersed. This information allowed us to notice the importance of exploring the subject and invite other companies to be part of a more complex research.

The choice of the companies was made by convenience. More specifically, researchers concerned by this scientific project got in touch with employees from the human resources direction, working in different organizations. Furthermore, the author had the opportunity to visit in person one of the two organizations taking part of this study, and to obtain information on the current level of TM transparency from the point of view of an employee working in the human resources department. This information was gathered with the idea of exploring the differences in TM transparency between organizations taking part of the current study (if appropriate).

The data collection period was from August to November 2015. Each organization sent, to the author of this study, a list of the selected participants. Then, the author sent the questionnaire to each of those participants via email. In total, 236 individuals (working in the regions of Montreal and Toronto) were invited to answer the survey, and they were given a total of three weeks to answer their questionnaire online. Participants voluntarily answered the survey (no incentive was given).

Once survey's schedule ended, amongst all those compilations collected which were answered correctly were coded, while the ones judged inadmissible (answered incorrectly or uncompleted) were rejected. Out of 236 surveys sent, 135 were withheld, which confirms an answer rate of 57.20%. The data was then entered into the statistics software IBM SPSS. From there, we performed the corresponding analyzes in AMOS. AMOS is an add-on module for SPSS, designed primarily for structural equation modelling, which allowed us to test our theoretical model.

3.3 Organizational Context

We present in this section some information about the particularities of the internal and external context of the organizations participating in this research. The data collected for this study comes from two organizations operating in different sectors. In the following paragraphs, we will briefly describe the general context of each organization, as this information is relevant for a better comprehension of the research and its results.

Organization A

This parastatal organization counts up approximately 7,500 employees in Quebec, among which an important percentage of employees are unionized. With regards to the talent management program, among other points, employees know when they have been identified as talents. Although all employees have knowledge there is a talent management program running within the organization, employees who have not been identified as talents are not explicitly informed about who is a high a potential.

Organization B

The second organization participating in this study is a company operating in the food sector and in the pharmaceutical sector. It employs approximately 65,000 individuals in Quebec and Ontario, and an important percentage of those employees are unionized. Concerning the talent management program, talents do not always know they have been identified as such. Moreover, non-high-potential employees do not know who has been identified as a talent. Although employees know there is a succession plan (talent management program) running, they are not explicitly informed on the purposes of it or what it does.

3.4 Sample Characteristics

As mentioned before, the research sample is constituted of 135 participants. Because the sample is not very large, it is important to indicate that it will be difficult to make a generalization with the results and to apply those results in other contexts. Table 3.1 presents the characteristics of the sample used for the present study.

Table 3.1 Sample Characteristics

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Men	80	59.3%
Women	51	37.8%
Total	135	100%
Age		
Less than 25 years	0	0%
25 to 29	2	1.8%
30 to 34	9	6.6%

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
35 to 39	10	7.4%
40 to 44	23	17.1%
45 to 49	21	15.5%
50 to 54	23	17.1%
55 to 59	19	14.1%
60 and more	8	5.9%
Total	115	85.2%
Seniority within the Organization		
Less than 5 years	25	18%
5 to 9 years	21	15.1%
10 to 14 years	15	10.8%
15 to 19 years	15	10.8%
20 to 24 years	16	11.5%
25 to 29 years	13	9.4%
30 years and more	23	16.4%
Total	128	92.1%
Education level		
High School	16	11.9%
Cégep	34	25.2%
University	73	54.1%
Other	8	5.9%

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Total	131	97%

The table indicates that the sample is mainly composed of men (59.3%). The average age is 47.29 years and the average seniority is 16.67 years. Concerning the education level, as it can be seen 11.9% of the participants finished high school, 25.2% have finished Cégep and 54.1% have graduated from University.

3.5 Variables Measures

In this section we present the scales used to measure the variables in the theoretical model. It is important to mention that except for the scale which was used to measure the level of TM transparency, and the one used to measure the intention to become a talent, the remaining scales were translated from English to French. Furthermore, while 30 out of 135 of the chosen participants (22.2%) answered the survey in English, while 105 participants (77.7%) answered a French language version of that survey.

3.5.1 Scale Used to Measure the Independent Variable

Transparency in talent management is an independent variable in this study. The questionnaire used, in this study, is composed of four items. These items were created based on an initial exploratory study realized by the author on talent management transparency. As mentioned previously, prior to this study the author performed a brief exploratory research. Through that investigation, the author noticed certain information that was divulged in companies that were highly transparent in their talent management practices. More specifically, these organizations were open to receive the information regarding the development plan of talents, the list of individuals who have been identified as talents, the criteria used to identify a talent and the identification process used to identify a talent. Later, the author and her supervisors proceeded to create the items of the scale based on that information.

In order to answer the items about transparency, participants were provided with a definition of talent management. To avoid confusions, participants were provided with

the definition of talent management of their own company, and they were asked to answer on a three-point Likert scale (1 = “not transparent” to 3 = “completely transparent”). Table 3.2 shows the scale used.

Table 3.2 Talent Management Transparency Items

Section 1: Transparency concerning talent management			
<i>In this Research, Talent Management Practices refer to: (company definition)</i>			
<i>Regarding these practices in your company, evaluate the level of transparency associated with the following items.</i>			
<i>For each statement, your response choices are:</i>			
<i>1) Not transparent - information is not known or is not available.</i>			
<i>2) Relatively transparent - information is only available for a limited group of individuals.</i>			
<i>3) Completely transparent - information is available for all employees.</i>			
1. The talent review process	1	2	3
2. The “Talent” identification criteria	1	2	3
3. The list of people identified as “Talents”	1	2	3
4. The development activities offered to “Talents”	1	2	3

3.5.2 Scales Used to Measure the Dependent Variables

Two dependent variables were studied in this research, the OBSE and the intention to quit.

First, the OBSE was measured using the scale created by Pierce et al. (1989), which consists of 10 items. The scale is answered on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = “strongly disagree” to 7 = “strongly agree”), and it presents a good reliability. As a matter of fact, the internal consistency of the OBSE scale was demonstrated by Pierce et al. (1989) with seven different samples. Table 3.3 presents this scale.

Table 3.3 OBSE Items

3.3 VALUE IN THE ORGANIZATION							
<i>Evaluate each of the following statements:</i>							
<i>In this organization...</i>	Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree		
5. I truly matter.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. I'm taken seriously.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. I feel important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. I'm trusted.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. They believe in me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. I feel I can make a difference.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. I feel I am valued.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. My help is needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. I'm efficient.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. I'm cooperative.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Second, in order to measure the intention to quit we used a scale adapted from Konovsky and Cropanzano (1991) and rated on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 = “strongly agree” to 7 = “strongly disagree”. The adapted version of the scale has been used in previous studies (i.e.: Björkman *et al.*, 2013) and we rest on its good reliability. The items are presented on table 3.4.

Table 3.4 Intention to Quit Items

3.4 INTENTION TO QUIT							
<i>Evaluate each of the following statements:</i>	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
15. I intend to remain with my organization for the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. I often think about quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. I intend to look for a job outside of the organization within the next year.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.5.3 Scale Used to Measure the Mediator Variable

The mediator variable in our model is about procedural justice. In fact, as seen in the model, in talent management, transparency is predicted to influence on employees’ outcomes through employees’ perception of procedural justice. Table 3.5 presents the items of the scale, which was created by Colquitt (2001), and he was able to validate it in 2 separate studies (study 1 occurred in a University setting, and study 2 in a field setting using employees in the manufacturing sector). This scale has shown predictive validity on employees’ outcomes in the past (Colquitt, 2001), and is composed of 7 items. Participants answered the questionnaire on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = “strongly disagree” to 7 = “strongly agree”).

Table 3.5 Procedural Justice Items

2.2 PROCEDURAL JUSTICE							
<p><i>Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about the talent management procedures.</i></p> <p><i>Indicate to what extent you agree with these statements. Even where such procedures have not been applied to you personally, give your best belief or opinion.</i></p>	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
	18. Talent management procedures have been applied consistently.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Talent management procedures have been free of bias.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. I have had influence over the outcome arrived at by talent management procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. I have been able to express my views and feelings during talent management procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Talent management procedures have been based on accurate information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. I have been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by talent management procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Talent management procedures have upheld ethical and moral standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.5.4 Scale Used to Measure the Moderator Variable

The present study has one moderator variable, which is the desire to be a high potential. In order to measure this variable, we asked participants the question of how much they wanted to be identified as a high potential. The question was answered on a five-point Likert scale (1 = “not at all”, 2=“a little bit”, 3=“moderately”, 4=“a lot”, 5 = “absolutely”). Table 3.6 shows the question.

Table 3.6 Desire to be a High Potential Item

<p>25. How much would you like to be identified as a “Talent” by your organization? (1 = not at all, 2 = a little bit, 3 = moderately, 4= a lot, 5 = absolutely)</p>	1	2	3	4	5
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3.6 Analyses

Primarily, we used the software AMOS 19.0 for the analyses, and we performed structural equations modeling (SEM). Given that our study seeks to examine several causal relationships with latent variables, SEM seems the most appropriate analysis to use. As mentioned Roussel et al. (2002: 7), structural equation modeling has the advantage “to allow, to estimate the simultaneous processing of several relations of interconnected dependency, and it also allows the incorporation of errors directly on the

estimation process”. More conventional analyzes, such regression, do not allow this. In other words, this means that we can estimate the regression coefficients more accurately while assessing globally our research model (Roussel et al., 2002). Within this context, we analyzed simultaneously the effects of the determinant (talent management transparency) over the consequences (the intention to quit and OBSE), through the mediator variable (procedural justice perception).

Second, we also used SEM in order to verify our hypothesis of moderation. Initially, in SPSS, we created the independent variable (transparency in talent management), and the moderator (the desire to be a high potential), by calculating the means, taking into account the answers obtained for each variable. Next, these two variables were centred. Centring the variables is important in order to eliminate multicollinearity effects between the independent variable, the moderator, and the interaction variable. That allowed us to create the interaction variable, by performing a multiplication of the centred independent variable and the centred moderator variable. Then in Amos, we added this interaction variable in our model, which represents the moderation effect, and it allowed us to obtain an estimated coefficient of such effect. Furthermore, in SPSS, we plotted the centred independent variable (TM transparency), the centred moderator (the desire to become a high potential), the interaction variable and the dependent variable (procedural justice) into a code that gave rise to a matrix, and permitted us to obtain a graph showing the moderation effect.

3.6.1 Fit Indices Chosen

In means to verify the adjustment of the model to the empirical data, we have used, as suggested by Roussel et al., (2002), measurement indices. We have focused on a number of global adjustment indices. As a matter of fact, a combination of several indices allows us a more detailed analysis, since each index has strengths and weaknesses.

According Roussel et al., (2002) there are three families of overall fit indices: absolute measurement indices, incremental and parsimony. Absolute indices assess the level of adequacy of the model based on the data collected. Incremental indices measure the

improvement of the theoretical model fit, compared to a null model or alternative models (Roussel et al., 2002). Finally, parsimony indices are used to evaluate the fit of a model by taking into account its level of complexity. As part of this research project, the selected indicators are: “root mean square of error approximation” (RMSEA), the “Tucker-Lewis Index” (TLI) the “comparative fit index” (ICF). Please look at table 3.8 for a description of these indices.

Table 3.7 Selected Fit Indices, Utilities and Specificities

Type of Index	Selected Index	Critic Value	Utilities and Specificities
Incremental fit	TLI	> 0.09	Index permitting to compare the lack of adjustment of the model tested versus the original model. Its value permits to estimate the relative enhancement of the model to test, divided by the degree of freedom (p. 66).
	CFI	> 0.09	This index permits to measure the relative decrease of the lack of adjustment. This one is estimated following the distribution non-centred of the χ^2 of the model to test versus the actual model
Absolute fit	RMSEA	<0.05	This index represents the mean difference divided by its degrees of freedom, expected in the total population and not just the sample. This index is independent from the size of the sample and the complexity of the model, and disposes a of a confidence interval of 90% (p. 64)

Type of Index	Selected Index	Critic Value	Utilities and Specificities
Parsimonious fit	χ^2/df	<3	<p>This index allows us to detect if the model is over or under adjusted.</p> <p>It can be used to measure the degree of absolute parsimonious of a model. It also permits to identify the most parsimonious model, among several alternative models (p. 69).</p>

Source : Roussel et al., (2002)

Chapter 4

Results

This fourth chapter aims to present the results collected upon performing different analyses. Initially, we will present the coefficients of reliability and the correlations found among the variables of our model. Next, we will introduce you to the results obtained with regards to the testing of the theoretical model.

4.1 Coefficients of Reliability

First, we calculated the Cronbach's alpha of each variable in means to ensure the internal coherence of the selected items. These indexes of reliability are presented in the table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Results from the Analysis of Internal Coherence

Variables	Cronbach Alpha
Talent management transparency	0.824
Procedural Justice	0.909
Intention to quit	0.754
OBSE	0.943
Desire to be a high potential	(This variable was measured through one item only, and therefore the calculation of a Cronbach's Alpha does not apply)
Social Comparison	0.839

Looking at the results, the analysis of internal coherence is satisfactory. In fact, most of the coefficients are over 0.8. Only the variable measuring the intention to quit presents a

coefficient slightly inferior to 0.8 ($\alpha = 0.754$). However, this coefficient is higher than 0.7, which means that it is over the minimal generally accepted norm. The variable of OBSE presents a high coefficient, going over 0.9, which is an excellent internal coherence. Upon the calculation of the Cronbach's alpha, we proceeded to the creation of each variable of the model by calculating the means of the items.

4.2 The Correlation Matrix

In this section, we will present the results of the correlation analysis between the different variables in the study. These analyses allow us to verify the presence of linear relationships between the variables. The correlation coefficients, the means and the standard deviation are presented in table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Variables

Variables	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1. Transparency	1.46	0.47	-	-	-	-	-
2. Procedural Justice	3.63	1.24	0.589**	-	-	-	-
3. OBSE	5.37	1.08	0.281**	0.478**	-	-	-
4. Intention to Quit	2.33	1.25	-0.265**	-0.393**	-.368**	-	-
5. Desire to be a High Potential	3.21	1.06	-0.104	0.081	0.198*	0.100	-

* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$

As it is shown in the table, organizations participating in this study have certain levels of TM transparency, because on a scale from 1 to 3, the mean is 1.46. This situation is similar for the variable of procedural justice (measured on a scale from 1 to 7, with a mean of 3.63). Yet, some means that are remarkably high are the one of the desire to be a high potential (with a mean of 3.21, measured on a scale from 1 to 5) and the OBSE

(measured 1 to 7 scale, and with a total mean of 5.37). Finally, a low mean is the one of the intention to quit, which was measured on a scale from 1 to 7, and shows the low turnover intentions of employees in general (mean = 2.33).

In addition, this table allows us to observe that there are several linear and significant relations between the variables of this study, most of them being significant at a $p \leq 0.01$ level. We conclude that there exists a significant link between talent management transparency and OBSE and the intention to quit. These relations present coefficients of $r = .281^{**}$ and $r = -.265^{**}$ respectively. Hence, we can conceive from those results there are links between talent management transparency and the OBSE, and transparency and the intention to quit at the bivariate level.

Concerning the relation between the mediator variable (procedural justice), the independent variable (talent management transparency), and the dependent variables (OBSE and intention to quit), there are several linear and significant relations. In fact, talent management transparency is highly correlated to the perception of procedural justice, with a coefficient of $r = 0.589^{**}$. This result confirms previous research that also linked the perception of transparency to that to a more positive perception of procedural justice (García-Izquierdo, Moscoso and Ramos-Villagrasa, 2012). Furthermore, procedural justice is also directly associated with the OSBE ($r = 0.478^{**}$). This result concurs with previous research that points out that work conditions are antecedents of the OBSE (Bowling *et al.*, 2010). Previous empirical research also underscores the link between procedural justice and the intention to quit, which can be confirmed once again in our research (Dailey and Kirk, 1992). We can establish from the results in the table that procedural justice is inversely associated with the intention to quit ($r = -0.393^{**}$).

4.3 Results from Structural Equations Modeling

As mentioned before, the type of analysis privileged in this study was SEM (structural equations modeling). Yet, prior to the SEM analyses, we have made use of a method called “item parcelling” (Bagozzi and Edwards, 1998). SEM requires particular attention on the number of indicators and variables present in the model with regards to the

sample size. As a matter of fact, Roussel and his colleagues (2002: 49), mention: “the more there are latent variables and indicators in a theoretical model, the larger the sample size should be”. Hence, the minimal size for our sample must be superior to the number of parameters estimated. More specifically, an approximating ratio of five individuals per parameter would respond to a minimum standard required (Roussel et al ., 2002), while a ratio of ten individuals per parameter would be more appropriate (Roussel et al ., 2002; and Tabachnick Fidell 2001). Therefore, the idea is to obtain the more individuals possible per parameter estimated, while approximating a minimum ratio of 5:1. However, our theoretical model had a total of 82 parameters, which resulted in a ratio of about 1.5:1. For this reason, the complexity of the model (four latent variables and 24 indicators), did not allow us to answer the minimal norm required.

We therefore made use of the Item Parcelling Method. Hence, we merged items which correlated strongly and that were from the same scale (applying the correlational method, as stated by Landis *et al.*, 2000). A new item was then created, being the mean of the two correlated items. This process was repeated until the desired number of indicators, by latent variables, was attained. The correlational method, permitted us to reach a more acceptable ratio, as sustained by Tabachnick and Fidell (2002) and Kline (2005). More specifically, our model now contained still five latent variables, but only 13 indicators, for a total of 49 parameters, and a ratio of about 3:1.

Model Testing

To verify the hypotheses of our model, we tested five variables; talent management transparency, procedural justice, OBSE and the intention to quit, and the desire to be a high potential. Our models from the parcelling method presented results that are more satisfactory. Indeed, we created 2 alternative models with the parcelling method, one with 4 indicators per variable, and another one with 3 indicators per variable. The parcelled method with 3 items per factor showed the best fit: $\chi^2 = 102.664$, $DF = 61$, $CFI = 0.946$, $TLI = 0.931$ and $RMSEA = 0.071$. More specifically, with regards to the threshold set in Chapter 3 (p. 79), it can be seen that the model parcelled with 3 items respects the Incremental fit, with a TLI superior to 0.9 (allowing to notice an

enhancement of the model to test with regards to the original model), and a CFI also greater to 0.9. Similarly, the Parsimonious Fit is respected since the χ^2/ DF is equal to 1.68 (the critical value = $x < 3$), which allows us to claim that the model is well-adjusted. Finally, with respect to the Absolute Fit, its RMSEA is the nearest one (compared to the two other models) to the critical value required (< 0.05). Therefore, we kept the model parcelled with 3 items as it presents the best adjustment to the data. That being said, although it was not possible to attain the ratio of 5:1, this model represents an important improvement.

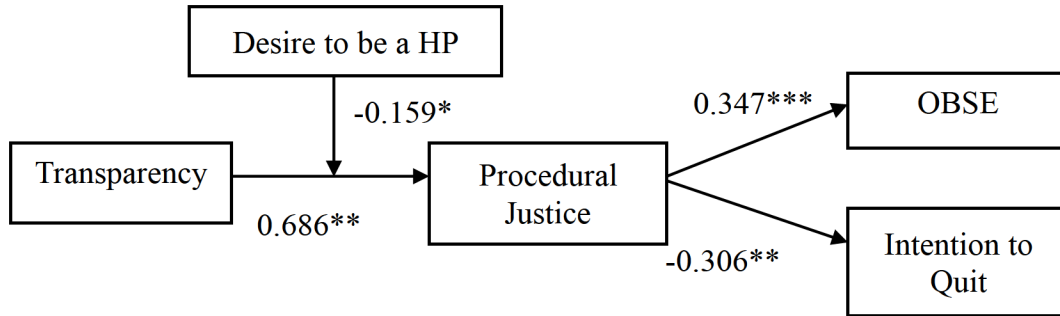
Table 4.3 Results from the Structural Equations

Tested Models	χ^2	DF	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Model parcelling with 4 factors (3 items/factor)	102.664	61	0.946	0.931	0.071
Model parcelling with 4 factors (4 items/factor)	94.269	51	0.944	0.928	0.08
Model with 1 factor (no parcelling)	6.971	3	0.965	0.930	0.099

*** $p < 0.001$

The technique used to test the indirect effects was Bootstrapping. Although there are different methods for testing mediating and moderating effects, bootstrapping is presently regarded as one of the most reliable (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping is a resampling strategy for calculating an estimate of the population coefficient using multiple resamples of the sample data. In addition, bootstrapping provides confidence intervals around the estimated coefficient (Van Dierendonck et al., 2014). In the next paragraphs, we will describe the results found for each hypothesis.

Figure 4.1 Research Model with Standardized Coefficients



*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

First, a value of 0.686 ($p < 0.01$) was obtained for the standardized estimated coefficient of TM transparency on procedural justice perception. Therefore, hypothesis 1, which states that the perception of transparency in talent management practices will be positively associated to employees' perceptions of procedural justice, is retained.

Second, the standardized estimated indirect coefficient of talent management transparency via perceived procedural justice was 0.347 ($p < 0.001$; 95% confidence interval: 0.17–0.51) for the OBSE. These results confirm hypothesis 2 of mediation, which proposes procedural justice as the mediator between talent management transparency and OBSE.

Third, in the case of hypothesis 3, the standardized estimated indirect coefficient of talent management transparency via perceived procedural justice was -0.306 ($p < 0.01$; 95% confidence interval: -0.46 – -0.15) for the intention to quit. In this sense, hypothesis 3, which postulates that procedural justice is the mediator between transparency and the intention to quit was, also confirmed. In conclusion, as our first three hypotheses were confirmed, the results suggest that in the relationship between TM transparency and the two employees' outcomes tested (OBSE and turnover intentions), there is a mediating role of procedural justice.

Fourth, with regards to hypothesis 4, the standardized estimated indirect coefficient of TM transparency times the desire to be a high potential was -0.154 ($p < 0.05$) for procedural justice perception. These results indicate the presence of an interaction between the desire to be a high potential and talent management transparency considering procedural justice. Figure 4.2 illustrates that the positive effect of talent management transparency on procedural justice is less important when the desire to be a high potential is eminent, which confirms our hypothesis 4 (which stated that the influence of transparency on procedural justice was going to diminish when a non-high potential wanted to become a high potential). Notice that whether the employee wants to become a talent or not, the relationship between transparency and procedural justice stays positive.

Figure 4.2. The Desire to be a High Potential as a Moderator

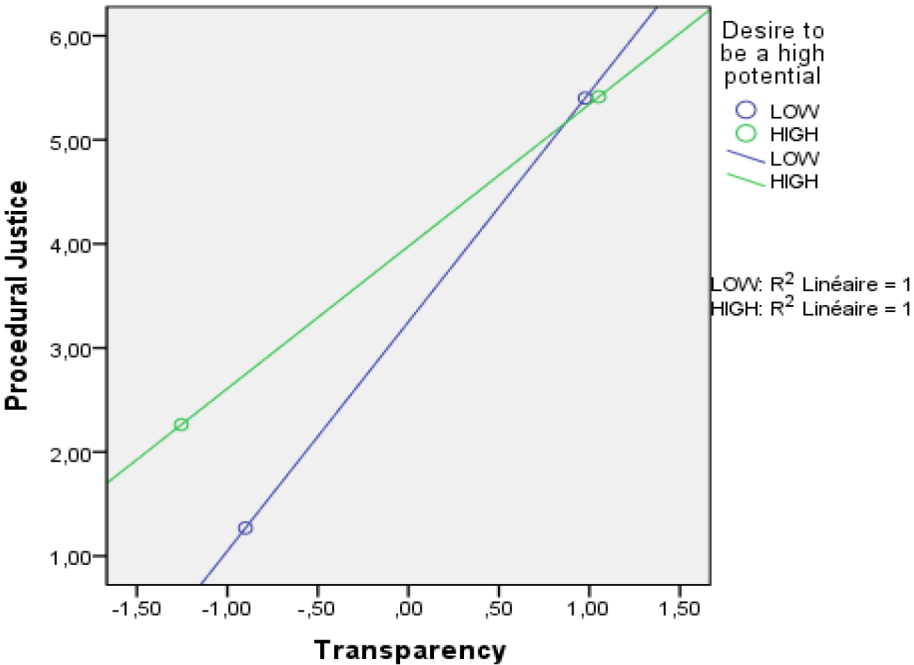


Table 4.4 A Synthesis of the Research Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Verdict
H 1: The perception of transparency in talent management practices will be positively associated to employees' perceptions of procedural justice.	Confirmed
H 2: Procedural justice will act as a mediator variable between transparency and organizational based self-esteem.	Confirmed
H 3: Procedural justice will act as a mediator variable between transparency and the intention to quit.	Confirmed
H 4: The desire to be a high potential will moderate the relationship between transparency and procedural justice. The influence of transparency on procedural justice is diminished when a non-high potential employee has a strong desire to become a high potential.	Confirmed

4.4 Complementary Results

Although the hypotheses of this study were sustained on perceptual relationships, because we had data from two organizations that differed in the transparency level of their TM programs (as stated in chapter 3, organization A was more transparent than organization B), we tested if globally the employees from each organization differed in their perception of transparency. We were interested in exploring the concordance between the objective TM transparency and the subjective perception of TM transparency. Hence, we performed a One-way ANOVA test for the variable of transparency, between organizations A and B. The results of the test of homogeneity did not allow us to reject the null hypothesis (that is, the idea that there is no relationship between TM transparency levels perceived by employees and the objective level of transparency, that is the type of company) because the test was not significant (signification = 0.059). Similarly, the test of One-way ANOVA was not significant either, with a value of signification of 0.329.

Table 4.5 Test of Homogeneity of Variances

TM Transparency

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Signification
3,626	1	132	,059

Table 4.6 One Way ANOVA

TM Transparency

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Signification
Between Groups	,215	1	,215	,960	,329
Within Groups	29,509	132	,224		
Total	29,724	133			

One of the reasons there may not be a significant difference in the perception of TM transparency between organization A and B can be due to sample size. Out of the 135 participants of this study, 105 were from organization B, but only 30 were from organization A. Perhaps a larger number of participants from organization A could have permitted to notice more differences that cannot be noticed in a small and unbalanced sample. A second reason can involve the differences between actual HR practices versus the employees' perceptions. As stated by Wright and Nishii (2007), people's past experiences with HR practices influences the way they perceive it in their current organization. Considering such, cultural diversity in the workforce and people's cultural backgrounds also influence the way employees form judgments about their environments, increasing the chances of making wrong attributions about a system.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusion

This last chapter aims to present a discussion on the different results obtained upon performing statistical analyses. Therefore, we will describe the results produced and confirmed by the structural equations modeling (SEM) we performed. Before the conclusion of this chapter, we will mention the theoretical and practical contributions of this thesis.

5.1 Research Objectives

The main objective of this thesis consists to bring in a better understanding of the process by which transparency in talent management has an impact on employees' (non-talent identified) outcomes. More specifically, our research's main questions were: how transparency can influence employees' outcomes through procedural justice, and how personal characteristics can moderate the relationship between transparency and procedural justice? In this sense, we tested how transparency affected the OBSE and turnover intentions (through a fairness perception), and how the desire to be a high potential, influences the link between procedural justice and transparency.

5.2 Return on the Results

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the SEM analyses allowed us to confirm our research hypotheses. As a matter of fact, it seems that transparency in talent management has an impact on non-talent identified employees' outcomes. Hence, this section aims to bring a discussion on the expected results.

First of all, the results and analyses performed in our sample show that transparency in talent management has a positive influence on the perception of procedural justice. When employees, not identified as talents, have access on information such as the talent review process (the number of steps, and on what consists each of them), the talent identification criteria (in other words, the talent profile the company looks for), the list of employees identified as talents, and the development activities offered to talents (specifications on the type of training sessions), those employees will more likely feel that talent management practices are being fair. In other words, transmitted with accuracy, applied with consistency, are free of biases and upheld ethical standards. This result is consistent with a previous research which demonstrates that transparency has an impact on the perception of procedural justice. Although not quite in the

same context, when it comes to reactions to the fairness of promotion methods (towards employees who were not given a promotion yet), García-Izquierdo and al., (2012) found that participants who had information on the criteria used in order to offer a promotion to an employee, reported a high level of perceived procedural justice. A higher perception of procedural justice when there is transparency can be explained through the fact that the employee is more likely to be communicated accurate and clear information, in a situation where procedures are being applied with consistency amongst all individuals, and where decisions are made out of bias.

Second, through the perception of procedural justice, transparency has a positive influence on OBSE. In other words, because of a positive perception of procedural fairness, emanating from the transparency he (she) perceives about the TM program, he will feel that he truly matters in his organization, that he is being trusted by it, that his work is needed and that he is important and valued by his company. This result is in accordance with our prediction, that procedural justice was likely to mediate the relationship between transparency and OBSE.

Third, through the perception of procedural justice, transparency has a negative influence on the intentions to quit. Specifically, transparency in TM practices should reduce his intention to quit, because of a positive perception of procedural justice. Our results are consistent with a previous research which demonstrates that procedural justice is an antecedent of one's intention to quit (Daileyl and Kirk, 1992; Loi, Hang-Yue and Foley, 2006).

Fourth, from our results we identified that the desire to be a talent moderated the relationship between transparency and the perception of procedural justice. This result means that if an individual wants to be identified as a talent, TM management's transparency will have a lesser impact on the perception of procedural justice. The result was concluded in accordance with our hypothesis, which stated that the willingness to become a talent was going to diminish the influence of transparency on procedural fairness. Notice, however, that the influence of transparency remains positive whether the employee wants to become a talent or not. Therefore, contrary to speculations made on the literature about the possible harmful effects of transparent TM practices with non-talent employees Silzer and Dowell (2009: 239), transparency has positive effects for those who are not interested in becoming a talent, and for those who are.

Finally, although it was not part of any of our hypotheses, because our sample was composed of

two organizations, which presented different levels of TM transparency, we were interested in exploring the level of TM transparency perceived by employees. Contrary to the congruence we expected between the objective versus the subjective level of transparency, the analyses showed that the perception of transparency of employees coming from organization A, did not differ from that of organization B. Aside the fact that our sample was perhaps not big enough to appreciate the objective differences, individual factors (cultural background, and people's past experiences with HR) may have influenced the way participants perceived the TM program in their current organization.

5.3 Theoretical and Empirical Contributions

Our thesis has produced important contributions to the theoretical and empirical knowledge the literature has on the subject. First of all, to our knowledge, our research is the first that conceptualizes the definition of transparency in talent management and measures it. As a matter of fact, we mentioned before that research done in the TM field is relatively new and scarce. In fact, previous to this research project, the author performed interviews with HR employees of different companies. That information allowed the author to create a matrix representing the different situations of TM transparency found in Quebec (matrix shown in chapter 1). The information collected also permitted us to operationalize TM transparency through four indicators (talent review process, talent identification criteria, list of employees identified as talents and the development activities offered to talents), and measure it in the sample of the current research.

Second, this study is innovative compared to others in several ways. Some years ago, Björkman *et al.* (2013) studied the reactions of talents and non-talents. However, in his study, employees' status was based on their own perception (subjective perception of being a talent or not). Next, Gelens (2013) measured the impact of knowing one's status (talent or non-talent), on organizational outcomes, through the mediating role of distributive justice. Gelens found that perceived distributive justice mediated the relationship between the identification as a high potential and job satisfaction as well as work effort. However, the mediating role of procedural justice remained unexplored. Moreover, Gelens study was limited to the influence of information on the status (talent or non-talent), leaving aside other particulars of a TM program (such as the review process, talent the criteria and development opportunities offered). Later Sonnenberg, Van Zijderveld and Brinks (2014), established that the rate of employees not identified as talents, but who thought themselves as *talents* can be relatively high within a

company. The authors also showed that incongruence between what is perceived versus the actual status can result harmful for the psychological contract, reason why; communicating a status is important. Yet, this research, once again, studies only the influence of knowing a status, not taking into account other important information of TM programs. In our study we used archival data as an objective antecedent (an employee's actual non-identification as a high potential). Moreover, to our knowledge, we are the first ones to test procedural justice as a mediating role, and to test the influence of several points of information about a TM program (variable we describe as transparency in talent management). Furthermore, we also take into account the moderating role of the desire to be a high potential. Up until now, the literature has stated that there is a need for research to examine individual factors influencing and shaping various attributions to HR systems and TM programs (Nishii and Wright, 2007). The moderating role of personal motivation profiles in TM programs has, only, been proposed in a theoretical model by Malik and Singh (2014). To our knowledge, our study is not only the first to explore a moderating effect in the relationship between transparency and procedural justice, but it also permits a better comprehension of the influence of personal goals and values in TM's system attributions.

Fourth, our study was not only among the few that focuses in the population of non-talent identified individuals (who represent more than 85% of the workforce in exclusive TM programs), but is also, to our knowledge, the very first one which allows to come to a deeper understanding of the influence of TM transparency on employees' outcomes. Despite speculations made in the literature about the negative impact of transparency on employees' outcomes—fears that information can get misinterpreted by employees (mislead them to expect promotions or development opportunities that may not necessarily take place) and declines in job performance (Silzer and Dowell, 2009: 239),—our study showed that TM transparency has an important role in influencing positively the OBSE and on decreasing turnover intentions.

In brief, our study contributes richly to the theoretical and empirical field of talent management in several ways. First, we contribute theoretically in that field because we operationalized TM transparency; we contribute empirically by analyzing a population that has rarely been studied before, and by exploring relationships mostly new in this field of research. Among others, the examination of individual factors in the attributions made to HR and TM programs is an area that demanded empirical testing. Finally, because TM remains a field where more empirical research can be done, the results of this study can be used as a foundation for future research that aims to continue to comprehend this subject even more.

5.4 Practical Implications

The results of this study are also a reference for all companies with a TM program. In the beginning, our research shows that contrary to the speculations made about the potential negative impact of transparency in organizational outcomes (Silzer and Dowell, 2009: 239; Swailes, 2013), transparency can be used as a tool to outgrow positive reactions among employees. In this sense, regardless of the type of industry, the sector, or the area of expertise of the company, transparent practices and policies in TM can be used to give employees important reasons to develop more loyalty for the company, and to contribute to a healthy OBSE in employees. More precisely, our study allows us to suggest to organizations to be open about their TM practices and policies to non-talent identified employees.

Second, our results also indicate that the effects of transparency, remains positive even when considering their desire to be part of the talent pool. In other words, the employer should communicate employees about the existence of a TM program. Moreover, it would also be important to tell employees if they have not been identified as talents. This finding has important implications for organizations, because it allows us to state that employees should have the possibility to know what the company looks for when it comes to talent identification. As a matter of fact, by having that type of information, employees willing to become talents will be able to prepare themselves, perhaps to accomplish their career goals (becoming a talent), and to look back firmly believing that their organization gave them the opportunity to develop themselves professionally. Malik and Singh (2014) argued that non-high potentials who have a high need achievement (in other words, who would like to be identified as talents) and are communicated about the significance of the TM program and the available developmental opportunities it offers, would form positive perceptions about these programs and would be less likely to perceive them as unfair.

With the same reasoning, the results of this study allow us to further recommend organizations to inform employees what the TM offers; in particular, what are the opportunities in terms of career development. Employees who wants to escalate professionally, and who are able to get that type of information, may then feel better guided (even helped by the company) to attain their goals. This type of situation is also beneficial for the company, because the act of communicating information about the possibilities offered in the TM program can be a strategy of fidelization with employees that are motivated by the career development program offered in

the company. As mentioned before in chapter one, IBM counts on that policy. This company declares transparency as one of the advantages of their competency-based formation program, because from the moment any employee joins the company, he knows exactly what to do to climb within the organization (Swapna, 2012).

CONCLUSION

The objective of this study was to evaluate the impact of TM transparency on organizational outcomes (the OBSE, and the intention to quit), through the perception of procedural justice. Moreover, we were interested in studying the impact of transparency on the perception of procedural justice, taking into account the personal willingness of being identified as a talent. Making use of the theoretical background on the talent management, organizational justice and the fairness heuristic theory, we postulated that transparency has a positive impact on employees' attitude.

In order to verify our research hypotheses, we performed structural equations modeling (SEM) analyses on 135 participants coming from two different industries. Generally speaking, and confirming our hypotheses, our results show that transparency in talent management influences positively on the employees' the intentions to stay and the OBSE, through a positive procedural fairness perception. Furthermore, our findings indicate that the intention to become a talent acts as a moderator between transparency and procedural justice, diminishing the influence of transparency.

5.5 Limits of the Research

This research presents certain limitations. First of all, although the size of our sample allowed us to perform SEM analyses and to obtain results, we can still claim that it is a relatively small sample (n = 135).

Second, another limit has to do with the perceptual bias of our participants. As a matter of fact, it can be possible that their answers may have been influenced by social desirability (the tendency to answer questions in a manner that would be viewed as favourably by others).

Third, our research design is cross-sectional. This means that this study presents a picture of the situation of the moment only, not giving us the possibility to see the impact of one variable on

another across time. However, this research design is well adapted for the subject of purpose. Furthermore, its results give rise to several ideas for new research avenues (we will explore this subject in further detail in the next section).

5.6 Research Avenues

Despite the fact that our study gives answers to important points, it also gives rise to more than one question. In this sense, several research avenues can be considered. First of all, because no research until today has tested a theoretical model like ours, it would be appropriate to retest this study with a different population. More specifically, with employees working in different sectors of the industry other than those mentioned in this current study. This would allow us to compare those results and obtain more information about the influences of TM transparency. Moreover, more variables can be added to the model, among others work performance, which would permit to see how transparency influences the quality of work.

Second, through this study we analyzed two variables that are employees' outcomes. However, future research can explore the effects of transparent TM policies and practices on other organizational outcomes, such as the intention to cooperate between colleagues, team work and cohesiveness among employees (among others). Such findings may turn out to be important, especially if teamwork has a major part on the business model of certain companies. But, even if it does not, all organizations require certain levels of teamwork in order to succeed. In this sense, it would then be foremost to know under which other circumstances transparency can be beneficial.

Third, it may be worth knowing if there are differences between men and women with regards to the impact of TM transparency on employees' outcomes. Especially when considering those differences between women and men have been established at work. For instance, Adams (2008) mentions in her book "Work with me" how men and women have different modes of appreciation, and how they both have different ways of expressing emotion, among other differences. Companies could gain from these findings by personalizing the way information is being communicated, and increasing the chances of positive attitudes and behaviours among employees.

Fourth, although in this research we analyze only one moderator on the relation between transparency and procedural justice, other factors may also affect the relationship between these

variables. In fact, we think that other possible moderators could be explored such as the social comparison. That is, the tendency of individuals to compare themselves to others, making self-evaluations, and perhaps wishing to be in someone else's place (which can be the case of a non-talent employee, knowing his own-status, and yet wanting to be part of the talent pool).

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Annexes

ANNEXE I – SURVEY DISTRIBUTED TO EMPLOYEES (FRENCH VERSION)

Les perceptions des employés à l'égard des pratiques de Gestions de Talents en entreprises

Questionnaire écrit

En encerclant le chiffre approprié à votre réponse, **évaluez dans quelle mesure vous êtes en désaccord ou en accord avec chacun des énoncés suivants.**

Certains des prochains énoncés font référence à votre **supérieur immédiat**. Il s'agit de la personne qui **coordonne et supervise le travail quotidien de votre équipe de travail.**

Section 1: Transparence quant aux pratiques de gestion de talents

Dans cette recherche, les pratiques de Gestion des Talents réfèrent à : (définition de la compagnie)

En regard de ces pratiques dans votre entreprise, évaluez le niveau de transparence associé aux éléments ci-dessous.

Pour chacun des énoncés, vos choix de réponse sont :

- 1) Pas transparent, les informations ne sont pas connues ou disponibles.*
- 2) Relativement transparent, les informations sont disponibles uniquement pour un groupe restreint d'individus.*
- 3) Complètement transparent, les informations sont disponibles pour tous les employés.*

26. Le processus d'identification des « Talents »	1	2	3
27. Les critères d'identification d'un « Talent »	1	2	3
28. La liste des personnes identifiées comme « Talent »	1	2	3
29. Le plan de développement type d'un «Talent »	1	2	3

Section 2 : Les perceptions de justice quant aux pratiques de gestion des talents

2.1 PERCEPTION DE L'ÉQUITÉ DES RÉSULTATS

Les énoncés suivants ont trait aux résultats ou opportunités que vous avez reçus ou non en lien avec les pratiques de gestion des talents de votre organisation, tels que des opportunités de formation, d'avancement de carrière, des promotions, des bonis, etc.

Indiquez dans quelle mesure vous êtes en accord avec ces énoncés.
Répondez à la question même si vous considérez ne pas être concerné par les pratiques de gestion des talents.

Les retombés des pratiques de gestion des talents reflètent pour moi...

	Très en Désaccord				Très en accord		
30. ...mon niveau d'investissement dans mon développement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. ... ma contribution à l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. ...mon niveau de performance au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. ...mon potentiel.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.2 JUSTICE D'ÉQUITÉ DANS LES PROCÉDURES

Les énoncés suivants ont trait aux procédures de gestion des talents mises en place dans votre organisation (ex. processus de revue des talents, critères d'identification des talents, etc.) .

Indiquez dans quelle mesure vous êtes en accord avec ces énoncés.
Répondez à la question même si vous considérez ne pas être concerné par les pratiques de gestion des talents.

	Très en Désaccord				Très en accord		
34. Les procédures liées à la gestion des talents sont appliquées de façon constante.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Les procédures liées à la gestion des talents sont appliquées sans biais.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Je peux influencer les résultats qui découlent des procédures de gestion des talents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. J'ai l'opportunité d'exprimer mes opinions à l'égard des procédures de gestion des talents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. Les procédures de gestion des talents sont basées sur des informations exactes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39. Je peux en appeler des décisions qui découlent des procédures de gestion des talents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40. Les procédures de gestion des talents respectent les standards en matière d'éthique.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.3 PERCEPTION D'ÉQUITÉ DANS LE TRAITEMENT PERSONNEL

Les énoncés suivants ont trait à la façon dont votre supérieur immédiat gère les procédures de gestion des talents dans votre organisation.

Indiquez dans quelle mesure vous êtes en accord avec ces énoncés.
Répondez à la question même si vous considérez ne pas être concerné par les pratiques de gestion des talents.

Lorsqu'il est question de gestion des talents, mon supérieur immédiat...

	Très en Désaccord				Très en accord		
41. ...est transparent dans ses échanges avec moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

42. ...communique les informations aux moments opportuns.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43. ...m'explique clairement les procédures.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44. ...me traite avec respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45. ...s'adresse à moi avec politesse.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
46. ...ne tient jamais de propos désobligeants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 3: Mes attitudes face au travail et à l'équipe

3.1 ENGAGEMENT ENVERS L'ORGANISATION

<i>Évaluez chacun des énoncés suivants :</i>	Très en Désaccord				Très en accord		
47. Je me sens émotionnellement attaché envers cette organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
48. J'éprouve un fort sentiment d'appartenance envers cette organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
49. Dans cette organisation, j'ai l'impression de « faire partie de la famille ».	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
50. Je serais très heureux de terminer ma carrière dans cette organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
51. Cette organisation signifie beaucoup pour moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
52. Je considère les problèmes de cette organisation comme étant les miens.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.2 PERFORMANCE AU TRAVAIL

<i>Évaluez chacun des énoncés suivants :</i>	Très en Désaccord				Très en accord		
<i>Dans cette organisation...</i>							
53. Je n'hésite pas à faire des heures supplémentaires pour que le travail soit terminé à temps.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
54. Je porte une attention particulière aux détails importants.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
55. Je travaille plus fort que ce que l'on exige de moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
56. Je sollicite des mandats ou tâches qui comportent des défis.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
57. Je suis discipliné(e) et en contrôle dans toutes situations au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
58. Je prends des initiatives pour résoudre des problèmes au travail.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
59. En situation difficile, je persiste et surmonte les obstacles afin de compléter mes tâches.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
60. J'entreprends les tâches difficiles avec enthousiasme.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.3 MA VALEUR DANS L'ORGANISATION

<i>Évaluez chacun des énoncés suivants :</i>	Très en Désaccord				Très en accord		
<i>Dans cette organisation...</i>							
61. Je compte vraiment.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
62. Je suis pris au sérieux.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
63. Je me sens important.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
64. On me fait confiance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
65. On croit en moi.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
66. Je sens que je peux faire une différence.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
67. Je sens que j'ai de la valeur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
68. On a besoin de mon aide.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
69. Je suis efficace.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

70. Je suis coopératif.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.4 INTENTION DE QUITTER							
Évaluez chacun des énoncés suivants :	Très en Désaccord			Très en accord			
71. J'ai l'intention de demeurer dans cette organisation dans un avenir rapproché.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
72. Je pense souvent quitter cette organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
73. Je songe à regarder pour un poste ailleurs dans la prochaine année.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.5 ORIENTATION DE COMPARAISON							
<i>La plupart des individus se comparent de temps à autre avec les autres. Il n'y a rien de « bon » ou « mauvais » à ce type de comportements et certains le font plus que d'autres. Répondez aux énoncés suivant en indiquant votre niveau d'accord envers ceux-ci.</i>							
	Très en Désaccord			Très en accord			
74. Je compare souvent ce que font les gens que j'aime (ex. conjoint(e), enfants, membres de ma famille) à ce que font les autres.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
75. Je porte toujours attention à ce que je fais en comparaison à ce que les autres font.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
76. Pour savoir si j'ai réussi quelque chose, je compare ce que j'ai fait ou obtenu avec ce que les autres ont fait ou obtenu.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
77. Sur le plan social, je me compare souvent aux autres (ex. habiletés sociales, succès).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
78. Je ne suis pas le type de personne qui se compare souvent aux autres.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
79. Je me compare souvent aux autres en regard de ce que j'ai accompli dans ma vie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
80. Cela est plutôt injuste que certaines personnes semblent avoir tous les talents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
81. Le succès de mes voisins me les rend moins sympathiques.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.6 SENTIMENT D'EFFICACITÉ RELATIVE							
Évaluez chacun des énoncés suivants :	Beaucoup moins					Beaucoup plus	
<i>Même si votre entreprise n'identifie pas formellement des employés comme Talents, répondez à la question en songeant à des personnes qui pourraient être identifiées dans ce groupe.</i>							
	Beaucoup moins					Beaucoup plus	
82. En comparaison aux cadres identifiés comme « Talent », je me perçois comme ... compétent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
83. En comparaison aux cadres identifiés comme « Talent », je me perçois comme ... performant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
84. En comparaison aux cadres non-identifiés comme « Talent », je me perçois comme ... compétent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
85. En comparaison aux cadres non-identifiés comme « Talent », je me perçois comme ... performant.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.7 EXIGENCES DE L'EMPLOI							
Évaluez chacun des énoncés suivants :	Très en Désaccord			Très en accord			
Dans mon organisation...							
86. ... on me demande d'accepter des standards de performance de plus en plus	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

élevés.							
87. ... on me demande d'être personnellement responsable du succès de l'organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
88. ... on s'attend à ce que j'accepte les changements fréquents dans les exigences de performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
89. ...on me demande de continuellement surpasser mes responsabilités et objectifs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
90. ...on s'attend à ce que je réponde positivement aux exigences changeantes en matière de performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.8 SOUTIEN DE L'ORGANISATION							
91. Mon organisation me soutient dans l'atteinte des plus hauts standards de performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
92. Mon organisation m'aide à répondre aux standards de plus en plus élevés de notre industrie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
93. Mon organisation m'aide à rencontrer les exigences croissantes de performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 5 : DONNÉES SOCIO-DÉMOGRAPHIQUE							
94. Quel est votre sexe?	Homme-----1 Femme-----2						
95. Quel est votre âge?	_____ ans						
96. Quel est votre degré de scolarité ?	Secondaire----- 1 Collégial ----- 2 Universitaire----- 3 Autre, précisez : _____						
97. Depuis combien d'années travaillez-vous dans cette entreprise?	_____années _____mois						
98. Votre organisation vous a-t-elle formellement identifié(e) comme un « Talent »?	Oui -----1 Non -----2 Je ne sais pas ---3						
Répondez à cette question uniquement si vous avez répondu « Non » ou « Je ne sais pas » à la question 71.	Pas du tout probable	Très probable					
99. Comment évalueriez-vous vos chances d'être identifié(e) comme un « Talent » dans cette organisation?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Répondez à cette question uniquement si vous avez répondu « Non » ou « Je ne sais pas » à la question 71.	Pas du tout	Très fortement					
100. Dans quelle mesure voudriez-vous être identifié(e) comme un « Talent » par votre organisation ?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Merci d'avoir complété le questionnaire. Vos commentaires additionnels et confidentiels sont appréciés!

ANNEXE II – SURVEY DISTRIBUTED TO EMPLOYEES (ENGLISH VERSION)

Employee perceptions regarding different Talent Management practices in companies
Written questionnaire

By circling the appropriate number corresponding to your answer, **indicate to what extent you disagree or agree with each of the following statements.**

Section 2: Perceptions of fairness regarding talent management practices							
2.1 DISTRIBUTIVE JUSTICE							
<i>Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about the outcomes that you did or did not receive as a result of the talent management procedures. Examples could be training opportunities, career advancements, promotions, bonuses, etc.</i>							
<i>Indicate to what extent you agree with these statements. Even where such procedures have not been applied to you personally, give your best belief or opinion.</i>							
		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	
101.	My outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my work.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
102.	My outcomes reflect what I have contributed to the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
103.	My outcomes are justified, given my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
2.2 PROCEDURAL JUSTICE							
<i>Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about the talent management procedures.</i>							
<i>Indicate to what extent you agree with these statements. Even where such procedures have not been applied to you personally, give your best belief or opinion.</i>							
		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	
104.	Talent management procedures have been applied consistently.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
105.	Talent management procedures have been free of bias.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
106.	I have had influence over the outcome arrived at by talent management procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
107.	I have been able to express my views and feelings during talent management procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
108.	Talent management procedures have been based on accurate information.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
109.	I have been able to appeal the outcome arrived at by talent management procedures.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
110.	Talent management procedures have upheld ethical and moral standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
2.3 INTERPERSONAL JUSTICE							
<i>Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about the information provided concerning the talent management procedures.</i>							
		Strongly Disagree				Strongly Agree	

Indicate to what extent you agree with these statements. Even where such procedures have not been applied to you personally, give your best belief or opinion.

My supervisor

111.	... has been candid in his or her communications with me. .	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
112.	... has communicated details in a timely manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
113.	... has explained the top talent management procedures thoroughly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
114.	... has treated me with respect.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
115.	... has treated me in a polite manner.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
116.	... has refrained from making improper remarks or comments.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Some of the following statements refer to your **immediate superior**. This is the person who **coordinates and supervises the work of your work team on a daily basis**.

Section 1: Transparency concerning talent management

In this Research, Talent Management Practices refer to : (company definition)

Regarding these practices in your company, evaluate the level of transparency associated with the following items.

For each statement, your response choices are:

- 1) Not transparent - information is not known or is not available.
- 2) Relatively transparent - information is only available for a limited group of individuals.
- 3) Completely transparent - information is available for all employees.

117.	The talent review process	1	2	3
118.	The "Talent" identification criteria	1	2	3
119.	The list of people identified as "Talents"	1	2	3
120.	The development activities offered to "Talents"	1	2	3

Section 3: My attitudes with respect work and to the team

3.1 COMMITMENT

Evaluate each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree
121. I feel an emotional attachment to this organization	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
122. I have a strong sense of belonging to this organization	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
123. In this organization, I feel I am "part of the family".	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
124. I would be very happy to end my career in this organization	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
125. This organization means a lot to me.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	
126. I consider this organization's problems to be my own.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	

3.2 PERFORMANCE

Evaluate each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree	Strongly Agree
--	-------------------	----------------

<i>In this organization...</i>							
127.	I put in extra hours to get work done on time.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
128.	I pay close attention to important details.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
129.	I work harder than necessary.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
130.	I ask for a challenging work assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
131.	I exercise personal discipline and self-control.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
132.	I take the initiative to solve work problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
133.	I persist in overcoming obstacles to completing a task.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
134.	I tackle a difficult work assignment enthusiastically.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

3.3 VALUE IN THE ORGANIZATION

<i>Evaluate each of the following statements:</i>		Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree		
<i>In this organization...</i>							
135.	I truly matter.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
136.	I'm taken seriously.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
137.	I feel important.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
138.	I'm trusted.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
139.	They believe in me.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
140.	I feel I can make a difference.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
141.	I feel I am valued.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
142.	My help is needed.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
143.	I'm efficient.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
144.	I'm cooperative.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

3.4 INTENTION TO QUIT

<i>Evaluate each of the following statements:</i>		Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree		
145.	I intend to remain with my organization for the near future.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
146.	I often think about quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
147.	I intend to look for a job outside of the organization within the next year.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

3.5 COMPARISON ORIENTATION

<i>Most people compare themselves from time to time with others. There is nothing particularly "good" or "bad" about this type of comparison, and some people do it more than others. Please let us know how often you compare yourself with others by indicating how much you agree with each statement below.</i>		Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree		
148.	I often compare how my loved ones (e.g., spouse, children, family members) are doing with how others are doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
149.	I always pay a lot of attention to how I do things compared to how others do things.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
150.	If I want to find out how well I have done something, I compare what I have done to how others have done.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
151.	I often compare how I am doing socially (e.g., social skills, success) with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

152. I am not the type of person who often makes comparisons with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
153. I often compare myself with others with respect to what I have accomplished in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
154. It somehow doesn't seem fair that some people seem to have all the talent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
155. Frankly, the success of my neighbors makes me resent them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.6 FEELING OF RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS

Evaluate each of the following statements:

Even if your organization doesn't formally identify individuals as Talents, give your best opinion by thinking about individuals that could fit in such a group.

	Much less				As much		Much more
156. Compared to the managers identified as "Talents" by the organization, I perceive myself as ... competent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
157. Compared to the managers identified as "Talents" by the organization, I perceive myself as ... effective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
158. Compared to the managers <u>not identified</u> as "Talents" by the organization, I perceive myself as ... competent.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
159. Compared to the managers <u>not identified</u> as "Talents" by the organization, I perceive myself as ... effective.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.7 JOB REQUIREMENTS

Evaluate each of the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
160. My organization asks me to accept increasingly challenging performance standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
161. My organization asks that I take personal responsibility for making the organization more successful.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
162. My organization requires me to accept frequent changes in performance demands.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
163. My organization requires that I respond positively to dynamic performance requirements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
164. My organization asks that I continuously exceed my formal accountabilities and goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.8 ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT

165. My organization supports me in attaining the highest possible levels of performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
166. My organization helps me to respond to ever greater industry standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
167. My organization supports me in meeting increasingly higher goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section 5 : SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

168. What is your sex?	Male-----1 Female-----2
169. What is your age?	_____ years old

170. What is your highest level of education completed?	High school----- 1 College ----- 2 University----- 3 Other, specify: _____
171. How long have you been working for this company?	_____years _____months
172. Have you been formally identified by your organization as belonging to a talent pool?	Yes -----1 No -----2 I don't know ----3
Answer this question only if you answered "No" or "I don't know" to question 73.	Not at all Highly probable probable
173. How would you evaluate the chances of you being identified as a "Talent" in this organization?	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Answer this question only if you answered "No" to question 73.	Not at all Very at all strongly
174. How much would you like to be identified as a "Talent" by your organization?	1 2 3 4 5

Thanks for completing the questionnaire. Any additional and confidential comments you may have would be greatly appreciated!
