

REFERENCES

- Alferaih, A., Sarwar, S., & Eid, A. (2018). Talent turnover and retention research: the case of tourism sector organisations in Saudi Arabia. *Evidence-based HRM*, 6(2), 166-186. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBHRM-06-2017-0035>
- Ali, F., Ciftci, O., Nanu, L., Cobanoglu, C., & Ryu, K. (2021). Response rates in hospitality research: an overview of current practice and suggestions for future research. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 62(1), 105-120. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1938965520943094>
- Aljbour, A., French, E., & Ali, M. (2021). An evidence-based multilevel framework of talent management: a systematic review. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 71(8), 3348-3376. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-02-2020-0065>
- Allen, N., & Meyer, J. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(1), 1-18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00506.x>
- Andrew, W.P., Damiatio, J.W., & Schmidgall, R.S. (2006). *Financial Management for the Hospitality Industry*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Anlesinya, A., & Amponsah-Tawiah, K. (2020). Towards a responsible talent management model. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 44(2/3), 279-303. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-07-2019-0114>
- Armstrong, M. (2011). *Armstrong's Handbook of Strategic Human Resource Management*. Kogan Page Publishers.
- Ashton, C., & Morton, L. (2005). Managing talent for competitive advantage: Taking a systemic approach to talent management. *Strategic HR Review*, 4(5), 28-31.
- Avedon, M. J., & Scholes, G. (2010). Building Competitive Advantage Through Integrated Talent Management. In R. Silzer & B.E. Dowell (Eds.), *Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative* (pp. 73- 122). Jossey-Bass.
- Awang, Z. (2012). *Structural equation modeling using AMOS graphic*. Penerbit Universiti Teknologi MARA.
- Barab, S. A., & Plucker, J. A. (2002). Smart people or mart context? Cognition, ability and talent development in an age of situated approached to knowing and learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 37(3), 165-182. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3703_3
- Barkhuizen, N., Mogwere, P., & Schutte, N. (2014). Talent management, work engagement and service quality orientation of support staff in a higher education institution. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(4), 69-77. <https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2014.v5n4p69>
- Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 99-120. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F014920639101700108>
- Baum, T. (2008). Implications of hospitality and tourism labour markets for talent management strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(7), 720-729. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110810897574>

- Becker, B. E., Huselid, M. A., & Beatty, R. W. (2009). *The differentiated workforce: Translating talent into strategic impact*. Harvard Business Press.
- Bentler, P. M., & Bonett, D. G. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88(3), 588–606. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.88.3.588>
- Bethke-Langenegger, P., Mahler, P., & Staffebach, B. (2011). Effectiveness of talent management strategies. *European Journal of International Management*, 5(5), 524–539.
- Bharwani, S., & Butt, N. (2012). Challenges for the global hospitality industry: an HR perspective. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 4(2), 150-162. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554211211217325>
- Bhatia, R., & Baruah, P. (2020). Exclusive talent management and its consequences: a review of literature. *Asian Journal of Business Ethics*, 9(2), 193-209. <https://doi.org/DOI 10.1007/s13520- 020-00105-8>
- Björkman, I., Ehrnrooth, M., Mäkelä, K., Smale, A., & Sumelius, J. (2013). Talent or not? Employee reactions to talent identification. *Human Resource Management*, 52(2), 195–214. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21525>
- Bolander, P., Werr, A., & Asplund, K. (2017). The practice of talent management: A framework and typology. *Personnel Review*, 46(8), 1523-1551. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-02-2016-0037>
- Boselie, P., Dietz, G. & Boon, C. (2005). Commonalities and contradictions in HRM and performance research. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 15(3), 67-94. <https://doi.org/ 10.1111/j.1748- 8583.2005.tb00154.x>.
- Boudreau, J. W., & Ramstad, P. M. (2007). *Beyond HR: The New Science of Human Capital*. Harvard Business Press.
- Bowman, C., & Hird, M. (2014). A resource-based view of talent management. In P. Sparrow, H. Scullion & I. Tarique (Eds.), *Strategic Talent Management: Contemporary Issues in International Context* (pp. 87–116). Cambridge University Press.
- Boxall, P., & Purcell, J. (2003). *Strategic and Human Resource Management*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Boxall, P., & Purcell, J. (2011). *Strategy and Human Resource Management*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Boxall, P.F. (1996). The strategic HRM debate and the resource-based view of the firm. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 6(3), 59–75. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1748-8583.1996.tb00412.x>
- Buckingham, M., & Vosburgh, R. M. (2001). The 21st century human resources function: It's the talent, stupid!. *Human Resource Planning*, 24(4), 17–23.
- Chami-Malaeb, R., & Garavan, T. (2013). Talent and leadership development practices as drivers of intention to stay in Lebanese organisations: the mediating role of affective commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(21), 4046-4062. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.789445>

- Chiang, C. F., & Jang, S. S. (2008). An expectancy theory model for hotel employee motivation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 27(2), 313–322. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2007.07.017>
- Chuai, X., Preece, D., & Iles, P. (2008). Is talent management just “old wine in new bottles”? The case of multinational companies in Beijing. *Management Research News*, 31(12), 901-911. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01409170810920611>
- CIPD. (2006). *Talent Management: Understanding the Dimensions*. CIPD.
- CIPD. (2007). *Talent: Strategy, Management, Measurement*. CIPD
- CIPD. (2008). *Talent Management: Design, Implementation and Evaluation*. CIPD
- Collier, J. (2020). *Applied Structural Equation Modeling using AMOS*. Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.
- Collings, D. G., & Mellahi, K. (2009). Strategic talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(4), 304-313. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2009.04.001>
- Collings, D.G. (2015). The contribution of talent management to organizational success. In K. Kraiger, J. Passmore, N. R. Dos Santos & S. Malvezzi (Eds), *The Wiley Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Training, Development and Performance Improvement* (pp. 247-260). Wiley-Blackwell, Chichester.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(3), 386–400. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386>
- Connelly, B. L., Certo, S. T., Ireland, R. D. & Reutzel, C. R. (2011). Signaling theory: A review and assessment. *Journal of Management*, 37(1), 39-67 <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206310388419>
- Cooke, F. L. (2021). Talent Management in Asia. In I. Tarique (Ed), *The Routledge Companion to Talent Management* (1st ed., pp. 138-152). Routledge.
- Coulson-Thomas, C. (2012). Talent management and building high performance organisations. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 44(7), 429-436. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00197851211268027>
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874–900. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602>.
- Daubner-Siva, D., Ybema, S., Vinkenburg, C. J., & Beech, N. (2018). The talent paradox: talent management as a mixed blessing. *Journal of Organizational Ethnography*, 7(1), 74-86, <https://doi.org/10.1108/JOE-01-2017-0002>
- De Boeck, G., Meyers, M. C., & Dries, N. (2018). Employee reactions to talent management: assumptions versus evidence. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 39, 199– 213. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2254>
- De Cooman, R., De Gieter, S., Pepermans, R., Jegers, M., & Van Acker, F. (2009). Development and validation of the Work Effort Scale. *European Journal of*

Psychological Assessment, 25(4), 266–273. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759.25.4.266>

- De Long, T. J., & Vijayaraghavan, V. (2003). Let's hear it for the B players. *Harvard Business Review*, 81(6), 96–102.
- De Vos, A., & Dries, N. (2013). Applying a talent management lens to career management: the role of human capital composition and continuity. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(9), 1816-1831. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.777537>
- DiRomualdo, T., Joyce, S. & Bression, N. (2009). *Key Findings from Hackett's Performance Study on Talent Management Maturity*. Hackett Group.
- Downe-Wamboldt, B. (1992). Content analysis: method, applications, and issues. *Health care for women international*, 13(3), 313-321. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07399339209516006>
- Downs, Y., & Swailes, S. (2013). A capability approach to organizational talent management. *Human Resource Development International*, 16(3), 267–281. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2013.782992>
- Dries, N. (2013). The psychology of talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 272-285. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.05.001>
- Dries, N., & De Gieter, S. (2014). Information asymmetry in high potential programs: A potential risk for psychological contract breach. *Personnel Review*, 43(1), 136-162. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-11-2011-0174>
- Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2008). 'Real' high-potential careers: An empirical study into the perspectives of organisations and high potentials. *Personnel Review*, 37(1), 85–108. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483480810839987>
- Dries, N., Forrier, A., De Vos, A., & Pepermans, R. (2014). Self-perceived employability, organization-rated potential, and the psychological contract. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(5), 565-581. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-04-2013-0109>
- Du Plessis, L., Barkhuizen, N., Stanz, K., & Schutte, N. (2015). The Management Side of Talent: Causal Implications for The Retention of Generation Y Employees. *The Journal of Applied Business Research*, 31(5), 1767-1780. <https://doi.org/10.19030/jabr.v31i5.9390>
- Duttagupta, R. (2005). *Identifying and Managing Your Assets: Talent Management*. Pricewaterhouse Coopers.
- Ehrnrooth, M., Björkman, I., Mäkelä, K., Smale, A., Sumelius, J., & Taimitarha, S. (2018). Talent responses to talent status awareness - not a question of simple reciprocation. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 28(3), 443-461. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12190>
- Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 565-573. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.565>

- Ericsson, K. A., Prietula, M. J., & Cokely, E. T. (2007). The making of an expert. *Harvard Business Review*, 85(7/8), 115–121.
- Fernandes, C., & Awamleh, R. (2006). Impact of organisational justice in an expatriate work Environment. *Management Research News*, 29(11), 701-712. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01409170610716016>
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18(1), 39-50. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F002224378101800104>
- Forza, C., & Filippini, R. (1998). TQM impact on quality conformance and customer satisfaction: a causal model. *International Journal of Production Economics*, 55(1), 1–20. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0925-5273\(98\)00007-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0925-5273(98)00007-3)
- Gagné, F. (2004). Transforming gifts into talents: The DMGT as a developmental theory. *High Ability Studies*, 15(2), 119-147. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1359813042000314682>
- Gallardo-Gallardo, E., & Thunnissen, M. (2016). Standing on the shoulders of giants? A critical review of empirical talent management research. *Employee Relations*, 38(1), 31-56. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-10-2015-0194>
- Gallardo-Gallardo, E., & Thunnissen, M. (2019). Talent management: disentangling key ideas. In A. Wilkinson, N. Bacon, & S. Snell (Eds), *The SAGE Handbook of Human Resource Management* (pp. 164-178). SAGE Publications Ltd. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781529714852.n11>
- Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Dries, N., & González-Cruz, T. (2013). What is the meaning of ‘talent’ in the world of work?. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 290-300. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.05.002>
- Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Nijs, S., Dries, N., & Gallo, P. (2015). Towards an understanding of talent management as a phenomenon-driven field using bibliometric and content analysis. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(3), 264–270. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2015.04.003>
- Gallucci, M., & Perugini, M. (2003). Information seeking and reciprocity: a transformational analysis. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 33(4), 473-495 <https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.156>
- Garavan, T., O’Brien, F., & Watson, S. (2015). Leadership development and organizational success. In K. Kraiger, J. Passmore, N. R. Dos Santos & S. Malvezzi (Eds), *The Wiley Blackwell Handbook of the Psychology of Training, Development and Performance Improvement* (pp. 354-397) Wiley- Blackwell, Chichester,.
- Gelens, J., Dries, N., Hofmans, J., & Pepermans, R. (2013). The role of perceived organizational justice in shaping the outcomes of talent management: A research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 341–353. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.05.005>
- Gelens, J., Dries, N., Hofmans, J., & Pepermans, R. (2015). Affective commitment of employees designated as talent: Signalling perceived organisational support. *European Journal of International Management*, 9, 9–27.

- Gelens, J., Hofmans, J., Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2014). Talent management and organisational justice: employee reactions to high potential identification. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 24(2), 159-175. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12029>
- Gok, O. A., Akgunduz, Y., & Alkan, C. (2017). The Effects of Job Stress and Perceived Organizational Support on Turnover Intentions of Hotel Employees. *Journal of Tourismology*. 3(2), 23-32.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, 16(2), 606-613. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F014920639001600208>
- Greenspoon, P. J., & Saklofske, D.H. (1998). Confirmatory factor analysis of the multidimensional student's life satisfaction scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25(5), 965–971. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869\(98\)00115-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(98)00115-9)
- Guest, D. E. (2017). Human Resource Management and Employee Well-being: Towards a New Analytic Framework. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 27(1), 22–38. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12139>
- Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18, 59-82.
- Guillet, B.D., & Mattila, A.S. (2010). A descriptive examination of corporate governance in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 677–684. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2010.01.004>
- Gupta. V. (2020). Talent management dimensions and its relationship with Generation Y employee's intention to quit: An Indian hotel perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 6(3), 583-600. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJTC-02-2019-0018>
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Babin, B. J., & Black, W. C. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective*. Pearson.
- Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*. Sage.
- Hayes, A.F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: statistical mediation analysis in the new millennium. *Communication Monographs*, 76(4), 408-420. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03637750903310360>
- Hilgard, E. R. (1980). The trilogy of mind: Cognition, affection, and conation. *Journal of the History of the Behavioral Sciences*, 16(2), 107–117.
- Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is “enough” in Internet survey research?. *Interpersonal Computing and Technology: An Electronic Journal For The 21st Century*, 6(3-4), 1–12.
- Ho, R. (2014). *Handbook of Univariate and Multivariate Data Analysis with IBM SPSS*. Taylor and Francis.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*. McGraw-Hill.
- Hofstede, G. (1994). The business of international business is culture. *International Business Review*, 3(1), 1-14. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0969-5931\(94\)90011-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/0969-5931(94)90011-6)

- Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online readings in psychology and culture*, 2(1), 2307-0919.
- Hoglund, M. (2012). Quid pro quo? Examining talent management through the lens of psychological contracts. *Personnel Review*, 41(2), 126-142. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00483481211199991>
- Horner, S. (2017). *Talent Management in Hospitality and Tourism*. Goodfellow Publishers Limited.
- Horváthová, P., & Davidová, M. (2012). The Level of Talent Management Usage in Organizations of the Czech Republic Including ICT Utilization. *Journal of Communication and Computer*, 9(7), 759–770.
- Huang, J., & Tansley, C. (2012). Sneaking through the minefield of talent management: The notion of rhetorical obfuscation. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(17), 3673–3691. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2011.639029>
- Hughes, J. C., & Rog, E. (2008). Talent management: A strategy for improving employee recruitment, retention and engagement within hospitality organizations. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(7), 743-757. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09596110810899086>
- Huselid, M. A., Beatty, R. W., & Becker, B. E. 2005. ‘A players’ or ‘A positions’?. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(12), 110-117.
- Iles, P., Chuai, X., & Preece, D. (2010). Talent Management and HRM in Multinational companies in Beijing: Definitions, differences and drivers. *Journal of World Business*, 45(2), 179-189. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.014>
- Jauhari, V. (2012). Strategic growth challenges for Indian hotel industry. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 4(2), 118-30. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554211211217307>
- Jauhari, V., & Manaktola, K. (2009). Managing workforce issues in the hospitality industry in India. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 1(1), 19-24. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554210910949850>
- Jauhari, V., & Rishi, M. (2012). Challenges faced by the hospitality industry in India: an introduction. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 4(2), 110-117. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554211211217299>
- Jayaraman, S., Talib, P., & Khan, A. (2018). Integrated Talent Management Scale: Construction and Initial Validation. *SAGE Open*, 8(3), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018780965>
- Johnson, G., Scholes, K., & Whittington, R. (2005). *Explaining Corporate Strategy*. Harlow
- Johnson, K.R., Huang, T., & Doyle, A. (2019). Mapping talent development in tourism and hospitality: a literature review. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 43(9), 821-841. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-03-2019-0047>
- Jooss, S., McDonnell, A., Burbach, R., & Vaiman, V. (2019). Conceptualising talent in multinational hotel corporations. *International Journal of Contemporary*

- Hospitality Management*, 31(10), 3879-3898. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-10-2018-0849>
- Jordan, P. J., & Troth, A. C. (2020). Common method bias in applied settings: The dilemma of researching in organizations. *Australian Journal of Management*, 45(1), 3-14. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0312896219871976>
- Joyce, S., Herreman, J. & Kelly, K. (2007). *Talent Management: Buzzword or Holy Grail*. Hackett Group.
- Joyce, W. F., & Slocum, J. W. (2012). Top management talent, strategic capabilities, and firm performance. *Organizational Dynamics*, 41(3), 183-193.
- Kaiser, H.F. (1958). The varimax criterion for analytic rotation in factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 23, 187–200 (1958). <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02289233>
- Katz, R. L. (2009). *Skills of an effective administrator*. Harvard Business Review Press.
- Kehoe, R., & Wright, P. (2013). The Impact of High-Performance Human Resource Practices on Employees' Attitudes and Behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 39(2), 366-391. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0149206310365901>
- Khoreva, V., Kostanek, E., & Van Zalk, M. (2015). Managing high-potential employees in MNCs: The mediating role of socialization mechanisms. In Academy of Management Proceedings (Vol. 2015, No. 1, p. 12104). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.
- Khoreva, V., Vaiman, V., & Van Zalk, M. (2017). Talent management practice effectiveness: investigating employee perspective. *Employee Relations*, 39(1), 19-33. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-01-2016-0005>
- Kichuk, A., Brown, L., & Ladkin, A. (2019). Talent pool exclusion: the hotel employee perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31(10), 3970- 3991. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2018-0814>
- King, K. A. (2016). The talent deal and journey: Understanding how employees respond to talent identification over time. *Employee Relations*, 38(1): 94–111. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-07-2015-0155>
- King, K. A. (2021). The Employee and Talent Management: An Interaction Framed Through Three Lenses: Work, Team, and the Organization. In I. Tarique (Ed), *The Routledge Companion to Talent Management* (1st ed., pp. 44-56). Routledge.
- Kline, R. B. (1998). Software review: Software programs for structural equation modelling: Amos, EQS, and LISREL. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 16(4), 343-364. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F073428299801600407>
- Kontoghiorghes, C. (2016). Linking high performance organizational culture and talent management: satisfaction/motivation and organizational commitment as mediators. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(16), 1833-1853. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1075572>
- Kontoghiorghes, C., & Frangou, K. (2009). The association between talent retention, antecedent factors, and consequent organizational performance. *SAM Advanced Management Journal*, 74(1),29–58.

- Kravariti, F., Tasoulis, K., Scullion, H., & Alali, M. K. (2022). Talent management and performance in the public sector: the role of organisational and line managerial support for development. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1-26. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2022.2032265>
- Krebs, B., & Wehner, M. (2021). The Relationship Between Talent Management and Individual and Organizational Performance. In I. Tarique (Ed), *The Routledge Companion to Talent Management* (1st ed., pp. 539- 555). Routledge.
- Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 30(3), 607-610. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F001316447003000308>
- Kumar, S., & Kumar, S. (2015). Structure equation modeling basic assumptions and concepts: A novices guide. *Asian Journal of Management Sciences*, 3(1), 25-28.
- Kwon, K., & Jang, S. (2021). There is no good war for talent: a critical review of the literature on talent management. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 44(1), 94-120. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-08-2020-0374>
- Latukha, M., & Veselova, A. (2019). Talent management, absorptive capacity, and firm performance: Does it work in China and Russia?. *Human Resource Management*, 58(5), 503-519. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21930>
- Lepak, D. P., & Snell, S. A. (2002). Examining the human resource architecture: The relationships among human capital, employment, and human resource configurations. *Journal of Management*, 28(4), 517-543. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F014920630202800403>
- Leung, S. (2011). A Comparison of Psychometric Properties and Normality in 4-, 5-, 6-, and 11-Point Likert Scales. *Journal of Social Service Research*, 37(4), 412-421. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01488376.2011.580697>
- Lewis, R., & Heckman, R. (2006). Talent management: A critical review. *Human Resource Management Review*, 16(2), 139-154. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2006.03.001>
- Lin, W. Z. (2006). The new key word ‘talent management’ in retaining the top employees. *Human Capital Magazine*.
- Luna-Arocas, R., & Morley, M. J. (2015). Talent management, talent mindset competency and job performance: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *European Journal of International Management*, 9, 28–51.
- Mabey, C., & Ramirez, M. (2005). Does management development improve organizational productivity? A six-country analysis of European firms. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(7), 1067-1082. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585190500143931>
- Macho, S., & Ledermann, T. (2011). Estimating, testing, and comparing specific effects in structural equation models: the phantom model approach. *Psychological Methods*, 16(1), 34-43. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0021763>
- Mäkelä, K., Björkman, I., & Ehrnrooth, M. (2010). How do MNCs establish their talent pools? Influences on individuals’ likelihood of being labelled as talent. *Journal of World Business*, 45(2), 134-142. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.020>

- Makram, H., Sparrow, P., & Greasley, K. (2017). How do strategic actors think about the value of talent management? Moving from talent practice to the practice of talent. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 4(4), 259-378. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JOEPP-06-2017-0051>
- Malik, A. and Singh, P. (2018). The role of employee attributions in the burnout of “talented” employees. *Personnel Review*, 49(1), 19-42. <https://doi.org/10.1108/pr-02-2018-0064>
- Malik, A., & Singh, P. (2014). ‘High potential’ programs: Let's hear it for ‘B’ players. *Human Resource Management Review*, 24(4), 330-346. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2014.06.001>
- Malik, A., & Singh, P. (2020). Outcomes of talent management: the role of perceived equity. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 44(2), 277-293. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-04-2020-0153>
- McDonnell, A., Collings, D. G., Mellahi, K., & Schuler, R. S. (2017). Talent management: A systematic review and future prospects. *European Journal of International Management*, 11(1), 86–128. <https://doi.org/10.1504/EJIM.2017.081253>
- Mensah, J. K, Bawole, J. N., & Wedchayanon, N. (2016). Unlocking the “black box” in the talent management employee performance relationship: evidence from Ghana. *Management Research Review*, 39(12), 1546-1566. <https://doi.org/10.1108/MRR-08-2015-0190>
- Mensah, J. K. (2015). A “coalesced framework” of talent management and employee performance: For further research and practice. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 64(4), 544–566. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-07-2014-0100>
- Mensah, J. K. (2019). Talent management and talented employees’ attitudes: mediating role of perceived organisational support. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 85(3), 527-543. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0020852319844318>
- Mensah, J. K., & Bawole, J. N. (2018). Testing the mediation effect of person- organisation fit on the relationship between talent management and talented employees’ attitudes. *International Journal of Manpower*, 39(2), 319- 333. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJM-08-2016-0162>
- Meyers, M. C. (2016). Talent management: Towards a more inclusive understanding. *Tijdschrift voor HRM*, 2016(12), 1-12.
- Meyers, M. C., Van Woerkom, M., & Dries, N. (2013). Talent-innate or acquired? Theoretical considerations and their implications for talent management. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 305–321. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.05.003>
- Meyers, M., & Van Woerkom, M. (2014). The influence of underlying philosophies on talent management: Theory, implications for practice, and research agenda. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2), 192–203. DOI <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2013.11.003>.
- Meyers, M., Van Woerkom, M., Paauwe, J., & Dries, N. (2019). HR managers’ talent philosophies: prevalence and relationships with perceived talent management

- practices. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 31(4), 562-588. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2019.1579747>
- Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The war for talent*. Harvard Business School Press.
- Molm, L.D. (1994). Dependence and risk: transforming the structure of social exchange. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 57(3), 163-176. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2786874>
- Narayanan, A., Rajithakumar, S., & Menon, M. (2019). Talent Management and Employee Retention: An Integrative Research Framework. *Human Resource Development Review*, 18(2), 228–247. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1534484318812159>
- Nijs, S., Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Dries, N., & Sels, L. (2014). A multidisciplinary review into the definition, operationalization, and measurement of talent. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2), 180–191. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2013.11.002>
- Nishii, L. H., Lepak, D. P., & Schneider, B. (2008). Employee attributions of the “Why” of HR practices: Their effects on employee attitudes and behaviours, and customer satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, 61(3), 503-545. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2008.00121.x>
- Nunally. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. McGraw-Hill.
- O'Connor, E., & Crowley-Henry, M. (2017). Exploring the Relationship Between Exclusive Talent Management, Perceived Organizational Justice and Employee Engagement: Bridging the Literature. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 156(4), 903-917. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3543-1>
- O'Reilly, C. A., & Pfeffer, J. (2000). Cisco systems: Acquiring and retaining talent in hypercompetitive markets. *Human Resource Planning*, 23(3), 38–52.
- Painter-Morland, M., Kirk, S., Deslandes, G., & Tansley, C. (2019). Talent Management: The Good, the Bad, and the Possible. *European Management Review*, 16(1), 135-146. <https://doi.org/10.1111/emre.12171>
- Panda, S., & Sahoo, C. K. (2015). Strategic talent development interventions: an analysis. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 47(1), 15-22. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ICT-05-2014-0031>
- Pepermans, R., Vloeberghs, D., & Perkisas, B. (2003). High potential identification policies: An empirical study among Belgian companies. *Journal of Management Development*, 22(8), 660–678. <https://doi.org/10.1108/02621710310487846>
- Peterson, C., & Seligman, M. E. P. (2004). *Character strengths and virtues: A handbook and classification*. Oxford University Press.
- Peterson, J., Tahssain-Gay, L., & Laila, B. (2022). The impact of exclusivity in talent identification: sources of perceived injustice and employee reactions. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-03-2021-0123>
- Petriglieri, J., & Petriglieri, G. (2017). The talent curse. *Harvard Business Review*, 95(3), 88-94.
- Pfeffer, J., & Sutton, R. I. (2006). *Hard facts, dangerous half-truths, and total nonsense: Profiting from evidence-based management*. Harvard Business School Press.

- Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of management*, 12(4), 531-544. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F014920638601200408>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903.
- Preacher, K.J., & Hayes, A.F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(3), 879-891. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BRM.40.3.879>
- Pruis, E. (2011). The five key principles for talent development. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 43(4), 206–216. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00197851111137825>
- Ready, D., Conger, J., Hill, L., & Stecker, E. (2010). The anatomy of a high potential. *Business Strategy Review*, 21(3), 52-55. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8616.2010.00685.x>
- Reich, A.Z. (1993). Applied economics of hospitality production: reducing costs and improving the quality of decisions through economic analysis. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 12(4), 337–352. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319\(93\)90050-J](https://doi.org/10.1016/0278-4319(93)90050-J)
- Reji George, R. (2021). *Social Capital and Talent Management: A Comparative Analysis of Foreign and Domestic Owned Hotel Companies in South Asia* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Plymouth).
- Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: the contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 825-36. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.5.825>.
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived Organizational Support: A Review of the Literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698–714.
- Ringo, T., Schweyer, A., DeMarco, M., Jones, R., & Lesser, E. (2008). Integrated talent management: Part 1. Understanding the opportunities for success. *Human Capital Leadership Excellence Journal*, 1(12), 1-21.
- Robertson, A., & Abbey, G. (2003). *Managing Talented People: Getting on with-and Getting the Best from-Your Top Talent*. Pearson Education.
- Rousseau, D. M. (2008). *Psychological contract inventory: Technical report*. Carnegie Mellon University.
- Rungtusanatham, M., Miller, J. W., & Boyer, K. K. (2014). Theorizing, testing, and concluding for mediation in SCM research: tutorial and procedural recommendations. *Journal of Operations Management*, 32(3), 99-113. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2014.01.002>
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2006). The Measurement of Work Engagement With a Short Questionnaire. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66(4), 701-716. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0013164405282471>

- Scholz, T. M. (2012). Talent management in the video game industry: The role of cultural diversity and cultural intelligence. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 54(6), 845-858. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tie.21507>
- Schuler, R., Jackson, S., & Tarique, I. (2011). Global talent management and global talent challenges: Strategic opportunities for IHRM. *Journal of World Business*, 46(4), 506-516. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2010.10.011>
- Sen, K., & Bhattacharya, A. (2019). Attracting and managing talent, how are the top three hotel companies in India doing it?. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 11(4), 404-417. <https://doi.org/10.1108/whatt-04-2019-0021>
- Seopa, N., Wöcke, A., & Leeds, C. (2015). The impact on the psychological contract of differentiating employees into talent pools. *Career Development International*, 20(7), 717–732. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-03-2015-0033>
- Sheehan, M., Grant, K., & Garavan, T. (2018). Strategic talent management: a macro and micro analysis of current issues in hospitality and tourism. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 10(1), 28-41. <https://doi.org/10.1108/WHATT-10-2017-0062>
- Shulga, L.V., & Busser, J.A. (2019). Talent management meta review: a validity network schema approach. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31(10), 3943-3969. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2018-0876>
- Silzer, R., & Chruh, A. (2010). Identifying and assessing high-potential talent: Current organizational practices. In R. Silzer & B. Dowell (Eds), *Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative* (pp. 213-280). Pfeiffer.
- Silzer, R., & Dowell, B. (2010). Strategic Talent Management matters. In R. Silzer & B. Dowell (Eds), *Strategy-Driven Talent Management: A Leadership Imperative* (pp. 3-72). Pfeiffer.
- Simonton, D. K. (2011). Exceptional talent and genius.
- Singal, M. (2015). How is the hospitality and tourism industry different? An empirical test of some structural characteristics. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 47, 116-119. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2015.03.006>
- Six, F. E. (2007). Building interpersonal trust within organizations: a relational signalling perspective. *Journal of Management and Governance*, 11(3), 285-309. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10997-007-9030-9>
- Smart, B. D. (2005). *Topgrading: How leading companies win by hiring, coaching, and keeping the best people*. Portfolio (Penguin Group).
- Sonnenberg, M., Van Zijderveld, V., & Brinks, M. (2013). The role of talent– perception incongruence in effective talent management. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2), 272–280. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2013.11.011>
- Sparrow, P. (2021). The History of Talent Management. In I. Tarique (Ed), *The Routledge Companion to Talent Management* (1st ed., pp. 539- 555). Routledge.
- Spence, M. (1978). Job market signaling. In *Uncertainty in economics* (pp. 281-306). Academic Press.

- Stahl, B.I., Farndale, E., Morris, S., Paauwe, J., Stiles, P., Trevor, J., & Wright, P.M. (2012). Six global practices for effective talent management. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 53(2), 25-32.
- Stahl, G. K., Björkman, I., Farndale, E., Morris, S. S., Paauwe, J., Stiles, P., & Wright, P. M. (2007). Global talent management: How leading multinationals build and sustain their talent pipeline. INSEAD Faculty and Research *Working Papers. Industrial Management Review Association at the Alfred P. Sloan School of Management, Massachusetts Institute of Technology*, (2007/34).
- Steiger, J. H. (2007). Understanding the limitations of global fit assessment in structural equation modelling. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 42(5), 893-898. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.paid.2006.09.017>
- Stiglitz, J. E. (2002). Information and the change in the paradigm in economics. *American Economic Review*, 92(3), 460-501. <https://doi.org/10.1257/00028280260136363>
- Subramony, M., Segers, J., Chadwick, C., & Shyamsunder, A. (2018). Leadership development practice bundles and organizational performance: The mediating role of human capital and social capital. *Journal of Business Research*, 83, 120-129. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2017.09.044>
- Sumelius, J., Smale, A., & Yamao, S. (2020). Mixed signals: Employee reactions to talent status communication amidst strategic ambiguity. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 31(4), 511–538. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2018.1500388>
- Swales, S. (2013). Troubling some assumptions: A response to “The role of perceived organizational justice in shaping the outcomes of talent management: A research agenda”. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 354–356. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.08.005>
- Swales, S. (2020). Responsible talent management: towards guiding principles. *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 7(2), 221-236. <https://doi.org/10.1108/joepp-04-2020-0068>
- Swales, S., & Blackburn, M. (2016). Employee reactions to talent pool membership. *Employee relations*, 38(1), 112- 128. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-02-2015-0030>
- Tansley, C. (2011). What do we mean by the term “talent” in talent management?. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 43(5), 266-274. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00197851111145853>
- Tansley, C., & Tietze, S. (2013). Rites of passage through talent management progression stages: an identity work perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(9), 1799–1815. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.777542>
- Tansley, C., Turner, P., Foster, C., Harris, L., Stewart, J., Sempik, A., & Williams, H. (2007). Talent: Strategy, management, measurement. CIPD.
- Tarique, I., & Schuler, R. (2010). Global talent management: Literature review, integrative framework, and suggestions for further research. *Journal of World Business*, 45(2), 122-133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.019>

- Thunnissen, M., & Van Arensbergen, P. (2015). A multi-dimensional approach to talent: An empirical analysis of the definition of talent in Dutch academia. *Personnel Review*, 44(2), 182–199. <https://doi.org/10.1108/PR-10-2013-0190>
- Thunnissen, M., Boselie, P., & Fruytier, B. (2013). Talent management and the relevance of context: Towards a pluralistic approach. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 326–336. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmmr.2013.05.004>
- Tymon, W., Stumpf, S., & Doh, J. (2010). Exploring talent management in India: The neglected role of intrinsic rewards. *Journal of World Business*, 45(2), 109-121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.016>
- Tzafrir, S.S., & Dolan, S.L. (2004). Trust Me: A Scale for Measuring Manager- Employee Trust. *Management Research*, 2(2), 115-132. <https://doi.org/10.1108/15365430480000505>
- Ulrich, D. (2007). The talent trifecta. *Workforce Management*, 86(15), 32-34.
- Ulrich, D., & Smallwood, N. (2011). What is talent?. *Leader to Leader*, 2012(63), 55-61. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ltl.20011>
- Vaiman, V., & Collings, D. (2013). Talent management: advancing the field. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(9), 1737-1743. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2013.777544>
- Vaiman, V., Scullion, H., & Collings, D. (2012). Talent management decision making. *Management Decision*, 50(5), 925-941. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00251741211227663>.
- Warren, C. (2006). Curtain call. *People Management*, 12(6), 24–29.
- Weiss, A., & Mackay, N. (2009). *The talent advantage: How to attract and retain the best and the brightest*. John Wiley & Sons, Inc.
- Williams, M. R. (2000). *The war for talent: Getting the best from the best*. CIPD Publishing.
- Yang, Y., & Green, S. B. (2011). Coefficient alpha: A reliability coefficient for the 21st century?. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 29(4), 377-392. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0734282911406668>
- Yost, P. R., & Chang, G. (2009). Everyone is equal, but some are more equal than others. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 2(4), 442–445.
- Zhao, X., Lynch, J.G., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 37(2), 197-206. <https://doi.org/10.1086/651257>

ANNEXURE 1

Code: / / /

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir/ Madam

I would like to invite you to participate in my Ph.D. research survey which attempts to assess **Employees' Attitude Towards Talent Management in Hotel Industry in Delhi**. Kindly answer the given questions that best suits your knowledge and understanding. Please be assured of confidentiality related to the information you provide. The information provided will be used for academic purpose only.

Please tick (√) the appropriate option.

1. Age:

Below 18		18-24		25-31	
32-38		39-45		Above 45	

2. Gender:

Male	Female	Others
------	--------	--------

3. Education:

Secondary		High Secondary		Graduate	
Post Graduate		Ph. D			

4. Department:

Front Office	Housekeeping	F&B
HR	Finances	Sales & Marketing

5. Job Position:

Managerial	Supervisory	Staff
------------	-------------	-------

6. Hotel Name: _____

7. Please indicate your level of agreement about Talent Management process in your hotel.

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Slightly Agree</u>	<u>Slightly Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
My hotel identifies the critical job positions	O	O	O	O	O	O

aligned with business strategies						
My hotel builds up a pool of employees which are considered as talented	O	O	O	O	O	O
My hotel differentiates the identified talent based on its contribution levels	O	O	O	O	O	O
The training activities for the identified talent are focused on the required competencies	O	O	O	O	O	O
The content of the training activities for the identified talent are based on job performance	O	O	O	O	O	O
Training activities for the identified talent are in line with assigned critical tasks	O	O	O	O	O	O
Identified talent have many opportunities for upward mobility	O	O	O	O	O	O
Talents have clear career paths in this hotel	O	O	O	O	O	O
Talents have more than one avenue for promotion	O	O	O	O	O	O
My hotel provides recognition, e.g., financial recognition such as cash, paid travel, incentive bonus/ variable pays, etc.	O	O	O	O	O	O
I believe that my hotel has a fair and just system of rewarding employees	O	O	O	O	O	O
My hotel provides recognition via nonfinancial means, e.g., certificates of recognition	O	O	O	O	O	O

8. Please indicate the level of agreement about your affective, behavioural and cognitive component regarding Talent Management process.

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Slightly Agree</u>	<u>Slightly Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this hotel	0	0	0	0	0	0
I feel like part of the family at my hotel	0	0	0	0	0	0
This hotel has a great deal of personal meaning for me	0	0	0	0	0	0
I find that my opinions are respected at work	0	0	0	0	0	0
All my talents and skills are used at work	0	0	0	0	0	0
I am satisfied with the way my boss handles employees	0	0	0	0	0	0
At my work, I feel bursting with energy	0	0	0	0	0	0
I am enthusiastic about my job	0	0	0	0	0	0
I get immersed when I am working	0	0	0	0	0	0
I expend more effort on the job	0	0	0	0	0	0
I enhance quality of my job performance	0	0	0	0	0	0
I get involved in my job	0	0	0	0	0	0
I believe that my manager generally, tells the truth	0	0	0	0	0	0
I believe that my manager does things to further my interests	0	0	0	0	0	0
I believe that my manager acts as I expect him/her to do	0	0	0	0	0	0
I feel frustrated because of my work	0	0	0	0	0	0
I work under a quite big tension	0	0	0	0	0	0
I feel nervous before the meetings held at the hotel	0	0	0	0	0	0

My job is likely to directly affect my health	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have fulfilled all my commitment to my employer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My employer fulfils its commitments to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My employer lives up to all its promises to me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I would turn down a job with more pay in order to stay with this hotel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I plan to spend my career at this hotel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I intend to stay at this hotel for at least the next 12 months.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I provide constructive suggestions about how my department can improve its effectiveness	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I encourage others to try new and effective ways of doing their job	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I help others who have large amounts of work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I do my best to do what is expected of me	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I really do my best to achieve the objectives of the hotel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I put a lot of energy into the tasks that I commence	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

9. Please indicate your level of agreement about the ethics followed in the process of managing talent(employees) in your hotel.

	<u>Strongly Agree</u>	<u>Agree</u>	<u>Slightly Agree</u>	<u>Slightly Disagree</u>	<u>Disagree</u>	<u>Strongly Disagree</u>
I express my views and feelings during Talent Management practices in my hotel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
The Talent Management practices	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

are free from biasness in my hotel							
The Talent Management practices upholds ethical and moral standards in my hotel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My outcome reflect the effort I have put into my work at this hotel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My outcome is appropriate for the work I have completed in this hotel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My outcome is justified, given my performance in my hotel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hotel strongly considers my goals and values	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
My hotel cares about my opinion	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Help is available from my hotel when I have a problem	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

10. Please share your experience with Talent Management procedures and practices in your hotel (if any)

Thank You

ANNEXURE 2

Semi Structured Interview Schedule

- You have been recruiting people for different positions in this hotel for quite few years now, so what exactly do you look in the resume while placing them?
- How would you define a talent for hotel industry?
- What are those special qualities/ characteristics/ abilities that allows you to distinct between a potential/talented candidate from the rest?
- Does your hotel have any such formal TM practices or strategies?
- If Yes, what are the practices that you follow under managing talent for your hotel?
- Does this special TM practices/ strategies applies to all employees or only a certain group of employees i.e., the pool of talent is taken into consideration?
- If exclusive approach of TM is followed then, how do you recognise/compare talented employees for the recipient of such special practices?
- Does your hotel openly communicate the status of talent to your employees? Why/ Why not?

ANNEXURE 3:

List of Publications and Presentations

Journal Papers:

1. Bhatia, R., & Baruah, P. (2020). Exclusive Talent Management and Its Consequences: A Review of Literature. *Asian Journal of Business Ethics*, 9(2), 193-209. DOI 10.1007/s13520-020-00105-8 (SCOPUS, ABDC & UGC CARE Listed)
2. Bhatia, R., & Baruah, P. (2022). Evaluating the Attitude of Employees from the Practice of Exclusive Talent Management: A Study of Hotel Employees in Delhi. *South Asian Journal of Human Resource Management*, ahead of print (ahead of print) (Web of Science, SCOPUS, ABDC & UGC CARE Listed)

Conference Papers:

1. Presented paper titled “Exclusive Talent Management and Its Consequences: A Review of Literature” at 11th International Conference on Emergence of New Business Practices for Growth, Competitiveness and Innovation organized by Prestige Institute of Management, Gwalior, India on 28th-30th December, 2019.
2. Presented paper titled “National Culture Derives the Intensity of Organizational Injustice under Exclusive Talent Management Strategy: An Integrative Research” at International E- Conference on Advances in Business and Management organized by Shaheed Bhagat Singh College, Department of Commerce, University of Delhi, India on 4th-6th March, 2021.



Exclusive talent management and its consequences: a review of literature

Rajneet Bhatia¹  · Papori Baruah¹

Received: 15 November 2019 / Accepted: 27 June 2020 / Published online: 3 July 2020
© Springer Nature B.V. 2020

Abstract

The aim of this paper is twofold, i.e. first to explore the ethical ambiguity arising out of exclusive approach to talent management practices and second to take into consideration the employees' reaction of such practices. Workforce discrimination or segmentation may be feasible from the point of view of cost-benefit, but it imposes serious implications on the fairness perceived by employees. The paper involves extensive use of existing literature which comprises of journals, books, published reports, articles, etc. from various sources that are critical to the subject of study. The literature is selected based on the availability, language (English), accessibility and relevancy to the topic. The extensive review of literature postulates the violation of the stakeholder theory, equity theory and organisational justice theory in practising exclusive approach of talent management. Ethics and fairness play a major role in influencing the affective, behavioural and cognitive responses of an individual. As a result, talented employees may feel overburdened by the responsibility given to them, and non-talented employees may disassociate themselves from the additional work. Therefore, overall consequence may result to net negative reactions of exclusive talent management practice. Moreover, the role of perceived organisational justice and support cannot be undermined in studying the relationship between exclusive talent management and attitude of employees. This paper is based on certain literature from a limited database. Exhaustive literature review would lead to more concrete perspectives about ethical consideration and subsequently employees' reaction. Analysing the consequences of employee's reaction arising from the exclusive talent management practices will highlight the need for change in the direction towards inclusive approach and implement better practices for the good of all employees. This indeed will outline the efficient mechanism to manage talent.

Keywords Talent management · Exclusive approach · Ethics · Justice · Support · Attitude

✉ Rajneet Bhatia
rajneetbhatia18@gmail.com

Papori Baruah
papori@tezu.ernet.in

¹ Department of Business Administration, Tezpur University, Tezpur, Assam, India

Introduction

In the early 1990s, there was a mismatch between the demand and supply of high calibre managers and competent employees across industries. The shift from industrial to information age and the propensity of people to switch jobs further began to worsen the situation. This led McKinsey & Company in 1997 to coin the term ‘war of talent’ and proclaimed that the critical driver for achieving competitive advantage and outstanding organisational performance is through talent (Michaels, Handfield-Jones & Axelrod, 2001). Soon HR practitioners and academicians realised this growing problem and began to attract, develop and retain talent within the organisations. Firms gradually understood the importance of strategic approach to business planning and started to embed talent mindset in organisational culture (Ashton & Morton, 2005). There was a paradigm shift from traditional human resource management to strategic human resource management to successfully attract, develop and retain talent. Because of this strategic intent, talent management is sometimes also termed as strategic talent management, and subsequently this became a field of study within the HR domain.

The field of talent management (TM) began to capture interest in the early 2000s. The need for managing talent aroused as organisations were exposed to global, complex, dynamic, competitive and volatile business environment conditions (Tarique & Schuler, 2010). With the gaining interest of academicians in the field and dispersal of theoretical knowledge about TM, Thunnissen et al. (2013) embarks that though the field of TM is moving from infancy to adolescence, employees have largely remained out of the research population in building the theories of TM. In order to bring more efficiency in implementing TM practices, employees’ attitude towards TM must be given due recognition. The exclusive approach of TM where the focus is on the selective group of employees is supposed to be very critical for the effectiveness of TM. There is lack of research which takes into account the perception of employees’ regarding the exclusive TM practices (Meyer et al., 2014). Academicians and researchers in the field of TM have mostly focused on three themes, i.e. defining talent and talent management, talent management and organisational performance and practices followed under talent management process (Naulleau, 2015).

The impact of TM practices on employee’s perception of fairness has not been examined (Tansley et al., 2013). O’Connor and Crowley-Henry (2017) state that exclusive approach to talent management disturbs the justice and ethical practices in an organisation. Moreover, ethical and sustainability dimensions of talent management practices are under researched areas (Anlesinya, Dartey-Baah & Amponsah-Tawiah, 2019). This study therefore aims to explore two different objectives, i.e. first it takes into consideration the ethical aspect arising out of workforce differentiation of exclusive talent management practices and second how such practices can influence the reaction or attitude of the employees.

An overview of literature

Talent and talent management

The theoretical underpinning for talent management practices is to clearly define the concept of talent. Defining talent is prerequisite and critical for identifying adequate

talent as well as implementing TM strategies (Zhang & Bright, 2012). Academicians and scholars have defined talent mostly in the characteristics embodied in the individuals. Talent has been defined as the ability to learn and grow along with the intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, experience, intelligence, judgement, attitude, character and drive (Michaels et al., 2001). Talent has also been considered euphemism for people (Lewis & Heckman, 2006). In other words, talent has been elaborated as a complex amalgam of employees' skill, knowledge, cognitive ability and potential (Tansley, et al, 2007). In an organisational setting, only the top 3–5% of employees outperform their peers consistently in different situations and can be called as talent (Ready et al., 2010). Employees are considered talent when they exhibit competence, commitment and contribution to the organisation (Ulrich and Smallwood, 2011). Moreover, Hoglund (2012) considers talent to those employees whose behaviour and qualities are of utmost importance to the organisation in achieving its current and future goals. Valuable and unique human resources are called talents in an organisation (De Vos and Dries, 2013). In some organisations, highly educated and qualified people are perceived as talents (Cooke, Saini & Wang, 2014). Talent possess the expertise and take decisions which help them progress in their career by thinking out of the box and adopting themselves to various circumstances with a customer-driven personality approach which fits the organisational culture (Marinakou & Giousmpasoglou, 2019).

Different academicians and practitioners have defined the concept of talent differently, and there is no consensus regarding the definition. This is because every organisation derives the concept of talent as per their business strategy, type of the firm, overall environment (Iles, Chuai & Preece, 2010) and other factors like socio-culture (Barab and Plucker, 2002). For effective implementation of TM strategies, organisations must have their own meaning of talent, and whom they consider as talent in their organisation must be carefully assessed (Schuler, 2015).

Despite the growing popularity and importance of talent management, the concept remained unclear for a long time. However, with the due course of time, the definition of TM has evolved for more clarity, coherence and rigour. Initially Lewis and Heckman (2006) illustrated three thoughts about TM. First, TM is exactly similar to human resource practices but functions at a faster pace and across the enterprise. Second, TM focuses on the concept of talent pools which is similar to succession planning and HR planning and involves typical HR practices and processes like recruitment and selection. But TM projects the staffing needs and manages the positions. Third, TM focuses on talent generically without taking into account the organisational boundaries or specific positions.

Taking this concept, a step further, Collings and Mellahi (2009) added a new thought and emphasised the notion of identifying critical key positions in the organisations that leads to the competitive advantage for an organisation. According to Collings and Mellahi (2009), TM involves those activities and processes which helps to identify critical key positions that contributes in achieving sustainable competitive advantage and thereby creating a pool of talent with high potential and high-performing employees who can take up these critical key positions in the organisation and finally applying differentiated HR practices to ensure that these key positions are always filled up and generate continued commitment from the employees. This definition is widely accepted across the field of TM, and there is no criticism till date.

The definition of TM must not focus on just one HR process but over a range of activities, and therefore, Silzer and Dowell (2010) define TM as the combination of various processes, programmes and cultural norms in order to attract, develop, deploy and retain talent so that organisation can achieve strategic objectives and meet future business needs. The components that shape talent management forms a process so as to identify, acquire, deploy, develop and manage the employees needed to successfully gain a competitive edge (Oladapo, 2014). In a study, Dhanahakyam and Kokilambal (2014) identified common talent management practices as recruiting and staffing, training and development and retention management. Moreover, Vaiman et al. (2015) describe TM as a process that is designed to attract, develop, mobilise and retain key people. In the words of Gallardo-Gallardo and Thunnissen (2016), TM contributes towards sustainable competitive advantage by systematically attracting, identifying, developing, retaining and deploying high potential and high-performing employees in the key positions.

TM practices follow two different approaches to the management of talent, i.e. inclusive and exclusive. Iles, Chuai & Preece (2010) defines inclusive approach as a practice where all people in an organisation are considered talented and exclusive approach where some people are inherently more talented. Although the organisations which follow inclusive approach promote the view that all employees are talented, they all make a distinction between the employees (Sonnenberg et al. 2013). Designating some as talented in the organisation automatically render others as untalented or inferior in some ways (Painter-Morland, Kirk, Deslandes & Tansley, 2019).

Exclusive talent management and attitude of employees

Exclusive TM focuses on player-position concept which holds that players occupying 'A' position or critical job positions only in the organisation are to be considered talent/star performers/'A' players, whereas good performers in support positions or 'B' positions as 'B' players, whereas nonperforming jobs, 'C' positions and those employees who do not add value to the organisation are called 'C' players (Huselid, Beatty, and Becker, 2005). Exclusive TM essentially involves managing and treating employees differently as per their relative potential to contribute towards organisation's competitive advantage (Gelens et al., 2013). The underlying principle of exclusive TM is workforce differentiation where the focus is on subgroup of employees who possess greatest potential and are high performers (Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries, & González-Cruz, 2013). This approach has a limited scope that extends only to the elite or high performers who at most comprise only 20% of the entire workforce (Mousa & Ayoubi, 2019). Also, considering all employees as talented violates the difference between talent management and human resource management (HRM). Chuai et al. (2008) advocate that TM has selective and detailed focus on certain group of people, whereas HRM refers to the management of all staff in an organisation. Moreover, HRM adopts an egalitarianism culture in an organisation, whereas TM promotes elitism or segmentation of workforce (Swales, 2013). However, Lin (2006) suggests that this segmentation is cost-effective and feasible practice from the point of view of labour economics. But practising exclusive approach may be perceived as unfair (Swales, 2013) and unethical (Guest, 2017) in the eyes of employees. Conflicts may arise by

differentiating employees which can hinder the implementation and effectiveness of exclusive TM (Sumelius, Smale & Yamao, 2019).

Rosenberg and Hovland (1960) conceptualises attitude as a learned predisposition to respond in a consistent evaluative manner towards an object or class of objects. This evaluation can either be negative or positive, i.e. individuals with a moderately pro-attitude will exhibit positive evaluation responses and those with anti-attitude will emit negative evaluation responses (Ostrom, 1969). Evaluative responses can be classified as affective, behavioural and cognitive (ABC) components of attitude (Rosenberg and Hovland, 1960). Affect refers to emotional response and a gut reaction; behaviour implies overt actions and intentions, whereas beliefs, knowledge structures, perceptual responses and thoughts constitute the cognition of an individual (Breckler, 1984). This tripartite model consisting of affective, behavioural and cognitive (ABC) components must be taken into consideration to study employee's reaction or attitude to TM practices (De Boeck et al. 2018).

Exclusive TM with the practice of workforce differentiation is a biased approach as it only emphasises on the positive effects of talented employees and neglects to take into consideration the negative effects of untalented employees (Meyers & Van Woerkman, 2014). Talented employees receiving lot of attention and opportunities to growth will exhibit positive reactions, but those excluded are likely to showcase negative behaviour and attitude towards the organisation. Those considered talented will feel wanted by the organisation and can be retained with the organisation, but those excluded will face demotivation (McDonnell, 2011). Majority of the studies conducted so far have tried to establish the positive reactions of the talented employees arising out of such practices. Negative consequences of TM practices have not been explored for both non-talented employees and talented employees. Therefore, the relationship between talent management practices and the corresponding employee's attitude is referred to as a black box (Gelens et al., 2014).

Studies concerning TM are largely conducted in USA and other developed countries (Thunnissen, Boselie, & Fruytier, 2013), and very few researches have been initiated in developing and non-western countries (e.g. Tymon, Stumpf & Dohc, 2010; Iles, Chuai & Preece, 2010). Therefore, TM can be an emerging concept for many Asian countries. There is a dearth of literature to confirm whether the practice of TM in Western countries implies the same meaning for Asian countries. Bhatnagar (2007) conducted a study among the employees of Indian BPO to find out the role of engagement in talent retention. The findings revealed that the higher the level of engagement, the greater will be the retention rate but only for a shorter period. This is because country like India has huge labour force but limited skilled employees; therefore, such employee-engagement practices cannot be directly applied in Indian organisational context. Practices adopted from western countries have to be customised according to the culture of the country. Through a study of Motorola India-Mobile Devices Business, Srivastava and Bhatnagar (2008) explored the relationship between talent acquisition and employee engagement level where they found that employees feel more passionate about their work and exhibit desired behaviours when there is a fit between recruitment needs and culture of the organisation. Similarly, Zheng (2009) in a study of talent retention in 281 service MNCs across six Asian countries, namely, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Taiwan and Thailand, found that talent management is dependent on country-specific variables (culture and social networks),

and not all formal HR practices lead to talent retention. However, Asian firms heavily rely on informal recruitment methods, and thus, they have better retention rates.

On comparing the different dimensions of Hofstede culture for the Asian countries, Dissanayake et al. (2015) highlighted that employees for most of the Asian countries like Malaysia, Iraq, Philippines, United Arab Emirates, Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, China, Indonesia and India accept the power coming from the superiors without any objections. Moreover, on the grounds of uncertainty avoidance, majority of the employees in countries like Japan, Iraq, South Korea and Israel are not comfortable working with ambiguous situations as compared to Singapore, China, Vietnam and India. Further from the masculinity-femininity dimension, the study further stated that countries like Japan, Iraq, China, India, Philippines and Bangladesh highly regard competition and appreciate achievement and success for those who are best in field and live in order to work rather than work in order to live, whereas countries like Sri Lanka, Indonesia, Nepal, Singapore, South Korea, Taiwan, Vietnam, Thailand, Israel and Iran attach greater importance to social needs, personal relationships, caring for the weak, work-life balance, harmony, nurturing and quality of relationship (William & Zinkin, 2008). However, almost every Asian country refrains from surviving individually and reflects tendency for collectivism (except Israel). Countries like India and Japan show a mix of both individualistic and collectivism culture, whereas countries like Indonesia, Pakistan, Bangladesh, China, Singapore, Vietnam and Thailand are highly collectivist where people are concerned for the group and act in their interests (Dissanayake et al., 2015)

A comparative study about TM practices in China and India conducted by Cooke, Saini and Wang (2014) through the perspectives of 178 non-HR managers revealed that materialistic value is highly regarded in the contemporary employment relationships and both the countries adopt elitist approach in conceptualising talent. This study gives clear indication that exclusive TM is more common in Asian countries like China and India. Moreover, the study also highlighted that China and India are the two favourite research location for the field of talent management, firstly because China and India together make one-third of the world's population and is concentrated with large young and educated workforce and secondly, they are two of the largest economies of the world. Ulrich and Allen (2014) in a study showed the impact of 13 core TM practices on business performance by gathering data from 570 separate businesses in Singapore, China and India and empirically demonstrated that Asian leaders who invest in talent development will increase their organisation's performance.

In building the theoretical model, Collings and Mellahi (2009) proposed that employee motivation, commitment and extra-role behaviour are the key employee outcomes for effective TM. Scholars empirically investigated this conceptual framework but failed to take into account the relationship between talent and non-talent and also avoided taking into consideration the reactions of non-talent to this differentiated system. The impact of TM on financial (company profit, market value) and organisational (productivity, customer satisfaction) outcomes have been analysed (e.g. Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011), but outcomes at individual/employee level has not been evaluated. Although De Boeck et al. (2018) conducted a critical review of studies to analyse employee's reaction to TM, there is a need for more such studies. There is a dearth of research on the implementation of TM and its impact on employee outcomes (Gallardo-Gallardo & Thunnissen, 2019).

A total of 4811 professional level employees were surveyed for a study across 28 Indian firms to evaluate the role of intrinsic rewards in TM on the outcomes such as retention, career success and satisfaction (Tymon, Stumpf & Dohc, 2010). The findings stated that good socially responsible reputation of the organisation increases employees' morale, commitment, excellence in performing work task, job satisfaction and loyalty, contributing to one's pride in the organisation. By experiencing work meaningfulness, choice, progress and competence, an employee feels motivated intrinsically and supports intrinsic rewards.

Through a structured questionnaire, Chami-Malaeb and Garavan (2013) investigated 238 high potential employees from nine Lebanese to determine whether behavioural outcomes such as affective commitment and intention to stay can be controlled by heavy investment in talent and developing their leadership potential. The results highlighted that both talent and leadership development practices were positively related to intention to stay and affective commitment.

In a study conducted by Luna-Arocas and Morley (2015), the relationship between talent mindset competency, job satisfaction and job performance was evaluated for a sample of 198 public and private employees working in the city and province of Valencia, Spain. The model that was developed and tested empirically stated that when a comprehensive system of TM is institutionalised in an organisation and employees are involved in talent mindset competency, job satisfaction is directly affected, whereas job performance is indirectly affected through it.

Considering an employee for inclusion or exclusion from the talent pool will have different effects on their psychological contract. Psychological contract and attitudes such as organisational citizenship behaviour, trust and turnover intention were compared for a total of 195 employees from both within and outside the talent pool from three different organisations (automotive manufacturing, mining and financial services) in South Africa (Seopa et. al., 2015). The findings concluded that employees who are part of talent pool have positive effect on psychological contract and organisational commitment, but the trust and intention to stay with the organisation is not dependent on the fact that an employee in a part of talent pool.

To explore the differences in work-related attitude of those who are the member of talent pool and the excluded employees, Swailes and Blackburn (2016) interviewed 17 employees from chemical processing industry in Northern Europe (ChemCo) and later surveyed them through standard questionnaire. It is very difficult to generalise the findings of the result because of the small sample size. But however, the study reported that the employees who were excluded from the talent pool received lower support from the organisation and stronger feelings of unfairness and had lower expectations of organisation's interest in them, whereas employees who belonged to the talent pool were more positive about their future prospects.

Though the increased use of TM practices is related to higher psychological contract fulfilment, this relationship is negatively affected by incongruent talent perceptions (Sonnenberg et al. 2013). Practitioners avoid communication of talent status to non-talented employees with the fear that this may instigate the excluded employees and they may perceive disappointment, frustration and feel insulted. It is commonly seen that the talent status is not communicated formally or is conveyed in a grapevine communication to the talented employees to avoid negative feeling such as jealousy (Malik & Singh, 2014). By doing so, employers gain commitment from such

employees for a shorter term, but later, the individuals began questioning about their identity and status in the organisation. Since the organisation views talented employees as the perfectionist and achievers of high success, talented employees may be overburdened with the need to accomplish strategic goals. Apart from devoting full energies, talented employees may feel job strain and burnout (Dries & De Gieter, 2014). There are positive effects of TM practices on talented employees, but the negative effects on both talented and non-talented employees should not be overlooked. We therefore propose that.

P1: There is a net negative effect of exclusive TM practices on the attitude of employees in an organisation.

Ethical ambiguity in exclusive talent management

In a systematic review of literatures from 2007 to 2019, Anlesinya, Dartey-Baah and Amponsah-Tawiah (2019) explored the under researched theories and themes in the field of talent management and found just two papers concerning the ethical and sustainability aspect of talent management practices. Down & Swailes (2013) first raised the concern for ethics in talent management practices on the grounds of agency theory. They argued that the notion of selecting minority on the basis of their contribution is a dehumanising act and may lead to lower self-efficacy among the excluded ones. Nishii et al. (2008) stated that certain HR practices have to be implemented that focus on controlling cost and exploiting employees. Certain TM practices seek control for better management of talent, but this in turn leads to biasness against those who are not identified as talented.

Workforce differentiation or segmentation refers to the division of workforce into parts that are treated differently. Ledford and Kochanski (2004) stated that such discrimination is fundamental to talent management. This practice bifurcates the entire workforce into two groups, i.e. one identified as high potential group and other as non-high potentials (Gelens et al., 2013), although workforce differentiation makes sense in exploring the strategic objectives of an organisation but imposes serious implications on the perception of fairness in the minds of employees (Gelens et al., 2013). This practice indeed violates the equity theory, stakeholder theory and organisational justice theory.

Equity theory proposed by Adam Smith conveys that individuals tend to evaluate their relationship with others and the greater the inequality the individual perceives, the more distress the individual feels (Huseman, Hatfield & Miles, 1987). The notion of practising differentiated HR practices may evoke resentment among those employees who are not considered talented. Moreover, social exchange theory implies that the actions are contingent upon the reactions of other, which provide mutual and rewarding transaction and relationships (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). As a result, talented employees may have positive reaction because the organisation implements best practices for them, but the majority of the workforce may perceive distrust and dissatisfaction. As the non-talented employees represent the majority of the workforce, the net result of the workforce discrimination which is followed under exclusive approach to TM may be negative (Gelens et al., 2013).

According to stakeholder theory, leaders must ensure that organisation maintain a cordial relationship with different stakeholders including employees (Maak and Pless,

2006). Leaders must strive to provide organisational justice and workplace equity for sustainability of the firm. The theory of organisational justice highlights the importance of fairness in an organisation. Distributive justice and procedural justice are the important dimensions of organisational justice (Greenberg, 1990). Distributive justice refers to the fairness of the end results achieved, whereas procedural justice refers to fairness of the means used to achieve those ends (Greenberg, 1990). Few studies focus on the influence of organisational justice on employee's attitude.

The concept of workforce differentiation and perceived organisational justice evolved while exploring employees' differential reaction to exclusive TM practices. The conceptual and non-empirical study by Gelens et al. (2013) proposed that talented employees in an organisation perceive higher distributive justice as more resources are invested on them, and thus, they exhibit positive reactions as compared to non-talented employees.

Later in an empirical study, Gelens et al. (2014) aim to establish how perceived distributive and procedural justice affect job satisfaction and work effort when employees are identified as high potential. The findings revealed that higher distributive justice was perceived by high potential employees. Subsequently they put more effort in their work when they perceive the workforce differentiation procedures to be fair and less effort when they perceive them to be unfair. However, the results cannot be generalised because the survey took place within one company with a sample size of just 203 employees.

A conceptual paper by O'Connor and Crowley-Henry (2017) explored the relationship of employees' perceptions of the fairness and employee engagement with organisation's exclusive TM practices. The findings suggest that talented employees will have more favourable perception of distributive justice and will exhibit higher level of engagement as compared to those who are not identified as talented. However, the findings have to be tested empirically through employee survey.

In advancing the theoretical concept, Narayanan, Rajithakumar and Menon (2019) aim to explore the role played by organisational justice in relationship between talent management and employee retention. The study proposed that the different dimensions (distributive, procedural, informational and interpersonal) of organisational justice have a bearing on employee's retention practised under exclusive TM. There is a need to further validate the proposition through empirical studies whether the organisational justice mediates the relationship between exclusive TM and employee retention.

P2: Perceived organisational justice mediates the relationship between exclusive TM practices and employee's attitude.

Relational signalling theory first proposed by Lindenberg follows the twin assumption that human behaviour is goal directed and context dependent (Six, 2007). This means that what employees receive from the organisation is reflected back into the organisation through their actions. Therefore, employees revert signals through their actions and intentions with respect to the support received from the organisation as well as the supervisor. Perceived organisational support refers to the belief that organisation will assist and help employees to effectively carry out job and tackle unwanted situations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Dries et al. (2012) highlighted that when talented employees receive greater organisational support, promotions and organisational commitment, they also experience greater career satisfaction. Moreover, employers/supervisors act as an

agent between organisation and employees. Employees develop a perception that supervisors will value their work and be concerned about their well-being, and hence they expect supervisor support (Eisenberger, et al., 2002).

Perceived supervisor support moderated the perceived investment in employee development and the resultant work performance such as work effort, work quality and organisational citizenship behaviour (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010). In a study conducted by Du Plessis et al. (2015), the causal relationship between management support towards talent management and its impact on the turnover intentions were validated by administering a questionnaire. The results showed that perceived organisational support is significantly related to talent management practices, perceived supervisor support and intention to quit, whereas perceived supervisor support is also significantly related to talent management practices and intention to quit. To determine the relationship between perceived organisational support and the level of affective commitment of the talented employees, Gelens, J., Dries, N., Hofmans, J., and Pepermans, R. (2015) undertook two studies in different 'talent' populations. The findings from both the studies revealed that talented employees perceived higher organisational support, and it mediates the relationship between an employee's status of talent and affective commitment. However, there is a need to investigate how perceived support can affect other attitudes such as psychological contract fulfilment, engagement and identity struggle.

P3: Perceived organisational support and perceived supervisor support mediates the relationship between TM practices and employee's attitude.

Based on the review of literature and propositions put forward, fig. 1 demonstrates the framework to study employee's attitude towards exclusive approach to TM practices.

The workforce discrimination and differentiated HR practices based on the status of talent in an organisation may lead to the formation of negative attitude such as higher absenteeism, turnover, stress, insecurity, psychological breach of contract and lower levels of commitment, satisfaction, engagement, motivation, work effort etc. The manifestation of such attitude may be due the perception of organisational injustice and perception of lower support from organisation as well as supervisor. The violation of business ethics in providing equality and justice to all the employees is a major concern. Therefore, there is a need to validate empirically whether exclusive approach to TM hampers workplace equity and fairness.

Research methodology

For fulfilling the objectives of this study, we made an extensive literature search on google scholar as well as journals pertaining to human resource management and

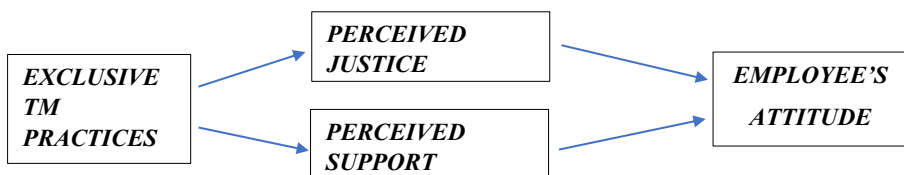


Fig. 1 Framework to study employee's attitude

organisational behaviour. This is because studies related to talent management are scattered across various research journals, and there is no exclusive journal or publication in this subfield of human resource management. Research papers were selected based on the four parameters, i.e. availability, language (English), accessibility and relevancy to the topic. Articles which failed to fulfil these four basic criteria were rejected.

To study the relationship between exclusive TM and attitude of employees, various kinds of research methods have been used. Some of the prominent research methods used are given in Table 1.

To examine the role of perceived justice and support in the relationship between exclusive TM and attitude of employees, research methods adopted by various academicians are presented in Table 2.

Studies concerning employees' attitude towards TM are mostly conceptual and theoretical. Both qualitative and quantitative studies have been conducted, but the number of studies is limited. Before arriving at fallacious conclusions, the implementation of TM and its impact on employee outcomes call for greater empirical investigation (Gallardo-Gallardo & Thunnissen, 2019).

Table 1 Research methods used to study employees' attitude in TM

Research methods	References
Focus group interview discussion	Bhatnagar (2007)
Factor analysis and content analysis	
Interviews	Dries & Pepermans (2008)
Literature review	Collings and Mellahi (2009)
Survey administration	Tymon, Stumpf & Dohc (2010)
Stepwise multiple regression analysis	
Online questionnaire	Hoglund (2012)
Confirmatory factor analysis	
Online questionnaire	Sonnenberg et al. (2013)
Descriptive statistics and correlations	
Questionnaire	Chami-Malaeb & Garavan (2013)
Correlation, regression and mediation analyses	
Online questionnaire	Björkman et al. (2013)
MANCOVA	
Interviews	Tansley & Tietze, 2013
Questionnaire	Barkhuizen et al. (2014)
Correlation analyses	
Interviews	Dries & De Gieter's (2014)
Questionnaire	Luna-Arocas, & Morley (2015)
Structured equation modelling	
Questionnaire	Seopa et al. (2015)
ANOVA and Fisher's exact test	
Interviews and questionnaire	Swales & Blackburn (2016)
Independent samples <i>t</i> tests	
Literature review	De Boeck et al. (2018)

Table 2 Research methods used to study the role of perceived justice and support

Research methods	References
Literature review	Gelens et.al. (2013)
Online questionnaire	Gelens et al. (2014)
Mediation models in a linear regression	
Questionnaire	Du Plessis, Stanz & Schutte (2015)
Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, multiple regression analysis to test for the mediation/moderation	
Online questionnaire	Gelens, Dries, Hofmans, & Pepermans (2015)
Mediation models in a linear regression	
Literature review	O'Connor & Crowley-Henry (2017)
Literature review	Narayanan, Rajithakumar & Menon (2019)

Discussion

Scholars have advocated that very few organisations focus on inclusive approach (Garavan et al., 2012), and therefore, exclusive approach to TM is more common (Thunnissen et al., 2013). In exclusive talent management, the status of talent is inferred on the basis of contribution (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2011) and performance of an employee (Gallardo-Gallardo & Thunnissen, 2016). Depending on their level of contribution, some are designated as talented, while others are considered untalented or inferior in some ways (Painter-Morland, Kirk, Deslandes & Tansley, 2019). Around 10–15% of the total workforce are only considered ‘A’ players or high potentials or high-performing or talented employees (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2011; Swailes, Downs & Orr, 2014; Van Zyl et al., 2017), while majority of the employees remain out of the ambit of TM programmes and policies. Eventually this increases the psychological distance and level of abstraction between the group that is considered talented and the remaining are considered ‘other’ group. As a result, this practice violates the stakeholder theory because it fails to take into consideration the interest of all the employees in the organisation who are considered the major stakeholder.

Organisations cannot fill all the job positions with ‘A’ players because of the limits to finance and other resources. Workforce differentiation makes sense in exploring the strategic capabilities of the organisation, but when TM programmes segment the workforce for differentiated HR practices, the fundamentals of equity, fairness and impartiality are violated. The exclusive TM works on the principle of workforce differentiation which promotes inequality in the organisations (Gelens et al., 2013). ‘A’ players occupying the strategic critical positions (A positions) receive extensive opportunities for development as well as disproportionate levels of financial and managerial investments (Iles, Chunai & Preece, 2010). This results in the creation of second-class citizens in the organisation who are debarred from the range of developmental activities which otherwise is readily available to the elite class (Lacey and Groves, 2014). As a result, employees perceive injustice and disappointment when they receive little or no attention towards their well-being and career advancement (Anlesinya & Amponsah-Tawiah, 2020). Also, Gelens et al. (2013) conferred that

unequal resource allocation and talent status hamper the equity sensitivity of the employees in an organisation. This implies that firms following exclusive TM avoid their responsibilities in providing equality to all its employees which is in contradiction to the theory of equity.

Employees are denied access to equal opportunities of learning, growth and development under exclusive TM. This form of partiality gives rise to the formation of negative attitude for most of the employees. The manifestation of negative attitude among most of the employees is due to the perception of organisational injustice in implementing TM strategies. When employees feel the unjust treatment of differentiated TM procedures and practices, they tend to remain absent or chose to leave the organisation (Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Kehoe & Wright, 2013). It might be possible that the organisation practising TM with the objective of retaining employees and reducing absenteeism may still not benefit because of the negative consequences of exclusive approach to TM. There can be persistent rise in turnover rates from most of the talent. They may no longer remain committed (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Bethke-Langenegger, Mahler & Staffebach, 2011, Kehoe & Wright, 2013), satisfied (Bethke-Langenegger, Mahler & Staffebach, 2011) or motivated (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Bethke-Langenegger, Mahler & Staffebach, 2011) with the organisation in a long run. They also show lower levels of engagement (Hughes & Rog, 2008; O'Connor & Crowley-Henry, 2019) and work effort (Kuvaas & Dysvik, 2010; Gelens, Hofmans, Dries & Pepermans, 2014). Moreover, they also perceive psychological breach of contract (Sonnenberg et al. 2013; Khoreva, Vaiman & Zalk, 2017; Mensah, 2019). Though there might be some positive reactions for those identified as talent, at the same time, they too may feel the constant pressure of being excellent achievers of high success. They may experience stress and burnout resulting from the status of talent (Van De Voorde & Beijer, 2015). This elitist practice of TM might hamper the affective, behaviour and cognition of employees in the workplace. Consequently, the efficiency and performance of the organisation may shift below the line.

The consequences arising from the practice of exclusive approach to TM have to be validated for the Asian countries. This is because employee's perception of justice and equity will depend of the national culture and TM strategy (Agarwal, 2016). The existence of power distance for most of the Asian countries allows employees to believe and acceptance that power is divided unequally (Dissanayake et al., 2015). This may not lead to dissatisfaction within the employees under exclusive TM strategy. Moreover, in masculine culture, there is a high preference for performance and recognition (Hofstede et al. 2010), and thus, exclusive approach to TM may not be perceived as injustice to the employees as compared to the feminine culture. Individuals in these countries may be tolerant towards disproportionate allocation of resources and investment towards the talented category of employees. Also, collectivism is a widely observed phenomenon for most of the Asian countries. Employees in collectivism culture prefer to work in groups and maintain harmony and loyalty (Hofstede, 2011). By differentiating employees on the basis of talent, organisation may disturb harmony within the employees and evoke resentment in collectivism culture. Moreover, countries where employees avoid taking risk, ambiguities and uncertainty will face higher levels of injustice. Therefore, the consequences of exclusive TM may not be same for all the countries, and this calls for greater empirical and comparative research.

Contributions and future research directions

By exploring the ethical aspect of exclusive TM, this study adds to the existing literature by channelising thinking towards the issue of business ethics, justice and TM practices. The study suggests new insights into the field of TM which can be further enhanced by developing the propositions. Moreover, from the context of Asian countries, the concept of ethics in exclusive approach of TM is an under researched topic. Although firms in China and India heavily rely on exclusive TM practices, research on the same is very limited. Moreover, the research on the consequences arising from the practice of exclusive approach also remain very limited. This provides immense scope and opportunity for further research to take place in Asian countries.

This research paper is certainly based on the review of literature from limited database, and the lack of exhaustive review of literature may ignore some of the other concerns of exclusive approach of TM. There is little knowledge about the positive and negative consequences of exclusive TM on employee's attitude and behaviour. Research lack in examining the positive as well as negative impact of such discrimination on employees. The future research must focus on exploring the black box linking talent management practices to employee's attitude. As a result, there is a need for further conceptual validation that would lead to more concrete perspectives about ethical consideration and subsequently employee's reaction to it. Moreover, future empirical studies are also required to test the propositions put forward. This is because studies concerning employees' attitude towards TM are mostly conceptual and theoretical. To avoid arriving at fallacious conclusions, the implementation of TM and its impact on employee outcomes call for greater empirical investigation (Gallardo-Gallardo & Thunnissen, 2019). Although qualitative and quantitative studies have been conducted, the number of studies is limited. For the first proposition put forward, mix of both qualitative and quantitative research approach is highly recommended. Interviews, focussed group discussions, case studies and surveys can be conducted. However, to explore the mediating role of perceived justice and support in the relationship between exclusive TM and employee's attitude, quantitative measures of analysis such as moderation/mediation analysis and hierarchical regression analysis will be quite appropriate. For measuring variables such as perceived justice, perceived support and various components of attitude, there exists standardised scale, and collection of data through questionnaire will be suitable.

References

- Agarwal, P. (2016). Fitting talent management strategy into national culture. *Indian Institute of Management*, 2(4), 1–11.
- Anlesinya, A., & Amponsah-Tawiah, K. (2020). Towards a responsible talent management model. *European Journal of Training and Development*, ahead-of-print(ahead-of-print). doi: <https://doi.org/10.1108/ejtd-07-2019-0114>.
- Anlesinya, A., Dartey-Baah, K., & Amponsah-Tawiah, K. (2019). Strategic talent management scholarship: A review of current foci and future directions. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 51(5), 299–314.
- Ashton, C., & Morton, L. (2005). Managing talent for competitive advantage: Taking a systemic approach to talent management. *Strategic HR Review*, 4(5), 28–31.
- Barab, S. A., & Plucker, J. A. (2002). Smart people or smart context? Cognition, ability and talent development in an age of situated approached to knowing and learning. *Educational Psychologist*, 37(3), 165–182.

- Barkhuizen, N., Mogwere, P., & Schutte, N. (2014). Talent management, work engagement and service quality orientation of support staff in a higher education institution. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5, 69.
- Bethke-Langenegger, P., Mahler, P., & Staffélbach, B. (2011). Effectiveness of talent management strategies. *European Journal of International Management*, 5, 524–539.
- Breckler, S. T. (1984). Empirical validation of affect, behavior, and cognition as distinct components of attitude. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 47(6), 1191–1205.
- Chami-Malaeb, R., & Garavan, T. (2013). Talent and leadership development practices as drivers of intention to stay in Lebanese organisations: The mediating role of affective commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24, 4046–4062.
- Chuai, X., Preece, D., & Iles, P. (2008). Is talent management just “old wine in new bottles”? *Management Research News*, 31(12), 901–911. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01409170810920611>.
- Collings, D., & Mellahi, K. (2009). Strategic talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 19(4), 304–313. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2009.04.001>.
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31(6), 874–900. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602>.
- De Boeck, G., Meyers, M. C., & Dries, N. (2018). Employee reactions to talent management: Assumptions versus evidence. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour*, 39, 199–213.
- Dissanayake, D. M. S. B., Niroshane, W. W. A. E., Nisansala, M. H., Rangani, M. L. D., Samarathunga, S. E. I., Wickramaarachchi, D. N., Nirasha, K., Wickramasinghe, D. N., & Wickramasinghe, W. W. M. E. G. P. M. B. (2015). Cultural comparison in Asian countries: An application of great Hofstede’s cultural dimensions. In *Proceedings of the 2nd undergraduate symposium on contemporary management and theory* (pp. 211–224). Department of Commerce and Financial Management: Faculty of Commerce and Management, University of Kelaniya.
- Dries, N. (2013). The psychology of talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 272–285. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.05.001>.
- Dries, N., & De Gieter, S. (2014). Information asymmetry in high potential programs. *Personnel Review*, 43, 7–7.
- Dries, N., Van Acker, F., & Verbruggen, M. (2012). How ‘boundaryless’ are the careers of high potentials, key experts and average performers? *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 81, 271–279.
- Du Plessis, L., Barkhuizen, N., Stanz, K., & Schutte, N. (2015). The management side of talent: Causal implications for the retention of generation Y employees. *The Journal of Applied Business Research*, 31(5), 1767–1780.
- Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 565–573. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.565>.
- Gallardo-Gallardo, E., & Thunnissen, M. (2019). Talent management: Disentangling key ideas. In a. Wilkinson, N. Bacon, S. Snell & D. Lepak, the SAGE handbook of human resource management (2nd ed.). SAGE.
- Gallardo-Gallardo, E., Dries, N., & González-Cruz, T. (2013). What is the meaning of ‘talent’ in the world of work? *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(4), 290–300. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2013.05.002>.
- Gelens, J., Dries, N., Hofmans, J., & Pepermans, R. (2013). The role of perceived organizational justice in shaping the outcomes of talent management: A research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23, 341–353.
- Gelens, J., Hofmans, J., Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2014). Talent management and organisational justice: Employee reactions to high potential identification. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 24(2), 159–175. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1748-8583.12029>.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, 16, 606–613.
- Guest, D. E. (2017). Human resource management and employee well-being: Towards a new analytic framework. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 27(1), 22–38.
- Hofstede, G. (2011). Dimensionalizing cultures: The Hofstede model in context. *Online Readings In Psychology And Culture*, 2(1), 1–26.
- Hofstede, G., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind, revised and expanded (3rd ed)*. New York: McGraw Hill.
- Huselid, M. A., Beatty, R. W., & Becker, B. E. (2005). “A Players” Or “A Positions”? The Strategic Logic Of Workforce Management”. Harvard Business Review. <https://hbr.org/2005/12/a-players-or-a-positions-the-strategic-logic-of-workforce-management>.

- Huseman, R. C., Hatfield, J. D., & Miles, E. W. (1987). A new perspective on equity theory: The equity sensitivity construct. *Academy of Management Review*, *12*, 222–234.
- Iles, P., Chuai, X., & Preece, D. (2010). Talent management and HRM in multinational companies in Beijing: Definitions, differences and drivers. *Journal of World Business*, *45*(2), 179–189. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.014>.
- Kuvaas, B., & Dysvik, A. (2010). Exploring alternative relationships between perceived investment in employee development, perceived supervisor support and employee outcomes. *Human Resource Management Journal*, *20*(2), 138–156.
- Lacey, M. Y., & Groves, K. (2014). Talent management collides with corporate social responsibility: Creation of inadvertent hypocrisy. *Journal of Management Development*, *33*(4), 399–409.
- Ledford, G., & Kochanski, J. (2004). Allocating training and development resources based on contribution. In L. Berger & D. Berger (Eds.), *The talent management handbook: Creating organizational excellence by identifying* (pp. 218–229). McGraw-Hill, New York, NY: Developing and Promoting Your Best People.
- Lewis, R., & Heckman, R. (2006). Talent management: A critical review. *Human Resource Management Review*, *16*(2), 139–154. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2006.03.001>.
- Lin, W. Z. (2006). The new key word ‘talent management’ in retaining the top employees. *Human Capital Magazine*.
- Luna-Arocas, R., & Morley, M. J. (2015). Talent management, talent mindset competency and job performance: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *European Journal of International Management*, *9*, 28–51.
- Maak, T., & Pless, N. M. (2006). Responsible leadership in a stakeholder society – A relational perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *66*, 99–115.
- Malik, A. R., & Singh, P. (2014). ‘High potential’ programs: Let’s hear it for ‘B’ players. *Human Resource Management Review*, *24*, 330–346.
- McDonnell, A. (2011). Still fighting the “war for talent”? Bridging the science versus practice gap. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, *26*(2), 169–173.
- Mensah, J. K. (2019). Talent management and employee outcomes: A psychological contract Fulfilment perspective. *Public Organization Review*, *19*, 325–344. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11115-018-0407-9>.
- Meyers, M., & Van Woerkom, M. (2014). The influence of underlying philosophies on talent management: Theory, implications for practice, and research agenda. *Journal of World Business*, *49*(2), 192–203. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2013.11.003>.
- Michaels, E., Handfield-Jones, H., & Axelrod, B. (2001). *The war for talent*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Mousa, M., & Ayoubi, R. (2019). Talent management practices: Perceptions of academics in Egyptian public business schools. *Journal of management development, ahead-of-print (ahead-of-print)*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/jmd-01-2019-0030>.
- Narayanan, A., Rajithakumar, S., & Menon, M. (2019). Talent management and employee retention: An integrative research framework. *Human Resource Development Review*, *18*(2), 228–247.
- Naulleau, M. (2015). Conditions for developing a successful talent management strategy. 4th Workshop on Talent Management, Valencia, Spain. <hal-01221228>.
- Nishii, L. H., Lepak, D. P., & Schneider, B. (2008). Employee attributions of the “why” of HR practices: Their effects on employee attitudes and behaviours, and customer satisfaction. *Personnel Psychology*, *61*, 503–545.
- O’Connor, E., & Crowley-Henry, M. (2017). Exploring the relationship between exclusive talent management, perceived organizational justice and employee engagement: Bridging the literature. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *156*(4), 903–917. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-017-3543-1>.
- Ostrom, T. M. (1969). The relationship between the affective, behavioral and cognitive components of attitude. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *5*, 12–30.
- Painter-Morland, M., Kirk, S., Deslandes, G., & Tansley, C. (2019). Talent management: The good, the bad, and the possible. *European Management Review*, *16*(1), 135–146. <https://doi.org/10.1111/emre.12171>.
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(4), 698–714.
- Rosenberg, M. J., & Hovland, C. I. (1960). Cognitive, affective, and behavioral components of attitude. In M. J. Rosenberg, C. I. Hovland, W. J. McGuire, R. P. Abelson, & J. W. Brehm (Eds.), *Attitude organization and change: An analysis of consistency among attitude components* (pp. 1–14). CTi Yale University Press: New Haven.
- Six, F. E. (2007). Building interpersonal trust within organizations: A relational signalling perspective. *Journal of Management and Governance*, *11*(3), 285–309.
- Sonnenberg, M., van Zijderveld, V., & Brinks, M. (2013). The role of talent– Perception incongruence in effective talent management. *Journal of World Business*, *49*, 272–280.

- Sumelius, J., Smale, A., & Yamao, S. (2019). Mixed signals: Employee reactions to talent status communication amidst strategic ambiguity *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 1–28. doi: <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2018.1500388>.
- Swales, S., Downs, Y., & Orr, K. (2014). Conceptualising inclusive talent management: Potential, possibilities and practicalities. *Human Resource Development International*, 1–16.
- Tansley, C., & Tietze, S. (2013). Rites of passage through talent management progression stages: An identity work perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(9), 1799–1815.
- Tarique, I., & Schuler, R. (2010). Global talent management: Literature review, integrative framework, and suggestions for further research. *Journal of World Business*, 45(2), 122–133. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2009.09.019>.
- Thunnissen, M., Boselie, P., & Fruytier, B. (2013). Talent management and the relevance of context: Towards a pluralistic approach. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23, 326–336.
- Vaiman, V., Haslberger, A., & Vance, C. (2015). Recognizing the important role of self-initiated expatriates in effective global talent management. *Human Resource Management Review*, 25(3), 280–286.
- Williams, G., & Zinkin, J. (2008). The effect of culture on consumers' willingness to punish irresponsible corporate behaviour: Applying Hofstede's typology to the punishment aspect of corporate social responsibility. *Business Ethics: A European Review*, 17(2), 210–226.
- Zhang, S., & Bright, D. (2012). Talent definition and talent management recognition in Chinese private-owned enterprises. *Journal of Chinese Entrepreneurship*, 4(2), 143–163. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17561391211242753>.
- Zheng, C. (2009). Keeping talents for advancing service firms in Asia. *Journal of Service Management*, 20(5), 482–502.

Publisher's note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Evaluating the Attitude of Employees from the Practice of Exclusive Talent Management: A Study of Hotel Employees in Delhi

South Asian Journal of Human Resources Management
1–29

© The Author(s) 2022
Reprints and permissions:
in.sagepub.com/journals-permissions-india
DOI: 10.1177/23220937221118189
journals.sagepub.com/home/hrm



Rajneet Bhatia¹  and Papor Baruah²

Abstract

Understanding employees' attitude towards the practice of exclusive talent management (ETM) has become increasingly important for ethical concerns. Despite its significant importance, this study is one of its kind, which first aims to examine the positive and negative attitude arising from the practice of ETM and also checks for the difference between the talented and non-talented employees. Based on social exchange and signalling theories, past studies have conceptually proposed that there may exist a difference in talented and non-talented employees because of their perception of justice and support, as this practice follows workforce discrimination in the organisation. Second, this article also aims to analyse how perceived justice and perceived support affect the attitude of employees towards ETM practices. Data was collected through the questionnaire method by applying convenience sampling technique, and responses of 735 employees were collected across 15 luxury hotels in New Delhi. Structural equation modelling and mediation analysis were conducted in AMOS to test various relationships. The findings suggest that ETM practices significantly affect both positive and negative attitude of employees. Also, talented employees perceive higher levels of positive attitude than non-talented employees, whereas no significant difference was found in their perception of negative attitude. Further, it was proposed that the differences in the attitude of the employees are because of their perception of justice and support towards ETM practices. It was found that perceived justice mediates the relationship of ETM with both positive and negative attitudes, but perceived support only mediates the relationship of ETM practices and the negative attitude.

¹ Research Scholar, Department of Business Administration, Tezpur University, Napaam, Assam, India

² Professor, Department of Business Administration, Tezpur University, Napaam, Assam, India

Corresponding author:

Rajneet Bhatia, Research Scholar, Department of Business Administration, Tezpur University, Napaam, Assam 784028, India.

E-mail: rajneetbhatia18@gmail.com; rajneet@tezu.ernet.in

Keywords

Exclusive talent management, negative attitude, perceive justice, perceive support, positive attitude

Introduction

Talent management (TM) allows organisations to identify high-performing and high-potential employees and retain them in the firm to ensure long-term strategic success. Identifying and retaining talented employees makes organisations follow the practice of workforce discrimination, which is considered fundamental to TM (Ledford & Kochanski, 2004). Workforce discrimination suggests that organisations should identify employees with significant contribution and invest disproportionately in them in order to generate maximum returns. The exclusive approach of TM also practises workforce discrimination and segmentation, wherein firms, first, identify the critical job positions in the organisations and, second, identify high-performing and high-potential candidates and finally later adopt discriminated HR practices to generate their long-term commitment (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Firms follow the Pareto principle, wherein they invest 80 per cent of their resources in just 20 per cent of the individuals to whom they regard as talent. Talents are considered a source of competitive advantage which eventually promotes firms' performance; therefore, a huge investment in developing and retaining them is justified from the organisational point of view.

Disproportionate investment in talented employees induces them to perform better and attain positive employee outcomes such as motivation, satisfaction, engagement, psychological contract fulfilment and self-esteem. However, this is an assumption which is being made that talented employee always react favourably to TM practices (Gelens et al., 2013; Malik & Singh, 2014) and organisations can only expect positive employee outcomes from them. It is argued that too much expectations and high-performing pressure may lead to stress and burnout among the talented employees (De Boeck et al., 2018). However, this is just a belief, and it is not clear whether talented employees showcase only positive attitude and no negative outcomes in the organisation. Further, it is also proposed that the practice of workforce discrimination under the exclusive talent management (ETM) will lead to dissatisfaction, stress, insecurity and so on even among the non-talented employees. Till date, there is no empirical study which says with certainty that the practice of ETM tends to generate negative reactions from the non-talented employees (De Boeck et al., 2018; Swailes, 2013). The way talented and non-talented employees perceive the practice of workforce discrimination under the exclusive approach of TM is not determined, and there is little knowledge about their reaction towards it (O'Connor & Crowley-Henry, 2017).

Second, it is also assumed that the ETM practices have larger consequences on employees' perception of fairness as against the inclusive strategy of TM which pays more attention to justice and ethics by treating all employees equally. However, it has been stated that those organisations which follow the inclusive

approach of TM also create a difference in their HR processes for high-potential employees but refrain from communicating the talent status to the employees with the fear of giving rise to the perception of negative reactions (Sonnenberg et al., 2013). This basic assumption which states that ETM creates a difference in the attitude of talent and non-talent from the perception of their ethical consideration and the support received from the organisation still continues to exist. It becomes even more important to verify that whether the differences in the attitude and behaviour of employees are because of their perception of justice and extent of organisational support received. Not many studies have been conducted to examine the effects of TM, and moreover, research on employees' perception of justice towards ETM is also scarce (De Boeck et al., 2018). Hence, studies assessing the effect of ETM practices on employees' attitude are an important avenue of research.

Moreover, the studies of TM in tourism and hospitality industries are mostly conceptual and lack empirical evidences (Johnson et al., 2019). Hospitality and tourism industries are extensively human centric, which are dependent on their employees for providing quality services, ensuring customer satisfaction and enhancing organisational performance. The hotel industry not only in India but across the globe deals with the attraction problem of manpower, along with the difficulty in retaining employees (Bharwani & Butt, 2012). To deal with the problems of talents and their management, large and multinational hotel organisations usually follow the practice of the ETM strategy, where the focus is only on high-performing executive and managerial employees (Baum, 2008; CIPD, 2006). But it is still unknown that how talented and non-talented employees perceive and differ in their attitude towards this ETM.

Although research in TM is progressing, it still demands for empirical evidences for the assumptions and theories which have been put forward (Gallardo-Gallardo & Thunnissen, 2019). Further, most of the outcomes of the TM practices were studied only once, which did not lead towards rigorous conclusion and generalisation (Aljbour, 2021), and moreover, researchers while assessing the positive variables have not taken into consideration all the components of attitude (i.e., affective, behaviour and cognition) together. Academicians suggest the need for investigating multiple TM outcomes simultaneously (Aljbour, 2021). Therefore, this article proposes a model which aims to investigate the relationship between ETM practices and attitude of hotel employees in New Delhi by relying on social exchange theory, organisational justice (OJ) theory and signalling theory.

Literature Review

ETM and Its Relationship with Attitude of Employees

The exclusive approach of TM views those employees as talents who can create a significant impact in the organisational performance either through their immediate contribution or by proving themselves to be a potential source in the

long run (Tansley & Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2007). Employees who are neither high-performing nor high-potential are considered as non-talented or inferior (Painter-Morland et al., 2019). Organisations segment employees in different groups on the basis of their performance and follow differentiated HR techniques under the exclusive approach of TM. Practitioners widely use the exclusive approach of TM because of its advantages (Ready et al., 2010). First, segmenting the workforce allows firms to invest most of their resources on the talented employees, who in return guarantee maximum benefits to the organisation. This is also known as the Matthew effect of generating high returns by investing on the most promising employees. Second, disproportionate allocation of resources actually helps firms to enjoy a sustainable competitive advantage and faster strategic success. Third, it gives rise to the Pygmalion effect, where high expectations of the managers actually induce talented employees to perform better and achieve positive or favourable outcomes such as motivation and self-esteem. Similar beliefs and expectations even in non-talented employees can give rise to self-fulfilling prophecies and lead to high performances. Lastly, the privileges given to talented employees act as motivation to the non-talented or average performers to either perform better or leave the organisation, and in both the situations, it benefits the organisation to build a high-performing culture. Employees are motivated to not only perform better than others but also develop skills that the organisation values (Höglund, 2012).

TM practices allow organisations to fulfil their financial goals and also generate desired employee outcomes or attitude. Organisations can influence the level of motivation, commitment and extra-role behaviour of the employees by undertaking effective TM practices (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). Talent development and talent retention practices have a positive impact on various outcomes such as job satisfaction, motivation, commitment and trust (Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011). It is also true that attraction and retention of talent actually induce organisations to foster a culture of high performance, which ultimately leads to positive outcomes such as job satisfaction, commitment and motivation (Kontoghiorghes, 2016). Organisations, by building a culture of talent mindset, can indirectly affect the job performance and can directly bring a positive effect on the satisfaction level of the employees (Luna-Arocas & Morley, 2015).

TM practices not only generate positive affective attitude for the employees but also bring positive implications on their behavioural and cognitive aspects. Investment in talents and their leadership development leads towards higher level of affective commitment along with the greater intention to remain with the firms (Chami-Malaeb & Garavan, 2013). The practice of TM not only has a positive bearing on just one aspect of behavioural attitude but also positively affects the organisational citizenship behaviour of talented employees (Mensah & Bawole, 2018). A large number of TM practices targeted to talented employees with differentiation strategies also have statistically proven to positively impact the psychological contract fulfilment in the organisations (Sonnenberg et al., 2013). Inclusion or exclusion of an employee in the TM practices not only affects psychological contract but also positively affects the levels of organisational commitment for employees (Seopa et al., 2015).

Organisations are able to generate positive attitude of talented employees as they invest more resources in them. Providing sufficient resources as per the demand of the job results in favourable attitude of talented employees (Malik & Singh, 2020). In other words, talented employees showcase positive attitude in the organisation when they see more job resources at their dispersal. Talented employees also want differentiated HR practices to continue in order to acknowledge their significant contributions in the organisation. The display of these workplace behaviour and employment relationships in an organisation is guided by the theory of social exchange. This theory suggests that employees enter into an interdependent relationship with the employers where both commit to follow the norms of reciprocity and action of one party leads to the reaction of other (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). In the practice of the exclusive approach of TM, firms disproportionately invest their resources towards high-potential and high-performing employees and consequently these talented employees also reciprocate the corporate investment done in them by showcasing positive outcomes (Björkman et al., 2013; De Boeck et al., 2018; Khoreva et al., 2017).

Employees identified as talent tend to generate positive outcomes which are considered favourable by the organisation. However, talented employees may also perceive unfavourable or negative attitude such as stress and burnout in the organisation under three different instances. First, expecting talented employees to outperform in every task may arise a feeling of persistent pressure among them to achieve higher excellence (Dries & Pepermans, 2008; Tansley & Tietze, 2013). Higher expectations can actually develop a fear of failure within them and may result in job stress (Höglund, 2012). Second, poor performance of talented employees may force the organisation to remove the status of talent from them, and this may lead to further loss of opportunities, privileges and resources. Such 'loss spiral' can negatively affect the talented employees, rising stress and burnout (Malik & Singh, 2018). Third, it has been argued that after a certain period of time, talented employees reach a saturation level, where the elitist or preferential treatment fails to motivate them (Malik & Singh, 2018). There may also arise a situation where talented employees feel that they deserve more, but this desire of 'gain spiral' may become unfeasible because of limitations of financial resources (Dries & De Gieter, 2014; Gelens et al., 2015).

In either of these situations, talented employees will be frustrated and will develop negative attitude like stress. This phenomenon has been termed as 'talent paradox' by Daubner-Siva et al. (2018) and 'talent curse' by Petriglieri and Petriglieri (2017) because identification of talent may lead to both positive and negative outcomes. In a systematic review of literature by De Boeck et al. (2018), it was found that talented employees perceive positive affective, behavioural and cognitive reactions towards the practice of ETM, along with unfavourable affective reaction such as burnout and stress. Apart from talents, the non-talented employees may also experience disappointment and frustration and therefore display unfavourable attitude in the organisation (Malik & Singh, 2014, 2018; Swailes & Blackburn, 2016). This is because as ETM practices work on the underlying principle of workforce discrimination, these non-talented employees

may perceive injustice from the preferential treatment and unequal distribution of resources (Gelens et al., 2013, 2014).

The process of linking TM practices to employees' attitude still remains a black box (Gelens et al., 2014). Most of the studies conducted to examine the employee-level outcomes from the practice of TM are conceptual studies involving review of literature from the secondary sources. Very few researchers have adopted empirical studies focusing on the employee-level outcomes from the practice of TM perspective (Björkman et al., 2013; De Boeck et al., 2018 Dries & Pepermans, 2008). Those empirical studies which have been conducted so far have adopted the interview method, which involves very few participants and therefore suffers from the problem of generalisation. Also, there are very few studies which take into consideration the potential negative reactions of the employees which may arise from the practice of ETM (De Boeck et al., 2018; Krebs & Wehner, 2021). Therefore, this study aims to explore both positive and negative attitude of employees by hypothesising that

*H*₁: ETM practices will result in (a) positive and (b) negative attitude of employees.

In contrary to the Pygmalion effect within the talented employees, the Golem effect leads to adverse consequences with regard to motivation and performance of the non-talented employees. This is because majority of the employees perceive lower expectations from their managers and receive lesser amount of financial investment for their growth and development because of their insignificant contribution in the organisation. As a result, non-talented employees in the organisation tend to differ in their attitude from the talented employees. Differential treatment undertaken in an organisation on the basis of the talent status leads to the differences in the perception of employees towards the practice of ETM, and this affects the motivational level of employees differently working in various MNCs (Höglund, 2012). Identifying talent also provides support for better performance, higher commitment, greater support for strategic priorities and lower turnover intention of talented employees than other employees in the organisation (Björkman et al., 2013). Even organisational identification of potential status enables high-potential employees to perceive positive psychological contract as compared to non-high-potentials (Dries et al., 2014). A study comparing the difference between employees ($n = 203$) on the status of talent found that job satisfaction and work effort from the practice of TM are more for high-potentials than non-talents (Gelens et al., 2014). The practice of ETM also allows talented employees in an organisation to display higher levels of engagement than non-talented employees (O'Connor & Crowley-Henry, 2017).

A study conducted for 521 talented employees holding managerial and non-managerial positions at various levels in 54 five-star hotels in 6 cities in Saudi Arabia for hotel industry found significant support for the positive impact of TM on various outcomes such as organisational commitment, talent retention and talent engagement (Alferaih et al., 2018). Although non-talented employees have not largely been taken into consideration in TM research, a study by Kichuk et al. (2019) explores the experiences and behaviour of those employees who are not the part of the talent pool by interviewing 15 employees and managers in a small

hotel chain of England. TM strategies were the key priorities of this hotel chain, where they followed workforce segmentation and found out that the non-talented employees experienced frustration and mistrust in the hotel. Further, they also had least expectations of career development and possessed higher intention to quit the hotel.

Research examining employee outcomes from TM is an underexplored topic (Björkman et al., 2013; De Boeck et al., 2018; Dries & Pepermans, 2008; Meyers et al., 2019; Meyers & Van Woerkom 2014). Studies focusing on the employee outcomes have not paid attention to differentiate between employees, that is, talent and non-talent, to assess the effectiveness of TM (De Boeck et al., 2018; Krebs & Wehner, 2021). Therefore, we propose that there exists a difference between talented and non-talented employees with respect to both positive and negative attitude and hypothesise that

H_2 : There is a difference between talented and non-talented employees with respect to their (a) positive attitude and (b) negative attitude.

Employees' Attitude and Role of Perceived Justice

The difference in the attitude of talented and non-talented employees is significantly attributed to the OJ theory (Gelens et al., 2014). The OJ theory which evolves from the Adams' equity theory states that individuals compare their relationship with others in the organisation and any deviation from the equal treatment between them and other(s) could potentially lead to negative outcomes (Greenberg, 1990). Since workforce differentiation and segmentation is the core of ETM practices, the OJ theory explains how TM practices can differently affect the attitude and behaviour of talented and non-talented in an organisation. High-potential and non-high-potential employees will also perceive such differentiation differently and react differently (Gelens et al., 2014). High-performing and high-potential employees who are included in the TM practices of an organisation will view the distribution and procedures of ETM practices to be fair and consequently show positive behaviour and attitude towards work. However, employees who fail to become a part of such exclusive practices will develop a perception of organisational injustice and hence showcase negative attitude in the organisation.

The concepts of workforce differentiation and perceived OJ have been combined together to comprehend the difference in the attitude of employees towards the ETM practices. A study envisaged that as the firm spends large amount of its limited resources in the growth and development of the talented employees, these employees sense higher distributive justice and therefore display greater positive reactions than others in the organisation (Gelens et al., 2013). To provide empirical support, a survey with 203 respondents from an organisation was conducted to explore the perception of distributive and procedural justice of those identified as high-potential and to determine its impact on job satisfaction and work effort (Gelens et al., 2014). This study revealed that both job satisfaction and work effort were significantly higher for high-potentials as compared to

non-talent. Within the high-potential employees, senior high-potentials statistically reported higher work effort in comparison to junior high-potentials, but there was no difference between them with respect to job satisfaction. The findings further revealed that the perception of distributive justice was higher in high-potential employees in comparison to low-potential employees, and the perception of distributive justice fully mediates the relationship between those identified as high-potential employees and their level of satisfaction. The study also stated that when employees perceive workforce differentiation procedures to be fair, they report higher distributive justice as well as exert lot of work efforts unlike those who find the procedures to be unfair. In other words, procedural justice moderates the association between distributive justice and work effort. Moreover, the study outlined the need of future multi-level research to examine the causality and to generalise the findings because the study might have been influenced by the factors such as organisational culture and organisational communication of potential status.

A study by O'Connor and Crowley-Henry (2017) also aimed to investigate the employees' belief about the fairness involved in the practice of the exclusive approach of TM and the resultant on their engagement. The study emphasised that those identified as talented employees will possess higher levels of engagement unlike non-talented employees. However, the study was in the form of a conceptual paper, and the findings suggested in the study merely remain conceptual, which have not been tested empirically. Another study conducted by Narayanan, Rajithakumar and Menon (2019) theoretically evaluated the role of OJ in determining employee retention from the practice of TM. The study highlighted that different components of OJ directly affect ETM practices and employees' retention in an organisation. However, there still remains a research gap to empirically validate the ideology that OJ plays an important role in retaining employees from the practice of ETM.

To gather the theoretical understanding behind different employees' reaction towards the practice of ETM, Bhatia and Baruah (2020) conducted an in-depth review of literature, and based on the existing literature, the study proposes that the perception of both procedural and distributive justice within employees plays a mediating role which can possibly explain different employees' reactions. Further, the study provides direction for future research to validate this proposition through empirical findings. Malik and Singh (2020) also classify different employee outcomes from the inclusive–exclusive perspective, where they suggest that combining the TM approach with equity perception will have a bearing on the effectiveness of TM. It has been hypothesised that ETM practices will lead to favourable attitude (such as engagement, less burnout, satisfaction and commitment) only when employees perceive higher equity and justice in the organisation and employees will have unfavourable attitude when they perceive higher inequity and injustice. The propositions put forward have not been tested and require further validation through empirical studies.

Another critical review of literature conducted by Kwon and Jang (2021) highlights various downsides of ETM from the point of view of ethics and OJ. The study envisages that very few empirical studies have been conducted which

examine the relationship between ETM practices and ethics and therefore suggests the need to conduct future research in this direction. A study conducted for profit organisations in France revealed that ETM practices result in perceived injustice within employees with regard to distributive and procedural justice (Peterson et al., 2022). It is because of the perception of justice that employees react or behave differently towards such ETM practices. However, the findings could not be generalised for a larger population because the data were collected from few participants through the interview method.

The field of TM fails to establish and generalise the role of perceived justice in the relationship between ETM practices and the attitude of employees. A large number of studies conducted so far are either reviews of existing literature or conceptual studies or studies whose findings are based on the interviews conducted with very few number of respondents. It is not clear whether perceived justice plays a crucial role in determining the attitude of the employees. Therefore, this study aims to empirically study the role of perceived justice in shaping the attitude of employees towards ETM practices by hypothesising that

H₃: Perceived justice mediates ETM and (a) positive attitude of employees and (b) negative attitude of employees.

Employees' Attitude and Role of Perceived Justice

Lindenberg formulated the relational signalling theory which assumes that an individual behaves according to the predetermined goals, and this behaviour depends on the context of its goals (Six, 2007). In an organisational setting, this theory signifies that the behaviour and actions of an employee originate from what they receive from the organisation. Desired behaviour or outcome will be generated only when employees will perceive organisational support and attention. The perception of organisational support will develop a firm conviction in the minds of the employees that in the unwanted and difficult situations, the organisation will help them to effectively carry out their job (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Moreover, organisational goals will only be accomplished when employees perceive that their supervisors acknowledge their work and care about their well-being (Eisenberger et al., 2002). However, if employees perceive less/no organisational and supervisor support, the practices of TM will fail to achieve their intended target.

Organisations consider talented employees a source of competitive advantage and even go over and beyond their duties in retaining them by extending support in all directions. Talented employees also perceive the amount of support extended to them by both the organisation and the supervisor and therefore direct their energies in attaining financial and HR goals for the organisation. However, non-talented employees perceive that the organisation extends greater support to the talented employees as compared to them. As a result, these employees feel demotivated and less important and thereby display negative attitude and behaviour in the organisation. Du Plessis et al. (2015) determined the effect of

managerial support in TM practices on the turnover intentions of employees ($n = 135$) and revealed that though there is a significant positive relationship of TM practices with both perceived organisational support (POS) and perceived supervisor support (PSS), neither of the support variables affects TM practices and turnover intentions.

Another study by taking samples from two different populations, that is, managers (203) and managerial trainees (195), aims to study the interdependence of POS and affective commitment of talented and non-talented employees in Belgium organisations (Gelens et al., 2015). These studies concluded that high-potentials/ talents perceive higher organisational support as compared to non-high-potentials in both the populations. Further, the designation of an employee as talented and the levels of affective commitment are mediated by the employee's perception of organisational support. However, the difference between talented and non-talented employees with respect to their affective commitment could be established in just one study involving the population of managers. Further, Swailes and Blackburn (2016) conducted a study in chemical industry in Northern Europe to analyse how employees who are a part of the talent pool differ in their work attitude from those who are not by adopting a mixed method research. The employees ($n = 17$) were first interviewed and then asked to participate in a survey through the questionnaire method, but the sample size for the study is actually considered inadequate to generalise the findings. However, the study reported that those who are not considered as talented indeed perceive lower organisational support and unfairness and expect least interest from the organisation in them. On the other hand, employees in the talent pool look forward for the positive future prospects and are quite satisfied with their growth and development. Moreover, they also perceive greater organisational as well as supervisor support.

Both De Boeck et al. (2018) and Bhatia and Baruah (2020) have framed a conceptual model wherein they propose that perceived support from the organisations as well as the superiors bridges the relationship of employees' attitudes towards the ETM practices. The mediating role of perceived support in the field of TM has been explained through the social exchange theory and signalling theory. Both the studies stress the need of exploring the role of perceived support in the ETM practices and call for future research in this direction.

Gupta (2020) in a study aims to explore the casual relationship of TM dimensions such as POS and PSS on the turnover intentions of Generation Y employees by undertaking survey from 284 employees working in five-star hotels across India. The Pearson correlation analysis found positive association of TM practices with both POS and PSS, whereas there was a negative association of employees' perception of TM practices and their intention to quit. Further, POS and PSS do not affect the association of perceived TM practices with the intention to quit. However, such results challenge the findings of other empirical studies in this direction, and it is difficult to establish the role of perceived support.

Many studies propose that POS has the tendency to mediate the relationship between TM practices and employees' attitude in an organisation (Bhatia &

Baruah, 2020; De Boeck et al., 2018; Mensah, 2015; Mensah et al., 2016). But studies evaluating the role of perceived support as the mediating variable between ETM practices and attitude of employees have been very limited and have failed to quantitatively test the relationship. Therefore, this study aims to determine the mediating role of perceived support by hypothesising that

H₄: Perceived support mediates ETM and (a) positive attitude of employees and (b) negative attitude of employees.

Research Methodology

Sampling and Data Collection

A quantitative research design was selected to collect data through the questionnaire method. As per the Ministry of Tourism, Government of India, 43 hotels in New Delhi have been listed as five-star deluxe, five-star and four-star. HR managers of these 43 hotels were contacted and asked to participate in the research, and 15 of these hotels agreed to participate. A preliminary study was conducted with the HR managers and the respective line managers to identify talent in their hotel by assessing the past year performance of the employees. Those employees were labelled as talent who were the high performers and whom the managers considered as potential talent. This is because managers are in a better position to analyse the abilities, skills and motivation of employees and regard them as talent (Silzer & Church, 2009). Moreover, past studies suggest that organisations largely rely on management judgement to identify and spot talent (Campbell & Hirsh, 2013, pp. 1–40). A similar methodology has also been used in related studies of TM (e.g., Chami-Malaeb & Garavan, 2013; Mensah et al., 2016).

A total of 1,200 questionnaires were distributed to the employees in 15 five-star and four-star hotels, out of which 735 questionnaires were completely filled and were considered suitable. Data was collected within the time span of six months, that is, from December 2020 to May 2021. These employees were selected on the basis of the convenience sampling technique depending on who were available on the days of data collection. The sample so collected represented employees from all levels, that is, managerial, supervisory and staff. The overall response rate was 61.25 per cent, and the sample size is favourably considered suitable in comparison to similar empirical studies in the area of TM and assessment of employees' attitude (e.g., Björkman et al., 2013) and TM in the hotel industry (Alferaih et al., 2018). Also, according to the Roscoe's rule of thumb, a sample size between 30 and 500 is justified in behavioural research because, first, a sample size above 30 qualifies the criterion of the advantages of the central limit theorem and, second, the sample error for 500 samples does not exceed 10 per cent of standard deviation approximately 98 per cent of the time (Hill, 1998).

Measures

Multiple items were used to reflect various constructs, and all the items were measured using six-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree (1), slightly disagree (2), disagree (3), agree (4), slightly agree (5) and strongly agree (6). The six-point Likert scale has been preferred over five-point Likert scale because it offers the researcher the benefits of approaching normal distribution with no neutral points (Leung, 2011). Moreover, the five-point Likert scale has also been criticised from the viewpoint that such a scale cannot be considered as an interval scale.

Twelve items were adopted from the integrated TM scale developed by Jayaraman et al. (2018). Various variables were used to measure affective, cognitive and behavioural components of positive attitude of employees such as affective organisational commitment, job satisfaction, engagement, work motivation, trust, psychological contract fulfilment, intention to remain with the organisation, organisational citizenship behaviour and work effort, and each variable was measured using three items. Affective commitment scale was adopted from Allen and Meyer (1990), job satisfaction was measured by adopting items from the study of Fernandes and Awamleh (2006), engagement was measured using Utrecht Work Engagement Scale (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2006), work motivation items for hotel employees were adopted from Chiang and Jang (2008), items to measure trust were adopted from Tzafrir and Dolan (2004), items for psychological contract fulfilment were adopted from Rousseau (2008), the intention to remain with the organisation and organisational citizenship behaviour were measured by adopting items from the study of Kehoe and Wright (2013) and work effort scale was adopted from De Cooman et al. (2009). Negative attitude, that is, job stress, was measured by adopting four items from Gok et al. (2017), which were considered suitable for the study. Two dimensions of perceived justice (procedural and distributive) were adopted from the OJ scale of Colquitt (2001), whereas POS items were adopted from Rhoades et al. (2001).

Common Method Bias

It might be possible that systematic error variance might occur among the variables because of same source and method of data collection. The presence of common method variance creates a threat to the validity of the data when the respondents fill in the questionnaire in a single setting. Therefore, a common method bias test was conducted using the common latent factor method as explained by Podsakoff et al. (2003). A latent variable was introduced in the measurement model of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The standard regression weight of the model with and without latent factor was computed, and delta was calculated by measuring the difference in the estimates of two models. The difference between the two was less than 0.2, which suggests that the data is free from the issue of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The factor scores range from -0.047 to 0.172, which lies within the acceptable limit.

Multicollinearity

The assumption of the absence of multicollinearity among the predictor variables was assessed from the tolerance and the variance inflation factor (VIF) values by conducting regression analysis in SPSS. The acceptable values for tolerance must be above 0.10, and VIF values must be below 10 (Ho, 2014). Both tolerance and VIF values were within the acceptable limits (represented in Table 1), which suggests that there are no issues pertaining to multicollinearity among the predictor variables in the study.

Reliability and Validity

Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) were evaluated for establishing the construct reliability of the scale. For attaining reliability, both Cronbach's alpha values and CR must be greater than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010; Nunally, 1978). Table 2 represent that all values are well within the range.

Convergent and discriminant validity was established using Fornell–Larcker testing system. According to Fornell and Larcker (1981), the value of average variance extracted (AVE) above 0.7 is categorised as very good, and a value between 0.5 and 0.7 is considered acceptable. Also, the CR value must be 0.7 and above to establish convergent validity. Here, the observed scores of AVE and CR are within the acceptable range and there are no concerns for convergent validity. Moreover, the AVE should be higher than maximum shared variance (MSV) and

Table 1. Multicollinearity Test.

Model		Unstandardised		Standardised Regression Coefficient	t	Collinearity Statistics	
		Regression Coefficient	Standard Error			B	Tolerance
Positive attitude	ETM	0.510	0.039	0.464	13.128	0.475	2.104
	Perceived justice	0.337	0.031	0.367	10.793	0.514	1.944
	Perceived support	-0.023	0.021	-0.030	-1.093	0.772	1.295
	R ²			0.565			
Negative attitude	ETM	0.303	0.064	0.209	4.736	0.475	2.104
	Perceived justice	0.252	0.051	0.209	4.914	0.514	1.944
	Perceived support	0.270	0.034	0.273	7.882	0.772	1.295
	R ²			0.321			

Source: Authors' compilation.

Table 2. Reliability and Validity.

Construct	CR	AVE	MSV	Perceived Support	ETM	Perceived Justice	Negative Attitude	Favourable Attitude
Cronbach's alpha				0.892	0.952	0.910	0.927	0.981
Perceived support	0.893	0.735	0.255	0.857	–	–	–	–
ETM	0.953	0.628	0.540	0.505	0.793	–	–	–
Perceived justice	0.936	0.714	0.540	0.408	0.735	0.845	–	–
Negative attitude	0.928	0.762	0.446	0.497	0.511	0.489	0.873	–
Positive attitude	0.981	0.658	0.531	0.349	0.729	0.712	0.668	0.811

Source: Authors' compilation.

the square root of AVE should be higher than its respective inter-construct correlations to establish discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2014). Here, all the dimensions of the scale have met the aforementioned criterion, and therefore the discriminant validity is also achieved.

Analyses and Results

Sample Demographics

Primary data has been collected from 735 respondents through the questionnaire method, and the respondents are characterised on the bases of age, gender, education, department, job position and the status of talent. A large number of participants in the study were male (79.7%) who largely fell under the age group of 25–31 years, followed by 32–38 and 39–45 years. There was a total of 15 hotels, out of which 8 were labelled as five-star deluxe, 4 as five-star and 3 as four-star hotels. Data collected from these hotels represented a mix of both operational and functional departments. From the operations, a total of 25.7 per cent respondents were working with the food and beverage department, 23 per cent of respondents with the front office and 19 per cent with the housekeeping department. Also, a large number of respondents from the functional head were found to be working with the sales and marketing department (14.4%), followed by human resources (10.5%) and finance (6%). 38.6 per cent of the participants in the study were found to be working at a staff level or lower management, 33.3 per cent at supervisory or middle level of management and 28 per cent at top managerial level. A total of 38.5 per cent were identified as talent and 61.5 per cent as non-talent for the study. The sample distribution is considered adequate keeping total population characteristics in mind.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

The presence of a large number of variables in the study calls for the simplification of the inter-correlated variables to few constructs or factors. As a result, the principal component analysis was conducted with varimax using Kaiser normalisation rotation, and an eigenvalue greater than 1 was selected to identify the factors. It is a prerequisite to check the suitability of the data with Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett’s tests before analysing the factors. The value of KMO must be above 0.7, whereas a value between 0.8 and 1 is considered marvellous (Kaiser, 1958). The Bartlett’s test should be significant ($p < 0.5$), indicating equal variances of the samples. The KMO test value turned out to be very good (0.9584), and the Bartlett’s test was also significant. Therefore, the data was considered suitable to perform exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Further, the EFA generated five factors which together explained the variance of 70.815 per cent.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The study further evaluated the result obtained from EFA using ‘rotated component matrix’ to confirm that each measurement item has strong confirmatory loadings on the construct that they were supposed to measure. All items had strong confirmatory factor loadings for their respective construct. The measurement model for the study was built in AMOS, and the goodness of fit was evaluated using ‘maximum likelihood estimation’. Frequently used goodness of fit indices such as ‘chi-square divided by degree of freedom (χ^2/df)’, ‘comparative fit index (CFI)’, ‘goodness of fit index (GFI)’, ‘adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI)’ and finally ‘root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)’ were examined. All the fit indices meet the prescribed criterion of model fit which is represented in Table 3.

Table 3. Fit Indices of Measurement Model.

Fit Indicators	Observed Values	Recommended Values	Source
CMIN/df	2.497	Between 1 and 3	Kline (1998)
CFI	0.948	>0.90	Bentler and Bonnet (1980)
GFI	0.840	GFI \geq 0.9 means satisfactory fit 0.8 < GFI < 0.9 means acceptable fit	Awang (2012); Hair et al. (2010) Forza and Filippini (1998); Greenspoon and Saklofske (1998)
AGFI	0.826	GFI \geq 0.9 means satisfactory fit 0.8 < GFI < 0.9 means acceptable fit	Awang (2012); Hair et al. (2010) Forza and Filippini (1998); Greenspoon and Saklofske (1998)
RMSEA	0.045	<0.06	Steiger (2007)

Source: Authors’ compilation.

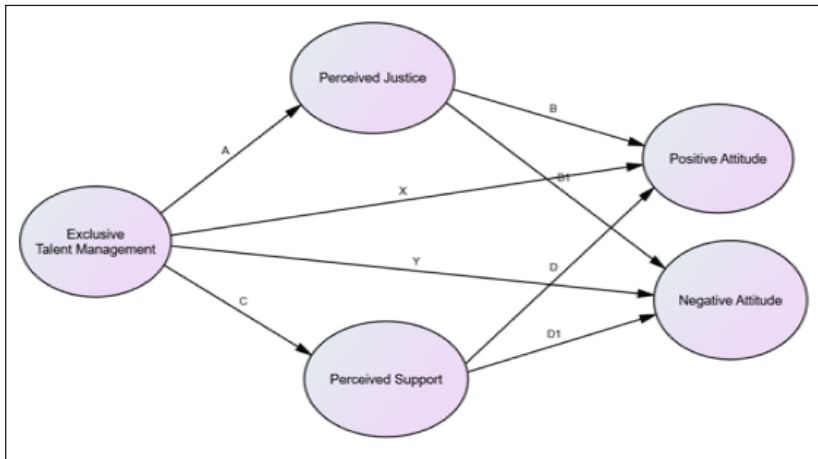


Figure 1. Structural Equation Model.

Source: Authors' compilation.

Table 4. Fit Indices of SEM.

Fit Indicators	Observed Values	Recommended Values	Source
CMIN/df	2.673	Between 1 and 3	Kline (1998)
CFI	0.943	>0.90	Bentler and Bonnet (1980)
GFI	0.834	GFI \geq 0.9 means satisfactory fit 0.8 < GFI < 0.9 means acceptable fit	Awang (2012); Hair et al. (2010) Forza and Filippini (1998); Greenspoon and Saklofske (1998)
AGFI	0.820	GFI \geq 0.9 means satisfactory fit 0.8 < GFI < 0.9 means acceptable fit	Awang (2012); Hair et al. (2010) Forza and Filippini (1998); Greenspoon and Saklofske (1998)
RMSEA	0.047	<0.06	Steiger (2007)

Source: Authors' compilation.

Structural Equation Model

After the CFA model was found to be a good fit, a structural equation model (SEM) was built (Figure 1) to test the different hypothesis proposed for this study. The estimates were calculated in AMOS using maximum likelihood estimation method. The goodness of fit estimates represented in Table 4 indicate that the model meets the prescribed criterion and can be used for further analysis.

Regression Analysis

The study adopted regression weights generated from the path analysis in the structural model to test hypotheses H_{1a} and H_{1b} . SEM path analysis represented in Table 5 provides results for H_{1a} and H_{1b} . The p value is significant for both the relationships, and the standardised estimates are also positive. Therefore, we accept H_1 and H_2 and conclude that ETM practices have significant positive effect on both positive (H_{1a}) and negative attitude of employees (H_{1b}). Therefore, H_{1a} and H_{1b} are supported.

Multigroup Analysis

Further, multigroup analysis was also conducted to examine the status of talent (i.e., talent and non-talent) on two different paths (i.e., ETM→Positive attitude and ETM→Negative attitude) in AMOS. The fit of the two models, that is, unconstrained (where path allowed to vary) and constrained (paths forced to be equal across group) can be compared directly from the nested model comparisons statistics. For the path ETM→Positive attitude, the chi-square difference value for the two models is 32.029, with 1 degree of freedom as represented in Table 6. Since the value is significant at the 0.05 level ($p < .05$), therefore, the two groups, that is, talented and non-talented employees, differ significantly in the path from ETM to positive attitude. However, for the path ETM→Negative attitude, the chi-square difference value for the two models is 0.070, with 1 degree of freedom and the corresponding p value is not significant. Thus, the two groups do not significantly differ from each other in the path from ETM to negative attitude.

Table 5. Results of H_{1a} and H_{1b} .

Relationship	Unstandardised Estimate	Standardised Estimate	SE	CR	P	Label
ETM→Positive attitude	0.406	0.462	0.042	9.712	0.001***	X
ETM→Negative attitude	0.298	0.208	0.079	3.782	0.001***	Y

Source: Authors' compilation.

Note: *** Significant $p < 0.05$.

Table 6. Assuming Model Unconstrained To Be Correct.

Model	DF	CMIN	P	NFI Delta-1	IFI Delta-2	RFI rho-1	TLI rho2
Constrain ETM → Positive attitude	1	32.029	.000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001
Constrain ETM → Negative attitude	1	0.070	.792	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

Source: Authors' compilation.

Table 7. Chi-Square Group Difference.

Relationships	Talent Standardised Estimate (t-values)	Non-talent Standardised Estimate (t-values)	Group Difference $\Delta\chi^2/1\text{ df}$ Estimates
ETM→Positive attitude (X)	0.799 (9.017)	0.311 (5.601)	32.029*
ETM→Negative attitude (Y)	0.195 (2.192)	0.177 (2.639)	0.070 ns

Source: Authors' compilation.

Note: * Significant $p < 0.05$.

Since there is a significant difference between the employees on the status of talent, there is a need to determine which group has a stronger or weaker effect on the relationship. The relationship strength is determined from the standardised regression estimate which is represented in Table 7.

The chi-square group difference on the path ETM→Positive attitude (X) was significant. Therefore, the hypothesis H_{2a} was accepted, and it is found that there is a significant difference between talented and non-talented employees with respect to their positive attitude. Further, the chi-square group difference test statistics resulted that the talented employees (0.799) exhibit greater levels of positive attitude towards ETM as compared to the non-talented employees (0.311).

Moreover, the chi-square group difference on the path ETM→Negative attitude (Y) was not significant. Therefore, the H_{2b} could not be supported, and it can be said that there is no significant difference between talented and non-talented employees with respect to their negative attitude.

Mediation Analysis

Bootstrapping method was conducted to test the other hypotheses for mediation analysis. Figure 1 represents that there is a parallel mediation in the model with uncorrelated mediators and therefore bias-corrected bootstrapping method was performed in AMOS for 5,000 bootstrap samples to determine the indirect effects (Hayes, 2009). The significance of the mediation analysis was determined by generating 95 per cent confidence interval, and the specific indirect effect is reported in Table 8.

Zhao et al.'s (2010) decision tree has been used to determine the type of mediation analysis. Full mediation is found when the indirect effect estimate is significant and direct effect estimate is insignificant; partial mediation is found when both indirect and direct effect estimates are significant; and no mediation is found when only direct effect estimate is significant and indirect effect estimate is insignificant.

From Table 8, the direct effect from ETM to positive attitude is significant along with the indirect effect from ETM to positive attitude through perceived justice implying partial mediation, whereas the indirect effect from ETM to

Table 8. Direct and Indirect Effects.

Relationship	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	95% Confidence Interval Based on Bootstrapping		P Value	Conclusion
			Lower	Upper		
Path 1 (A to B): 'ETM→PJ→PA' (H_{3a})	0.406* (9.712)	0.251*	0.152	0.354	.000	Partial mediation
Path 2 (C to D): 'ETM→PS→PA' (H_{4a})	0.406* (9.712)	-0.013	-0.042	0.011	.318	No mediation
Path 3 (A to B1): 'ETM→PJ→NA' (H_{3b})	0.298* (3.782)	0.238*	0.109	0.354	.000	Partial mediation
Path 4 (C to D1): 'ETM→PS→NA' (H_{4b})	0.298* (3.782)	0.216*	0.133	0.313	.000	Partial mediation

Source: Authors' compilation.

Note: * Significant $p < 0.05$.

positive attitude through perceived support is not significant implying no mediation effect. The direct effect from ETM to negative attitude is significant along with the indirect effect through perceived justice and perceived support which signifies the partial mediation type. The test suggests that there is a significant specific effect for all paths except for Path 2. This is because the zero is included in the confidence interval of Path 2 (Macho & Ledermann, 2011; Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Therefore, hypotheses H_{3a} , H_{3b} and H_{4b} are supported, whereas H_{4a} is not supported.

Discussion of Findings

The first aim of this article was to validate the relationship of the exclusive approach of TM with the attitude of hotel employees and in this regard two hypotheses were proposed. The first hypothesis (H_{1a}) which proposes that ETM practices have a significant relationship with the positive attitude of employees has found support in this study. This implies that the practice of ETM generates desired affective, behavioural and cognitive outcomes for employees. The intent for which TM practices are implemented in the organisation achieves its aim for desired HR or positive employee outcomes. The result of this study is in conformity with previous empirical studies pertaining to different variables of positive attitude (Björkman et al., 2013; Chami-Malaeb & Garavan, 2013; Höglund, 2012; Seopa et al., 2015; Sonnenberg et al., 2013; Tymon et al., 2010). Further investigation as to how the status of talent affects this relationship has also been explored in this study. The results from the chi-square group difference provide

support for the evidence that there is a significant difference between talents and non-talents in their positive attitude towards the practice of ETM (H_{2a}). It has been established in the study that talented employees showcase higher levels of positive attitude as compared to non-talented employees. The difference between the employees is directly linked to the notion of workforce discrimination and the Pareto principle of disproportionate investment which is based on the status of talent in the organisations. This divide between the employees which is created by the practices of the ETM results in the generation of high level of positive attitude for the talented employees in comparison to non-talented employees. Such a difference exists between the employees because talented employees feel that the organisation by identifying their positions is more concerned towards their growth and development. On the other hand, non-talented employees do not perceive similar things to that extent in the organisation and therefore showcase lower level of positive attitude.

The second hypothesis (H_{1b}) proposes to validate the relationship between ETM practices and the negative attitude of hotel employees. This study has empirically found out that ETM practices manifest the formation of negative attitude for hotel employees. The possible reason for the presence of stress within all employees can directly be attributed to the nature of the hotel industry, which is associated with the challenging work roles, direct customer handling and sometimes longer working hours. Further, the study could not find any significant difference in the negative attitude between the two groups of employees towards the ETM practices (H_{2b}). In other words, negative attitude like stress was predominant for both the groups of employees in the hotel industry. It is speculated that talented employees perceive job stress because they are always expected to outperform and achieve higher success every time, whereas the practice of workforce segmentation under the exclusive approach of TM may cause stress in the non-talented employees because of the differential treatment that leads to lesser extent of support and higher injustice for them. It might also be possible that the nature of the hotel industry is such that it leads to stress among the employees.

The second aim of the study was to test whether perceived justice affects the attitude of hotel employees towards the practice of ETM. Two hypotheses were framed: The first proposes that the perceived justice mediates the relationship between ETM and positive attitude (H_{3a}), and the second proposes that the perceived justice also mediates the relationship between ETM and negative attitude (H_{3b}) of employees in the hotel industry. This study found support for both the hypotheses where perceived justice partially mediates the relationships. It is inferred that employees portray different attitude because of the differences in the perception of justice towards the practice of ETM in hotels. Talented employees perceive workforce segmentation and unequal distribution of resources as just and fair because of their supreme contribution towards the competitive advantage and long-term success of the firm. Also, talents want differential treatment to continue in the organisation because of their significant contribution, and as a result, this practice of differentiated techniques under ETM makes them perceive higher procedural and distributive justice. On the other hand,

non-talented employees perceive workforce discrimination under ETM as unjust and unfair because of which they may perceive lesser procedural and distributive justice towards ETM practices. Therefore, the hypothesis that the perception of justice mediates the relationship between ETM and attitude of hotel employees has been empirically supported.

The third aim of the study was to determine the mediating role of perceived support in understanding the attitude of hotel employees towards the ETM practices. Two hypotheses were proposed for this objective: first, the perceived support mediates the relationship between ETM and positive attitude (H_{4a}) and, second, the perceived support mediates the relationship between ETM and negative attitude (H_{4b}). The study found that perceived support partially mediates the association of ETM and negative attitude and hence H_{4b} was supported. No mediation effect was found for perceived support in the relationship between ETM and positive attitude and therefore H_{4a} could not be supported. Thus, it is inferred that when both talents and non-talents perceive no organisational support, it does not affect their positive attitude. But the absence of organisational support leads to the manifestation of negative attitude within all employees. Talented employees want the organisation to support them in accomplishing long-term competitive advantage, and the absence of support will definitely give rise to the negative attitude. Even the non-talented employees tend to develop negative attitude as they are excluded from the ETM practices. Also, negative attitude arises within non-talented employees when they perceive no support from the organisation towards their personal growth and development.

Contributions and Implications

This study has significantly contributed to the field of TM by bringing employees to the limelight and examining the effect of ETM practices on them. This study is first of its kind which has combined the affective, behavioural and cognitive components for empirically studying the different attitude of hotel employees towards the practice of ETM. This study takes into account the positive attitude of not only talented employees but also non-talented employees who have been largely ignored in the past studies. So far, only the conceptual studies have been conducted for assessing negative reactions like stress from the practice of ETM (De Boeck et al., 2018; Tansley & Tietze, 2013), and no empirical study was found in this direction. This article significantly contributes to the TM field by investigating positive as well as negative employee outcomes of both talented and non-talented employees in the hotel industry from the practice of ETM. Very few comparative studies exist in the field of TM which examine the attitude of talented employees in connection with the non-talented employees. Moreover, no such study has been conducted in the hotel industry which takes into account the difference in the attitude of talented and non-talented employees, and this study by taking large number of samples has attempted to examine this difference. This study also adds to the field of TM by enhancing knowledge towards employees'

perception of justice and support in the practice of ETM. This study by evaluating the role of perceived justice and perceived support has also significantly contributed towards the ethical perspective of TM literature.

The findings of the study suggest that perceived justice and perceived support are the two important mediators which shape the attitude of hotel employees towards the ETM practices. HR managers must direct their energies in building an effective system to enhance support and provide justice to all employees. However, employees in different countries may either perceive injustice from the exclusive approach of TM practices or consider exclusive strategies more appropriate and ethical to regard and reward their significant contribution depending on the prevailing societal culture in their country. For instance, hotels operating in the high power distance dimension of national culture hold the viewpoint that power is distributed unequally in the society and therefore the resources must be unequally distributed in the organisation based on the performance of the employees. There is a general acceptance of inequality within the employees, and individuals do not question the people at power. The rule of equality also holds relevance from the context of individualistic and collectivistic culture. In collectivistic societies, organisations prefer more egalitarian or equal allocation of resources, and any deviation from such egalitarian culture will lead to the perception of lower level of justice or injustice, as compared to organisations operating under individualistic culture, who prefer differential allocation of resources based on the contribution of the employees.

With special reference to South Asian countries, the cultural dimensions have different implications for managerial actions for TM approaches. Countries such as India and Bhutan are highly power distance countries and have an intermediate culture of both collectivism and individualism (Hofstede Insights, 2018). Hotels in such countries can easily adopt the exclusive approach towards their TM practices. Indian hotels in fact are following the exclusive approach towards their TM practices (Reji George, 2021). Because of high power distance dimension, employees perceive justice from such practices and also have favourable attitude in the organisation. However, countries such as Bangladesh, Bhutan, Nepal and Sri Lanka are high on power distance dimension of national culture but do not show individualistic traits in their societal culture (Hofstede Insights, 2018). As a result, no single approach will be beneficial in these countries, and hotels can choose to adopt mixed (i.e., inclusive and exclusive) or blended approach towards TM practices. This can ensure organisations to manage their financial constraints by adopting exclusive strategies in their expensive growth and development practices and adopting inclusive strategy by providing equal opportunities to all employees to display their potential and higher performances to such an extent that they can be considered for expensive trainings, development or preferential rewards. On the other hand, Pakistan scores low on both of the dimensions of national culture, that is, power distance and individualism (Hofstede Insights, 2018), and therefore the exclusive approach may fail to generate positive attitude for employees in such a culture because of the perception of injustice from the unequal distribution of resources.

The findings reveal that perceived justice and perceived support mediate the relationship between ETM and employees' attitude in the hotel industry, but there is still a greater need for future research to examine this relationship from the context of different industries across different geographical locations because organisational and national culture are important factors affecting this relationship. Further research can also be carried out to examine the difference between the two groups of employees in their perception of justice and support by moderating the status of talent. It is also necessary to conduct more empirical studies in assessing the negative attitude of employees in other industries so as to find out the negative consequences of implementing ETM practices.

Limitations

The present study is one of its kind which aims to simultaneously assess the attitude of talented and non-talented employees in the hotel industry and, as a result, the study has some limitations in it. First of all, to identify talent from each hotel, the study has relied upon the archival data of past one-year performance assessment, whereas the dependent, independent and mediator variables were measured with cross-sectional self-reported data. Till date, there has hardly been any longitudinal study in the field of TM which has collected data over a period of time. Since the study was designed to be cross-sectional, it was statistically tested for the common method bias and found no concerns which could affect the measurement model. Second, the possibility of reverse causality cannot be eliminated in the study, that is, to say that the presence of higher level of positive attitude identifies the talented employees in the hotel. But it is believed to be cyclical causality, where theories such as resource-based view (RBV), social exchange, signalling and OJ explain that the status of talent/non-talent actually determines the attitude of employees at the time of data collection. Third, setting the study in the context of hotel industry may have influenced the findings of the study. This is because this industry is highly characterised by longer working hours, involving challenging work roles and directly handling customers which creates a lot of pressure, stress and burnout within the employees. Lastly, the data has been collected post three months of the COVID-19 pandemic situation of uncertainty and persistent turmoil, and it is assumed that this factor may have also resulted in the formation of negative attitude of employees.

Conclusion

In summary, the exclusive approach of TM helps to generate desired positive employees outcomes such as commitment, engagement, motivation, psychological contract fulfilment and organisational citizenship behaviour, but this positive attitude is higher among talented employees as compared to non-talented employees of the hotel. This approach, however, also leads to negative

consequences such as job stress within the hotel employees. Talented employees are overburdened with job responsibilities of achieving continued success because of which they experience stress. Moreover, the practice of workforce differentiation under ETM leads to the generation of negative attitude among non-talented employees. Further, this relationship between ETM and positive attitude is mediated by the perception of justice within the hotel employees, whereas both perceived justice and perceived support mediate the relationship between ETM practices and negative attitude of hotel employees. A comparative study can also be conducted to assess the attitude of employees towards the inclusive and exclusive approach of TM in different industries and from the context of different nationalities.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declared no potential conflicts of interest with respect to the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

Funding

The authors received no financial support for the research, authorship and/or publication of this article.

ORCID iD

Rajneet Bhatia  <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1889-2775>

References

- Alferaih, A., Sarwar, S., & Eid, A. (2018). Talent turnover and retention research. Evidence-based HRM. *A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 6(2), 166–186.
- Aljbour, A., French, E., & Ali, M. (2021). An evidence-based multilevel framework of talent management: A systematic review. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJPPM-02-2020-0065>
- Allen, N., & Meyer, J. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(1), 1–18. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.1990.tb00506.x>
- Awang, Z. (2012). *Structural equation modeling using AMOS graphic*. Penerbit Universiti Teknologi MARA.
- Baum, T. (2008). Implications of hospitality and tourism labor markets for talent management strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 20(7), 720–729.
- Bentler, P. M., & Bonnet, D. C. (1980). Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88, 588–606.
- Bethke-Langenegger, P., Mahler, P., & Staffelbach, B. (2011). Effectiveness of talent management strategies. *European Journal of International Management*, 5, 524–539.
- Bharwani, S., & Butt, N. (2012). Challenges for the global hospitality industry: An HR perspective. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 4(2), 150–162. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17554211211217325>
- Bhatia, R., & Baruah, P. (2020). Exclusive talent management and its consequences: A review of literature. *Asian Journal of Business Ethics*, 9(2), 193–209. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13520-020-00105-8>

- Björkman, I., Ehrnrooth, M., Mäkelä, K., Smale, A., & Sumelius, J. (2013). Talent or not? Employee reactions to talent identification. *Human Resource Management, 52*, 195–214.
- Campbell, V., & Hirsh, W. (2013). *Talent management: A four step approach*. IES HR Network. Institute for Employment Studies.
- Chami-Malaeb, R., & Garavan, T. (2013). Talent and leadership development practices as drivers of intention to stay in Lebanese organisations: The mediating role of affective commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*(21), 4046–4062.
- Chiang, C.-F., & Jang, S. (2008). An expectancy theory model for hotel employee motivation. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27*(2), 313–322. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhm.2007.07.017>
- CIPD. (2006). *Talent management: Understanding the dimensions*.
- Collings, D., & Mellahi, K. (2009). Strategic talent management: A review and research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review, 19*(4), 304–313.
- Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3), 386–400. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386>
- Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management, 31*(6), 874–900. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206305279602>
- Daubner-Siva, D., Ybema, S., Vinkenbug, C. J., & Beech, N. (2018). The talent paradox: Talent management as a mixed blessing. *Journal of Organizational Ethnography, 7*(1), 74–86., <https://doi.org/10.1108/JOE-01-2017-0002>
- De Boeck, G., Meyers, M. C., & Dries, N. (2018). Employee reactions to talent management: Assumptions versus evidence. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour, 39*, 199–213.
- De Cooman, R., De Gieter, S., Pepermans, R., Jegers, M., & Van Acker, F. (2009). Development and validation of the work effort scale. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment, 25*(4), 266–273. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759.25.4.266>
- Dries, N., & De Gieter, S. (2014). Information asymmetry in high potential programs. *Personnel Review, 43*, 7.
- Dries, N., Forrier, A., De Vos, A., & Pepermans, R. (2014). Self-perceived employability, organization-rated potential, and the psychological contract. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 29*(5), 565–581. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-04-2013-0109>
- Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2008). ‘Real’ high-potential careers: An empirical study into the perspectives of organisations and high potentials. *Personnel Review, 37*, 85–108.
- Du Plessis, L., Barkhuizen, N., Stanz, K., & Schutte, N. (2015). The management side of talent: Causal implications for the retention of generation Y employees. *The Journal of Applied Business Research, 31*(5), 1767–1780.
- Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*(3), 565–573.
- Fernandes, C., & Awamleh, R. (2006). Impact of organisational justice in an expatriate work Environment. *Management Research News, 29*(11), 701–712.
- Fornell, C., & Larcker, D. F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research, 18*, 39–50.
- Forza, C., & Filippini, R. (1998). TQM impact on quality conformance and customer satisfaction: A causal model. *International Journal of Production Economics, 55*(1), 1–20.
- Gallardo-Gallardo, E., & Thunnissen, M. (2019). Talent management: Disentangling key ideas. In Wilkinson, A., Bacon, N., & Snell, S. (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of*

- human resource management* (pp. 164–178). SAGE Publications. <https://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781529714852.n11>
- Gelens, J., Dries, N., Hofmans, J., & Pepermans, R. (2013). The role of perceived organizational justice in shaping the outcomes of talent management: A research agenda. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23, 341–353.
- Gelens, J., Dries, N., Hofmans, J., & Pepermans, R. (2015). Affective commitment of employees designated as talent: Signalling perceived organisational support. *European Journal of International Management*, 9, 9–27.
- Gelens, J., Hofmans, J., Dries, N., & Pepermans, R. (2014). Talent management and organisational justice: Employee reactions to high potential identification. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 24(2), 159–175.
- Gok, O. A., Akgunduz, Y., & Alkan, C. (2017). The effects of job stress and perceived organizational support on turnover intentions of hotel employees. *Journal of Tourismology*, 3(2), 23–32.
- Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management*, 16, 606–613.
- Greenspoon, P. J., & Saklofske, D. H. (1998). Confirmatory factor analysis of the multi-dimensional student's life satisfaction scale. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 25(5), 965–971.
- Gupta, V. (2020). Talent management dimensions and its relationship with Generation Y employee's intention to quit: An Indian hotel perspective. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*, 6(3), 583–600.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Babin, B. J., & Black, W. C. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis: A global perspective* (Vol. 7). Pearson.
- Hair, J. F., Hult, G. T. M., Ringle, C. M., & Sarstedt, M. (2014). *A primer on partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM)*. SAGE Publications.
- Hayes, A. F. (2009). Beyond Baron and Kenny: Statistical mediation analysis in the new millennium. *Communication Monographs*, 76(4), 408–420.
- Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is 'enough' in Internet survey research? *Interpersonal Computing and Technology: An Electronic Journal for the 21st Century*, 6(34), 1–11.
- Ho, R. (2014). *Handbook of univariate and multivariate data analysis with IBM SPSS* (2nd ed., pp. 1–586). Taylor & Francis.
- Hofstede Insights. (2018). Country comparison. <https://www.hofstede-insights.com/country-comparison/>
- Höglund, M. (2012). Quid pro quo? Examining talent management through the lens of psychological contracts. *Personnel Review*, 41(2), 126–142.
- Jayaraman, S., Talib, P., & Khan, A. (2018). Integrated talent management scale: Construction and initial validation. *SAGE Open*, 8(3), 1–12. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244018780965>
- Johnson, K. R., Huang, T., & Doyle, A. (2019). Mapping talent development in tourism and hospitality: A literature review. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 43(9), 821–841. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJTD-03-2019-0047>
- Kaiser, H. F. (1958). The varimax criterion for analytic rotation in factor analysis. *Psychometrika*, 23, 187–200. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02289233>
- Kehoe, R., & Wright, P. (2013). The impact of high-performance human resource practices on employees' attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 39(2), 366–391.
- Krebs, B., & Wehner, M. (2021). The relationship between talent management and individual and organizational performance. In Tarique, I. (Ed.), *The Routledge companion to talent management* (1st ed., pp. 539–555). Routledge.

- Khoreva, V., Vaiman, V., & Van Zalk, M. (2017). Talent management practice effectiveness: Investigating employee perspective. *Employee Relations*, 39(1), 19–33. <https://doi.org/10.1108/ER-01-2016-0005>
- Kichuk, A., Brown, L., & Ladkin, A. (2019). Talent pool exclusion: The hotel employee perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31(10), 3970–3991. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCHM-10-2018-0814>
- Kline, R. B. (1998). Software review: Software programs for structural equation modelling—AMOS, EQS, and LISREL. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 16, 343–364.
- Kontoghiorghes, C. (2016). Linking high performance organizational culture and talent management: Satisfaction/motivation and organizational commitment as mediators. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27(16), 1833–1853. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2015.1075572>
- Kwon, K., & Jang, S. (2021). There is no good war for talent: A critical review of the literature on talent management. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 44(1), 94–120. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-08-2020-0374>
- Ledford, G., & Kochanski, J. (2004). Allocating training and development resources based on contribution. In Berger, L., & Berger, D. (Eds.), *The talent management handbook: Creating organizational excellence by identifying, developing and promoting your best people* (pp. 218–229). McGraw-Hill.
- Leung, S. (2011). A comparison of psychometric properties and normality in 4-, 5-, 6-, and 11-point Likert scales. *Journal of Social Service Research*, 37(4), 412–421. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01488376.2011.580697>
- Luna-Arocas, R., & Morley, M. J. (2015). Talent management, talent mindset competency and job performance: The mediating role of job satisfaction. *European Journal of International Management*, 9, 28–51.
- Macho, S., & Ledermann, T. (2011). Estimating, testing, and comparing specific effects in structural equation models: The phantom model approach. *Psychological Methods*, 16(1), 34–43.
- Malik, A., & Singh, P. (2014). ‘High potential’ programs: Let’s hear it for ‘B’ players. *Human Resource Management Review*, 24(4), 330–346. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2014.06.001>
- Malik, A., & Singh, P. (2018). The role of employee attributions in the burnout of ‘talented’ employees. *Personnel Review*, 49(1), 19–42. <https://doi.org/10.1108/pr-02-2018-0064>
- Malik, A., & Singh, P. (2020). Outcomes of talent management: The role of perceived equity. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*, 44(2), 277–293. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-04-2020-0153>
- Mensah, J. K. (2015). A ‘coalesced framework’ of talent management and employee performance: For further research and practice. *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 64(4), 544–566.
- Mensah, J. K., & Bawole, J. N. (2018). Testing the mediation effect of person–organisation fit on the relationship between talent management and talented employees’ attitudes. *International Journal of Manpower*, 39(2), 319–333.
- Mensah, J. K., Bawole, J. N., & Wedchayanon, N. (2016). Unlocking the ‘black box’ in the talent management employee performance relationship: Evidence from Ghana. *Management Research Review*, 39(12), 1546–1566.
- Meyers, M., & Van Woerkom, M. (2014). The influence of underlying philosophies on talent management: Theory, implications for practice, and research agenda. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2), 192–203. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2013.11.003>

- Meyers, M., Van Woerkom, M., Paauwe, J., & Dries, N. (2019). HR managers' talent philosophies: Prevalence and relationships with perceived talent management practices. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 31(4), 562–588. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2019.1579747>
- Narayanan, A., Rajithakumar, S., & Menon, M. (2019). Talent management and employee retention: An integrative research framework. *Human Resource Development Review*, 18(2), 228–247.
- Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory*. McGraw-Hill.
- O'Connor, E., & Crowley-Henry, M. (2017). Exploring the relationship between exclusive talent management, perceived organizational justice and employee engagement: Bridging the literature. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 156(4), 903–917.
- Painter-Morland, M., Kirk, S., Deslandes, G., & Tansley, C. (2019). Talent management: The good, the bad, and the possible. *European Management Review*, 16(1), 135–146.
- Peterson, J., Tahssain-Gay, L., & Laila, B. (2022). The impact of exclusivity in talent identification: Sources of perceived injustice and employee reactions. *Employee Relations: The International Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1108/er-03-2021-0123>
- Petriglieri, J., & Petriglieri, G. (2017). The talent curse. *Harvard Business Review*, 95(3), 88–94.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5), 879–903.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods*, 40(3), 879–891.
- Ready, D., Conger, J., Hill, L., & Stecker, E. (2010). The anatomy of a high potential. *Business Strategy Review*, 21(3), 52–55.
- Reji George, R. (2021). *Social capital and talent management: A comparative analysis of foreign and domestic owned hotel companies in South Asia*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Plymouth.
- Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 698–714.
- Rhoades, L., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. (2001). Affective commitment to the organization: The contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5), 825–836. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.86.5.825>
- Rousseau, D. M. (2008). *Psychological contract inventory: Technical report*. Carnegie Mellon University.
- Schaufeli, W. B., & Bakker, A. B. (2006). The measurement of work engagement with a short questionnaire. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 66(4), 701–716.
- Seopa, N., Wöcke, A., & Leeds, C. (2015). The impact on the psychological contract of differentiating employees into talent pools. *Career Development International*, 20, 717–732.
- Silzer, R., & Chpruch, A. (2009). Identifying and assessing high-potential talent: Current organizational practices. In Silzer, R. & Dowell, B. (Eds.), *Strategy-driven talent management: A leadership imperative* (pp. 213–280). Pfeiffer.
- Six, F. E. (2007). Building interpersonal trust within organizations: A relational signalling perspective. *Journal of Management and Governance*, 11(3), 285–309.
- Sonnenberg, M., Van Zijderveld, V., & Brinks, M. (2013). The role of talent-perception incongruence in effective talent management. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2), 272–280. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2013.11.011>

- Steiger, J. H. (2007). Understanding the limitations of global fit assessment in structural equation modelling. *Personality and Individual Differences, 42*, 893–898.
- Swales, S. (2013). Troubling some assumptions: A response to ‘The role of perceived organizational justice in shaping the outcomes of talent management: A research agenda’. *Human Resource Management Review, 23*, 354–356.
- Swales, S., & Blackburn, M. (2016). Employee reactions to talent pool membership. *Employee Relations, 38*(1), 112–128.
- Tansley, C. Personnel Chartered Institute of Development. (2007). *Talent: Strategy, management, measurement*. London: Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD).
- Tansley, C., & Tietze, S. (2013). Rites of passage through talent management progression stages: An identity work perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 24*(9), 1799–1815.
- Tymon, W., Stumpf, S., & Doh, J. (2010). Exploring talent management in India: The neglected role of intrinsic rewards. *Journal of World Business, 45*(2), 109–121.
- Tzafir, S. S., & Dolan, S. L. (2004). Trust me: A scale for measuring manager–employee trust. *Management Research, 2*(2), 115–132. <https://doi.org/10.1108/15365430480000505>
- Zhao, X., Lynch, J. G., & Chen, Q. (2010). Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of Consumer Research, 37*(2), 197–206.

CERTIFICATE OF APPRECIATION



PRESTIGE
INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT, GWALIOR
UGC NAAC ACCREDITED 'A' GRADE AUTONOMOUS INSTITUTE

11th INTERNATIONAL

CONFERENCE ON

Emergence of New Business Practices
For Growth, Competitiveness & Innovation
28-30 DECEMBER, 2019



Collaboration with
Association of International Business & Professional Management, Indonesia

This is to certify that Prof./Dr./Mr./Ms

Rajneet Bhatia, Research Scholar

of Tezpur University

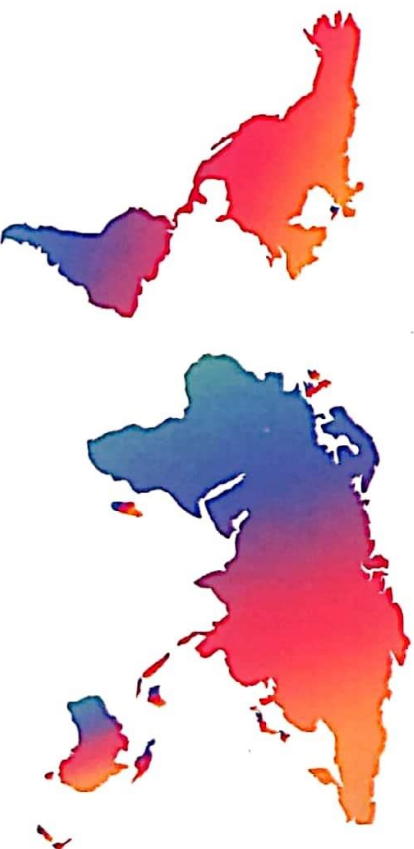
has Chaired / Co-Chaired the Session / Delivered Keynote Address / Delivered Expert Lecture / Rapporteur /

Co-Rapporteur / Participated / Volunteered / Presented a Paper/ Thesis / Titled Exclusive Talent

Management and Its Consequences : A Review of

Literature

in



Dr. Gaurav Jaiswal
Organizing Secretary

Dr. S.S. Bhakar
Conference Chairman

11th International Conference, 2019 organized by Prestige Institute of Management, Gwalior (M.P.) India.



SHAHEED BHAGAT SINGH COLLEGE
UNIVERSITY OF DELHI, INDIA



UNIVERSITY OF DELHI
INDIA

CERTIFICATE OF PRESENTATION

This certificate is awarded to

RAJNEET BHATIA

Of Tezpur University

for the research paper presentation entitled

**NATIONAL CULTURE DRIVES THE INTENSITY OF
ORGANISATIONAL JUSTICE UNDER EXCLUSIVE TALENT
MANAGEMENT STRATEGY: AN INTEGRATIVE RESEARCH**

**INTERNATIONAL E-CONFERENCE ON
ADVANCES IN BUSINESS AND MANAGEMENT**

(4th - 6th March, 2021)

Organized by Shaheed Bhagat Singh College, Department of Commerce, University of Delhi, India

Sundar Radhakrishnan
Vice President - South Asia
Emerald Publishing

Dr. Aarti Saini
Organizing Secretary
IECBM - 2021

ACADEMIC PARTNERS



FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT STUDIES
SABARAGAMUWA UNIVERSITY OF SRI LANKA



FACULTY OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP STUDIES
UNIVERSITY OF TEHRAN, IRAN