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Managers' Responses to Formal and Informal Talent Management Practices: An Exploratory Mixed Methods Study

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MANAGERS' RESPONSES TO FORMAL AND INFORMAL
TALENT MANAGEMENT PRACTICES:
AN EXPLORATORY MIXED METHODS STUDY

by

Adriano Cabral Polonia

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

April 2017

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ABSTRACT

Management of talent ranks high among today's organizational issues. Accordingly, organizations are seeking relevant approaches to markedly interpret and improve employees' talents. Despite these efforts, inconsistent definitions of talent and talent management (TM), along with insufficient empirical research, make it difficult to identify and comprehend the impact of TM practices or its absence on managers and their responses.

A convergent parallel mixed methods design using the Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect (EVLN) framework was used to identify (a) how managers respond to formal and informal talent management practices in organizations and (b) which variables – such as the level of involvement in the TM design process, the level of use of one's skills, and the general level of satisfaction with TM related issues – mainly impact EVLN.

Initially, 70 anonymous quantitative surveys were distributed to a group of managers. Fifteen interviews followed. Data was then examined using both quantitative and qualitative analytical procedures including correlation, independent samples t-test, and regression analysis.

Significant findings revealed that formal TM practices promoted managers' involvement in the TM design process followed by an increase in active constructive responses, while at the same time minimizing passive destructive responses. In addition, significant results showed that formality in TM practices implied higher levels of satisfaction, substantially reducing managers' willingness to leave their organizations.

Further, within informal TM settings, managers tended to rely exclusively on involvement in order to increase active constructive behaviors. This study provides useful data revealing how managers respond in both formal and informal TM settings. Lastly, this study informs theory regarding managers' involvement in the design and implementation of TM practices in organizations.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my daughters as a demonstration of persistence in pursuit of a dream and a different, hopefully, better reality. For them I give all that I can give, and more, as they have provided me all the inspiration to live. To my wife that has been dealing with my "risky" dreams for more than 25 years, and definitely an inspiration for balance and happiness. She is not happy, I am not happy. To my father that taught me to be bigger than the self, and making me believe that all those Saturday afternoons at work were amazing. He literally used every second of his life to share and teach his knowledge. To my mother, a unique individual of power and strength that always made me be aware that to be special you have to do special things. To all my family that raised me as I am, different. To the family that never turned away, gave support and brought me the capacity to be what I am today. To true friends and friendship. And a special care for someone special, Faith.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Talent acquisition and management, along with leadership retention and human resource skills, are one of the top global trends in human capital initiatives (Schwartz, Bersin, & Pelster, 2014). Utilized as an industry term in business practice since the 1990s, today, talent is, more than ever, a critical topic in both business and academic communities (Thunnissen, Boselie, & Fruytier, 2013). This is mainly due to the fact that the relationship between organizations and their employees has changed in recent years. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, longer-term relationships started to become obsolete, and as a result, loyalty was no longer viewed as a significant value in organizations. With this reality in mind, many firms had to find ways to engage the best employees, even knowing that they might leave at any time (CIPD, 2011).

Moreover, the cost of losing or mismanaging key talent represents many months of salary and other incalculable expenditures for organizations. In fact, "failures in talent management are an ongoing source of pain for executives in modern organizations" (Cappelli, 2008, p.1). According to Cappelli (2008), talent management (TM) practices have been dysfunctional, even as leading corporations consistently deal with surpluses and shortfalls of talent. In short, these corporations tend to demonstrate inabilities in coping with today's human related issues in competitive businesses. The improper management of talent in organizations, specifically regarding the misuse of talent analytics, generates talent leaks in the short and long run at both personal and organizational levels. A talent leak is evident when an employee's talent is not being used

properly by an organization. Therefore, as a rule, talent leaks are detrimental to all parties involved.

According to Davenport, Harris, and Shapiro (2010), the information obtained from talent analytics begins with the focus on history data facts and extends to the deployment of talent to changing needs in an organization. Among the different kinds of analytics available to manage a workforce, the talent value model notably addresses the reasons employees choose to stay within a company. Under this perspective, an organization has the ability to use analytics to explore what employees value the most and then create a model to maintain or improve retention rates. Talent data integrates information on performance and achievement in key result areas such as engagement and retention (Davenport et al., 2010), consequently revealing signs of satisfaction levels among employees in general.

When reacting to dissatisfaction, employees may be forced to leave an organization or invest in a new career. The organization may need to resort to searches for fresh talent to fulfill their needs. As a further matter, if dissatisfied employees stay in the organization, they may tend to fail in delivering proper outputs and continue to be unhappy and professionally unsatisfied, under the risk of developing negligent behaviors. Both the exiting and the hanging-on scenarios result in both financial and organizational adversities for the organizations and personal and professional problems for the individuals involved.

Organizations are well aware that selecting the right person to perform a specific job has never been an easy task as the majority of organizations tend to fail in matching talent with existing needs (Beck & Harter, 2014). In other words, effective talent

management systems do not simply acquire qualified people – they are poised to do everything in their power to guarantee that the fit is right (Lawler, 2008). Consequently, it is extremely important for talent management within corporations to keep in mind that individuals are more than just employees. They are each, unique human beings living their purposeful reality while possessing great potential. In addition, they are not only the result of their natural characteristics and abilities combined with all things learned and accomplished from personal and professional experiences, but above all, they also bear distinctive personalities with an array of talents ready to be applied in a proper manner, in the right settings. Academic education, hobbies, sports, arts, and professional training with other plausible influences, often lead people to act as sources of knowledge, motivation, and, desires, thus, real or hypothetical leaders in the field of their learning experiences. This integral perspective offers a broader view on how talent can actually be acquired, rather than assuming merely that talent is exclusively innate (McCall, 1998).

When considering the hiring side, many organizations focus on their own interests, goals, and lines of growth and development. Regardless of their level of success, these organizations have incorporated what they consider appropriate strategies, adequate plans of action, and the best ways of managing their human resources. The question, however, remains whether or not those organizations are offering enough suitable attention in order to perceive how an employee's talents can be properly applied and maximized keeping the balance between what is critical for the organization and what is important for the employee (Farndale, Pai, Sparrow, & Scullion, 2014) and how talent management practices and level of formality may impact managers' behaviors.

Statement of the Problem

Inconsistent definitions of talent and talent management (See Appendix A for a suggested definition of Terms and Variables) in both non-academic and academic fields of study, along with insufficient empirical literature on the subject make it very difficult to identify and understand many critical points of TM. On top of that, recent studies show that many organizations are not ready to address talent and human resource analytics, as well as performance management (Schwartz et al., 2014) many times relying merely on obtained sales results at the end of the year. Many organizations still make gross mistakes like "treat[ing] human beings like interchangeable widgets" (Davenport et al. 2010, p. 6). This could well be the result of organizations not following some basic principles of effective talent management such as the involvement of managers themselves (Stahl, Björkman, Farndale, Morris, Paauwe, Stiles, …, & Wright, 2012; Lawler, 2008), along with other principles including the alignment of TM practices with the organization's strategy, and the balancing of everyone's needs when considering talent management. According to Stahl et al. (2012), successful organizations must assume that the TM process needs to have broad ownership (Stahl et al., 2012). This means that if senior leaders at various organizational levels are not fully involved in the design and decision-making processes defining how their talents are to be utilized within an organization, the senior leaders may possibly end up exiting the organization or if staying engaging in passive aggression and/or other destructive behaviors. Additionally, although women represent half of the world's population, female managers are still rare in many countries (European Commission, 2012), and little is known about the role talent management

practices might have on women's decisions in organizational settings. And this is also part of the problem I intended to study within this research.

In essence, the involvement of managers in the process of talent management is not to be seen as one more Human Resources' practice (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007). This needs to be viewed critically at the leadership level in an effort to create a mindset that talent management is a challenge that needs to be faced by leaders and decision makers in any organization at all levels in a timely manner. Organizations and their leaders must realize that formal or informal TM practices, may have effects on how people behave in organizations, and when happening specifically in senior management positions it can bring strong damage at many levels (Guthridge, Komm & Lawson, 2006), eventually financially, psychologically, and professionally. According to Guthridge, Komm and Lawson (2006) in a study where 50 CEO's were interviewed across Africa, Europe, Asia and North America, senior managers don't spend enough quality time on talent management issues and, in many cases, talent management is not aligned with an organizational strategy, weakening organizational effectiveness. Therefore, although assessment on performance exists, such as this important study, it may not be well conducted in organizations in order for them to perceive what is really critical in today's organizational success.

While there is a growing body of work focusing on evaluating people in the workplace, and specifically on assessing peoples' skills, studies analyzing the impact of TM practices on employees' behaviors choices is apparently insufficient. Dries (2013) summary of relevant theoretical perspectives on talent clearly indicates there is little evidence depicting how people specifically opt to respond in a certain way according to

their exposure to TM practices or its absence. Hence, the question of how individuals will respond to less crafted, or sometimes inexistent TM policies and practices remains.

Purpose of the Study

According to Cappelli (2008), the primary reason employees leave an organization is due to the fact that they can typically find more suitable opportunities elsewhere. Employees may opt for destructive behaviors, including choosing to leave, if they do not get the jobs and organizational environment they desire. As a result, talent development is often seen as a "perishable commodity" (Cappelli, 2008, p. 4), and this is mainly because companies do not balance the interests of employees with their own legitimate interests as organizations. With this in mind, the purpose of this study was to first examine responses of seventy managers from service industry organizations with similar areas of activity, in the same sector (n=70), focusing specifically on how these organizations utilize managers' talent and how organizations are aware of managers' involvement and the use of their skills. A major point of contention in the study was whether or not current more informal talent management practices, either not integrated nor aligned with corporate strategy, or not grounded on valid talent data analytics (Cheese, Thomas, & Craig, 2008; Stahl et al., 2012) can in fact influence managers' decisions to either stay or leave their organizations. Thereby, these talent management practices were measured in this study in order to verify eventual promotion of, for example, destructive and/or passive responses to dissatisfaction with talent management related issues.

In order to better perceive, how managers respond to different levels of formality, satisfaction, and involvement, the study used a valid and solid construct with

approximately 30 years of success in different research areas. The study used the EVLN model, a framework of Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect (Hirschman 1970; Rusbult, Zembrodt & Gunn, 1982), to categorize responses to formal and informal talent management practices. These responses and possible impact by independent variables such as the Level of Involvement in the Talent Management Design Process, the Level of Use of One's Skills, and the General Level of Satisfaction with Talent Management related issues were taken in consideration. The EVLN model and its application will be described in larger detail in literature review in Chapter II.

Research Questions

The following research questions guided the study:

1. How are managers responding, using EVLN, to indefinite talent management practices in organizations that do not have formal talent management practices?

2. To what extent does Level of Involvement in the TM Design Process, the Level of Use of One's Skills, and the General Level of Satisfaction with TM related issues each impact EVLN responses?

Summary of Methodology and Design

The study included seventy, conveniently selected, service industry managers' responses to formal and informal TM practices. Informal talent management practices are considered those not well defined or vague, or even sometimes absent TM practices. Formal talent management practices are those aligned with an organizational strategy, with clear talent data analytics and integrated with relevant policies within the organization. A convergent parallel mixed methods design was used where both

anonymous surveys and interviews were used to those who volunteered to accept the challenge to participate in this last part of the study.

Assumptions, Limitations and Delimitations

Assumptions

Leedy and Ormrod (2010) affirm, "Assumptions are so basic that, without them, the research problem itself could not exist" (p. 62). This study is no exception, as I must accept that each assumption is true, otherwise the study could not have progressed. Thus, the very first assumption made is that I believe that managers working in service industry organizations in Europe and the United States would provide me with honest and truthful responses. Another assumption is that I expected that the three independent variables chosen for this study would in fact prove to be the most accurate, based on previous research. Additionally, the independent variables have an impact on my particular work on how managers behave towards the way talent is managed in their organizations.

Limitations

In this research limitations are present by the fact that I possess deep control over the variables thereby potentially causing risk to incur within the creation of an artificial situation. However, since the work in this study is performed in the managers' natural settings, in their organizations, the risk is consequently diminished. Using a sample of convenience when selecting the managers in service organizations, as opposed to a random sample, the results of this study may be suggested for further application in other settings or industries.

Another limitation had to do with time. This study was conducted over a certain interval providing a snapshot dependent on conditions occurring during that specific

period. Finally, asking people to report their behavior in a survey and then followed by an interview may not be as reliable as asking people to report their eating or exercising habits. In any case, the fact that this is a convergent parallel mixed methods study helps mitigate this limitation simply by the fact that approximately one fourth of the sample population was interviewed for validation purposes of their responses. In other words, by choosing the convergent parallel mixed methods the intention was to reduce as much as possible any eventual unreliable responses as this is a sensitive matter for the managers involved in the study.

Finally, due to the fact that the study includes participants from both North America and various countries in Europe, I cannot fully access, the impact of cultural context in managers' responses to formal and informal talent management practices.

Delimitations

Delimitations are characteristics that limit the scope and define the boundaries of a study. In this particular case, several delimitations followed. First, the definitions of the objective of the study and consequent research questions are themselves delimitations. Secondly, the model chosen and consequent selection of the independent, and dependent variables, were also delimitation. By way of choosing the EVLN model as possible responses and considering three particular variables that could possibly impact those responses, I have delimited the boundaries of the responses, possibly conditioning the managers to respond through a pre-determined lens where they expressed their attitudes and behavior. Finally, another delimitation was concerning geography since the managers in service organizations were selected by convenience of site in Europe, and the United States where I have developed my career as a professional consultant, trainer, and

executive coach as well as a student and consequently having access to a vast network containing many managers who work in services such as education, hotel management, software development, consulting, and services outsourcing among others. Therefore, the organizations were in the same or similar area of activity that in many cases did not currently have strong formal TM practices or systems implemented. In this study, a formal TM system is one that has identified very strong signs of integration with a global organizational strategy and practices that produce sufficient evident strong data for analytical purposes.

Significance of the Study

This study, linking managers' responses to organizational TM practices, is a beneficial factor for organizational control as well as an important contributor to empirical literature for this particular academic field of study. Acknowledging and depicting potential deficiencies specifically regarding the utilization of TM resources is essential to observing and managing employees' performance. Additionally, with this study organizations will have the ability to acquire specific data designed to clarify managers' responses to eventual lack of formality and seriousness of purpose when applying TM practices. Furthermore, this research consisting of seventy managers from such a wide range of organizations, will offer a compelling view of the state of mind of an informal TM organizational environment. Studies indicate that high involvement places a great amount of importance on what top individuals can actually do in an organization (Lawler, 2008), which is key to success when designing and implementing a TM practice.

At the academic level this study will provide an opportunity to build theory and close a gap in the implementation of talent management practices and the development of TM systems, specifically concerning how managers respond to both well defined, and vague talent management practices, and how their involvement is critical in both organizational and professional satisfaction. Some studies, while considering the implementation of TM practices, rarely focus on how managers respond towards that implementation or the lack of it. In other words, studies rarely focus on how managers are critically involved in the design and implementation process. Moreover, due to the level of control I have over the variables, the results are of high relevance. Furthermore, valid and reliable measurement of the variables, thus straightforward determination of the cause and effect relationship is also of high relevance, as causality is critical for predicting other similar situations. The methods of statistical analysis chosen for this study allowed appropriate inferential conclusions about the hypothesis. By conducting both bivariate and multivariate correlations, as well as independent samples t-tests followed by multiple and linear regression analysis, it was possible to have a clear picture of what really is critical in retaining the best people in organizations by properly managing their talent.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Importance of Talent and Talent Management in Today's Organizations

Talent Management has gained extreme importance in organizations' decision making processes. Putting people in the right place is not just anymore a Human Resources decision as all managers and senior leaders must be lively involved in all matters related to organizational fit and general happiness. As a result, the effective care of people has become crucial for the purpose of fulfilling not organizational goals but specifically people's goals. Without the right people, and people satisfied with their jobs it will be difficult to have successful organizations. The fact that many studies are predicting a shortage of talent has to do not only with lack of skills but essentially with the leakage of skills. Organizations may be losing touch with the capacities of decision makers. More than ever people get to be trained and educated and can easily access to information. So, organizations must stop to think why are people leaving organizations and why organizational loyalty is no longer a reality (Lawler, 2008).

Moreover, in many countries, organizations are known as more male-oriented. Traditionally, a trend exists where males occupy positions in paid work, whereas women specialize in unpaid family work. As a result, in these settings, males are seen more in line with values such as, competition, status, hierarchy and control (Wajcman, 1998; Maier, 1999). This perspective of gender-bias in talent management settings clearly demonstrates a potential reason why women may not be involved in the design of talent management practices.

A Brief Look at the Literature on Talent and

Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect (EVLN)

The focus of this study mainly shows managers' responses to both formal and informal talent management practices predicting they react and respond when their talent is not properly used, or when their satisfactions levels are low, or when they are not involved in talent management related issues. Using the EVLN framework, managers were able to provide more or less active or more or less constructive responses to how organizations manage their talent. Consequently, in this section I will share specific literature on talent, talent management and the EVLN model (Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect).

Literature on talent and TM varies greatly and is mainly streamed from areas such as human resources management, and psychology, and in particular in its sub-fields of industrial, organizational, educational, vocational, positive, and social psychology (Dries, 2013). This variety of approaches reflects the importance of studying the individual, his relationship with others, and his relationship with the organization as a whole all while contemplating possible different responses depending on the way talent is managed. According to Dries (2013), there has been a significant increase in the total number of publications on talent management between 1990 and 2013. However, very few have received notable attention from academics with only about 100 of the 7000 articles published on talent management in that period incorporated into academic journals, identified talent management as the keyword. Using talent and talent management as keywords on a Google search, Thunnissen et al. (2013) found between 2001 and 2012 that the number of hits was over 170,000 for publications on talent management. This

search provided a particular insight into the wide range of publications and sources relating to talent and talent management. The search, performed through 'Academic Search Premier', 'Science Direct', 'Web of Knowledge' and 'Scopus' databases, focused on academic literature on talent in general. Thunnissen et al. (2013) concluded that approximately two-thirds of the analyzed academic papers on talent management were about the concept of talent and talent management, revealing the uncertainty of the term and a search for a solid definition that could allow further development.

Thus, when looking at the numbers and facts related to the literature on talent, initial conclusions mainly relate to the way talent and talent management are defined, and how they are differently interpreted in both practitioner and academic fields (Lewis & Heckman, 2006), as well as in their own areas of practice and study. In fact, in the academic field, where many perspectives are theoretical talent is defined as capital, as giftedness, or as strength (Dries, 2013). Indeed, the perception of talent lies itself in how it can influence judgment in the decision-making process of hiring or allocating people to perform a job or task is in question (Dries, 2013). Moreover, the existence of many streams connected to human resources, career planning, and performance (Lewis & Heckman, 2006) reveal a concentration in one single aspect of talent management that contrasts with the multi-aspect approach sought by Collings and Mellahi (2009). Multiple perspectives on approaching talent and the way it can be managed oftentimes show talent management as a process with its own inputs, transformation and respective outputs (Thunnissen et al., 2013). Although it is not the purpose of this review to succinctly define both talent and talent management, a more distinctive definition will be provided in the "Talent Defined" section of this chapter for clarification purposes along with a

sample of what are considered the most used definitions in both academia and business. A suggested definition for both talent and talent management is also provided in Appendix A – Definition of Terms and Variables.

Literature on Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect (EVLN) has been applied in the most varied of settings. According to (Grima & Glaymann, 2012) interest in both managerial and academic fields relating to the use of the EVLN model has increased in numerous studies. Many examples come from the most diverse fields of study as for instance, the many consequences of dissatisfaction in the workplace (Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988; Vangel, 2011), or the use of EVLN as responses to dissatisfaction in romantic involvements (Rusbult et al., 1982) or even behavioral responses in Total Quality Management environments (Polonia, 1996). Over time, the EVLN model has undergone many conceptual alterations, particularly relating to its initial options and the forms that each of the variables can assume (Grima & Glaymann, 2012). As an example, Withey and Cooper (1989) point to differences between passive loyalty and active loyalty on their study of predicting Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect. However, active loyalty represents many times the concept of Voice as a response variable. Moreover, regarding methodological issues, many studies have used different approaches and methods such as longitudinal designs (Grima & Glaymann, 2012; Withey & Cooper, 1989) and multiple regression (Naus, Iterson, & Roe 2007; Rusbult et al., 1988), as well as meta-analysis considering different studies (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992), to name a few.

Foundational Talent Described in Organizational Settings

Issues related with the development of people are not new. They have always been a serious focus, especially in the 1950's, as many of the actions seen in today's organizations, oftentimes interpreted as innovative, were in fact commonplace in those times (Cappelli, 2008). In the immediate decades following, these practices became critical for firms to survive, and only those that stuck to strongly founded management principles were able to successfully remain (Cappelli, 2008). What has not been predicted was that some of the organizations that developed their people were actually developing them not only for their firms, but also for the market in general. The result was that many organizations that focused solely on hiring the best human resources, gave way to an era of war for talent (Michaels, Handfield-Jones, & Axelrod, 2001), thus generating an interesting and very attractive business based literature on TM, even without having a clear perception of what talent really meant. Nonetheless, according to these authors, the war for talent involved more than just recruiting tactics. Rather, the war was mainly about the principles of attracting, developing, and retaining highly talented managers.

In 1998, the McKinsey Quarterly published the results of a 1997 extensive survey that revealed considerable information on how talent was becoming critical in daily organizational living, referring that superior talent would be the future in competitive advantage (Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin, & Michaels, 1998). This article triggered many Chief Executive Officers (CEO's) in ways that made them realize their need to think innovatively not only to recruit but specifically to hold talented people as part of their competitive strategies. Since then, and in order to create quality analytical information for management decisions on people, the utilization and assessment of

employees' talents became critical among organizational issues and still is in today's

organizations (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007; Lawler, 2008). Several types of assessments

on people and their performance were then developed by many organizations, giving way

to a new era of analytics and data information on people. Nonetheless, the majority of

those assessments were simply adapted from human resources practices where this type

of information is typically found. This is where Boudreau & Ramstad (2007) affirm that

talentship cannot be just another human resources idea or program planned and run

independently from the decision-making processes in organizations. This was much more

of a greater extent to be understood at all organizational departments and levels.

Furthermore, with a desire to improve talent and its application in competitive

settings, companies invested, and are still investing, in improving employees'

performance (Bassi & McMurrer, 2007). To be sure, many tools have been created to

assess talent in organizational settings. However, the majority of these have been

designed and utilized for developmental or decision-making purposes only (Church &

Rotolo, 2013). The tools and the literature surrounding talent, more often than not, have

ignored specific related issues such as the development of career paths or the role of

recognition practices, and even more, the integrated combination of all these elements,

integrated in a whole organizational vision and mission. Moreover, a tendency to use

processes and procedures that have been proven to function well in other areas exists,

especially in areas related to human resources, rather than to create and implement unique

processes and procedures specifically focused on talent development (Thunnissen et al.,

2013) and created at the source. Nevertheless, organizations are now, more than ever,

claiming to seek effective ways to quickly and accurately assess what they call their most

important assets, i.e., their people (Stahl et al., 2012), while simultaneously trying to be legitimately successful by selling their products and services in competitive markets.

Talent Defined

Talent is one of those areas that, due to its many perspectives and approaches, created innumerous tensions especially related to its definition, how it can be learned and implemented, and how it can be conditioned from its environment (Dries, 2013). According to the same author, these tensions have implications on the way TM policies and practices are deployed, as they can be related to competency management, career management, selection, assessment, and performance, just to mention a few. With so many definitions and approaches to talent, it seems that talent can mean whatever a business leader or writer wants it to mean (Ulrich, 2011). Recently, definitions of talent have grown in number and importance across organizations and among researchers (Schiemann, 2014), however, the word talent is thousands of years old, and since its existence it has been reflected in many ways, from currency to weight units, until it was finally perceived as something related with what people can actually do and perform (Tansley, 2011).

Despite the length of time the word talent has been in existence, the fact is that today, many still see it from the most varied of perspectives, finding it hard to arrive at a consensus (Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries, & Gonzalez-Cruz, 2013; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Tansley, 2011). The definitions of talent remain complex, ambiguous and in many ways incomplete (Ross, 2013) appearing to be the reason why there are so many different ways of interpreting talent management in practice (Ariss, Cascio, & Paauwe, 2013). Moreover, there is no single or universal contemporary definition of talent in any

language (Tansley, 2011). Tansley argued on the basis of studies performed in relating different languages, showing different approaches to the understanding of talent and the way it should be managed according to the cultural and social context in which it is applied. Consequently, it is not just a matter of the perception of cultural realities, but also a concern with the local language that is used by the people where the business is to be implemented. It has to do with the history of each country and the significance of the wording (Tansley, 2011). For example, according to the same author, studies have revealed denotative and connotative associations of the term talent in the English language (Tansley, 2011). This means that in some cases definitions may be literal and direct and of easy access to understanding, and other definitions may not be so obvious and clear due to the use of associations or metaphors to indicate the meaning of talent. In some northern European countries, like Germany, Denmark, and Russia, talent is considered an innate giftedness or ability, while in other cultures, like in Japan, although talent is recognized as an ability, it is not considered an innate one (Tansley, 2011). Talent is developed through times and gets better with experience. Although Tansley does not define talent for the countries specifically subject of this research the fact is that many central European countries have always adopted American management literature when it regards to coursing business in its prestigious universities. According to Pudelko and Harzing (2007) from 1990's and onwards the effect of globalization affected Europe so much that there were many studies focusing in how European management can actually be, opening ways for the sharing of borderless knowledge and sharing. So, the word talent and the possible cultural affect is believed to not be an issue in this study, but that does not take away the many different interpretations and perspectives in existence.

As a whole, the way talent is seen is so varied, that talent can be interpreted for instance as a superior ability (Gagné, 2000; Michaels et al., 2001; Tansley, Harris, Stewart, & Turner, 2006), or simply as a commitment (Ulrich, 2007). Others can see it also as a competency or a set of competencies (Ulrich, 2007) or the capacity to express knowledge (Michaels et al., 2001; Tansley et al., 2006).

Talent is also often related to the term skill (Gagné, 2000; Michaels et al., 2001; Tansley et al. 2006), one of the most used interpretations in organizational settings, along with the term ability (Tansley, 2011). Although there is a great deal of empirical work on ability in psychology and educational fields that may be useful in helping to define talent, those perspectives are not often seen or discussed within the talent management field of study. Barab and Plucker's (2002) work on cognition, ability and talent development, points to an interesting view on this subject, which is that, talent and ability are treated as similar terms. Barab and Plucker (2002) consider that talent and ability represent "a collection of functional relations distributed across persons and particular contexts through which individuals appear knowledgeably skillful" (Barab & Plucker 2002, p. 166). Thus, according to these authors, talent and ability are not strictly linked to personal ownership like a simple trait, but are instead connected to a series of experiences that can be learned throughout life in professional and personal settings, according to the environment and the access to socio-cultural content (Barab & Plucker, 2002). Hence, these differing perspectives and the fact that they still are far apart from each other, take us to the acceptance that talent still remains in its infancy in terms of definition, practice, and research (Tansley, 2011).

From a different lens, talent may as well be connected to present development and performance, but it can also be highly related with the potential performance of an individual, projecting one's capacities into the future (Tansley et al. 2006). Therefore, talent is many times seen as a complex amalgam of skills, knowledge, cognitive ability and potential (Tansley et al. 2006). However, it can also represent the sum of a person's abilities, combining intrinsic gifts, skills, knowledge, and experience (Michaels et al., 2001) that can be used in present or future situations.

At the organizational level, organizations may have different types of work that influence how talent can be perceived (Tansley, 2011). For instance, a strong relationship between talent and success is often assumed. This leads people to think that by having talent one is or will be successful, meaning also that the most successful people, are often recognized as the most talented (Ross, 2013). However, the inverse is not always true, indicating we can find many talented individuals that never reach high levels of success (Ross, 2013). This perspective is not comprehensively explored in the TM literature, leaving way for further identification, development, and application of talent in organizational settings.

Today, looking at what organizations value, talent has become highly connected with human capital and performance as it has a disposition to be related with mental endowment or natural abilities (Tansley, 2011). Likewise, managers frequently refer to their workforce as the talent of the organization, recognizing that people are the organization's most important assets (Ashton & Morton, 2005). Along with Tansley's approach, Gagné (2000) refers that talent exists in those very few individuals who have the necessary capabilities to make a difference in any field of human endeavor and sees

talent as the complete domain of abilities or skills systematically developed throughout times (Gagné, 2000). In fact, Gagné (2000) differentiates gifts from talents mentioning that talents result from the transformation of high aptitudes such as intellectual, creative, socio-affective, and sensorimotor - into skills that can be trained and developed in a systematic way, in any field of human activity. In this perspective, Gagné (2000) refers to natural abilities as the raw materials from where one can build talent. Because of this, the question to whereas talent is innate or can actually be learned, is a long discussion not only in organizations but also among academics. Most human resource management scholars and practitioners seem to believe that talent is innate, at least to some extent. Hinrichs (1966), for instance, defines talent as a native ability, thus not fully connecting with the possibility of learning as Gagné (2000) strongly suggests.

Despite the fact some authors refer that TM policies differ according to the assumption that talent can be innate or acquired (Meyers, Woerkom, & Dries, 2013), it is not my main intention to discuss whether talent is innate or can be learned. However, since the focus of this study is on the issue of the implementation of TM practices and also how people react to the degree of formality applied, it is here assumed that talent exists one way or the other and that all individuals have learned something useful throughout their lives, in different ways, that needs to be applied and recognized in an organizational setting. So, when assumptions exist, pointing to possibilities that not all workers are talented in an organizational setting, this narrow view may signify that: first, organizations may not be focusing on best recruiting and development practices, and second that many leaders may not be ready to face the radical challenges of today's businesses concerning their human resources, having the courage to face this issue at

their level of decision instead of leaving it for the human resources departments.

Although contradictions continue when considering the definition of talent, a natural ability or aptitude (Tansley, 2011), others see it as the result of an individual's learning experience. Yet, facts suggest that talent is often connected to outstanding performance (Meyers, 2015) and is needed for organizations to perform at excellent levels (Gallardo-Gallardo et al., 2013). Still, organizations do not always consistently perform at excellent levels. Managers occasionally make nonsensical decisions but that doesn't make them unintelligent, and it is the organizations' obligation as a whole to detect where talent is actually leaking throughout their decision-making process (Hunt, 2014).

Researching the literature on talent has only been mildly helpful in determining a solid definition within organizational settings. Consequently, the following is a distinctive definition I have developed for clarity: Talent is the result or the output of one's ability to be a source of literally anything that adds value to an organization. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the leaders to, ethically and respectfully manage people as sources in order to understand how talent can be interpreted and decoded so it can be used as raw material to obtain specific outputs for the organization in those areas in need. With this in mind several implications may actually take place in the organization and with impact on the literature to be developed in this area and others related. First, the entire concept of leadership may need to be built upon the premise that by being a source one automatically becomes a leader of self, resulting in organizations now viewing all individuals as sources of information, knowledge, and abilities, and ultimately collective progress. Thus, all workers are considered leaders based on their

knowledge and capabilities and authenticity (Klenke, 2007). Secondly, classic organizational structures may no longer prove valid as moving forward talent will be used to bring value to a process, project or product under the customer orientation perspective (Lawler, 2008). Finally, where the responsibility of managing talent falls is a question of basis for development not only in organizations but also regarding the literature itself, since much of it is found in conjunction with human resources practices (Dries, 2013). Rather, this function may have to be coordinated and performed by those managing people as sources, and leaving only data and analytical details to human resources departments. As previously discussed, talent leaks may tend to provoke dissatisfaction and passive and destructive behaviors. Therefore, select managers should become intimate with all issues related to talent management and with particular attention on heightened awareness of those individuals frustrated from feeling their talents are not being properly availed.

Talent Management Defined

Talent management has always been considered by many to be a primary driver for organizations to obtain success (Lockwood, 2006). It is the ability to anticipate the need for human capital in order to set out a plan to meet those needs in very uncertain and competitive markets (Cappelli, 2008). Talent management, however, can also be related to less objective and goal oriented procedures as it can also be seen as a strategic and holistic approach to human resources and business planning (Ashton & Morton, 2005). Furthermore, some consider that talent management should remain in the domain of human resources (Creelman, 2015; Hunt, 2014; Lawler, 2008; Meyers & Van Woerkom, 2014) while others see its identification and development as so critical to organizations,

that it needs separate internal management beyond the human resources sphere, as mentioned before. Considered by some authors to be different from strategic human resources management (Collings & Mellahi, 2009), some refer to talent management as part of it, and a must in order to manage talent in an organization (Hunt, 2014). Lawler (2008) is clear when considering the human resources piece as a focal point in human capital development. Creelman (2015) goes even further as the author mentions that in order to be successful in implementing talent management policies, organizations have to be ready to own the process and have its own mindset. The reason seems simple and straightforward as much of the success or failure of a TM model is highly linked with the connection TM has with rewards, career paths, employee development, and even hiring among others, and so it is oftentimes seen as an integrated vision (Hunt, 2014; Waheed & Zaim, 2015).

Business and consulting firms have been in many situations driving forces of TM at the organizational level while often knowing and sometimes ignoring the lack of theoretical frameworks at the academic level (Ariss et al., 2013). Global consulting firms such as Accenture and Deloitte, are keen and on the forefront of concerns and details relating to talent management and the importance of success in this critical area (Gartside, Yang, Sloman, & Cantrell (2014). These consulting firms have developed great work on trends of TM at the global level and its consequent impact on how people must be managed in the future and have used talent analytics not only to study skills that are needed by companies that want to perform at a global level, but also for the measurement of cultural norms and values, and educational systems, and the skills that they produce when aiming to achieve culturally specific outcomes. Consulting giants

Deloitte use the same wording and definition for TM related issues, however they focus

mainly on the areas of leadership and development, and name its principles as attracting

and engaging, and as transforming and reinventing (Schwartz et al., 2014).

In summary, the terms talent and talent management have acquired various

meanings, nevertheless, mostly connected with the human resources areas (Ariss et al.,

2013), leading many times to biased approaches in how one can actually apply talent in

an organizational setting. As a result, the literature on TM becomes biased as many times

appears as old human resources theories put together. The assessment of talent and its

impact will help explain some of the foundations of what is currently a talent

management system of practices. Following is a detailed explanation and relationship.

The Assessment of Talent and its Impact

Evidence suggests that the assessment of talent is not being managed in a

systematic and consistent way across organizational lines (Stahl et al., 2012). Thus, how

people are being valued and managed in order to progress in their organizations is an

issue that has been growing in importance in both the business and academic

communities. Today, more than just a buzzword, talent, and the way it is assessed,

assumes critical relevance regarding human potential maximization, while opening the

way to effectively develop human resources, thereby concentrating on satisfying all

aspects involved. The assessment is strongly connected with performance and therefore

the use of the expression human capital as a central piece for organizations to value their

employees. Academically speaking, and although talent management has received

notable attention in academic literature in the last decade (Thunnissen et al., 2013), there

are relatively few empirical approaches to its assessment in corporations, and even fewer

that focus specifically on the assessment of high-potentials and senior executives across

organizations (Church & Rotolo, 2013). Schiemann (2014) adds that the measurement of

talent is weak when concerning its strategic framework and integration. The same applies

to how talent can be influenced by external environmental factors. One of the few studies

by McDonnell, Lamare, Gunnigle, and Lavelle (2010) revealed that companies classified

as multinationals working in economic sectors characterized by low investment in

technology have a greater tendency to create more formal management systems that

allow them to develop their employees with high potential. As a result, today, besides

being designed to support people when performing on their jobs, technology may also

tend to replace workers who are unable to evolve with ever-changing and transformative

advances within their given industry. In the past, the pace of change rarely put jobs in

danger. However, progressive interaction with these technologies has become crucial

usually requiring adjustments and education for the necessary skills and capabilities to

work with advanced technological issues (Lund, Manyika, & Ramaswamy, 2012).

Two other studies offer different approaches to the measurement of talent. Nijs,

Gallardo-Gallardo, Dries, and Sels (2014) analyzed the definition of talent and linked it

to literature from areas of management and psychology that utilized measures of talent.

Their work, "A multidisciplinary review into the definition, operationalization and

measurement of talent", reflects not only the difficulty in defining talent, but also the

difficulty in measuring it. These authors shared the importance of the organizational

context when referring to talent. All this makes it very difficult to come to a consensus on

the design, implementation and evaluation of TM practices in organizational settings

where senior leaders typically rely on their own interpretation even when in the same

organization, especially when systems are not formalized. Furthermore, they refer in their findings that the definition of talent and the way it can be measured is highly influenced by personal characteristics both from the person who assesses and the person that is being assessed. Nijs et al. (2014), concluded that talent is something that an individual can hold and develop in order to achieve better results towards excellence. This supports more of an individual perspective in defining and measuring talent.

Another approach, taken by Church and Rotolo (2013) shows their results on a surveyed panel of senior executives and experienced professionals across top organizations in the United States to describe the application of talent measurement tools in organizational settings of top American companies recognized for practicing TM principles. Church and Rotolo (2013) used a benchmark study approach to determine the number and type of assessments used for the purpose of development and decision-making determined at global, regional and local levels. Through an anonymous online survey, they found that more than 70% of the sample used some sort of formal assessment. However, one needs to be mindful that these organizations are known and mentioned by the authors as highly recognized in the practice of talent management (Church & Rotolo, 2013). According to the authors, talent management is important for the companies where the study was developed and this contrasts with previous studies that have shown talent management to be of less importance for companies that may not have the concern for the management of talent within their strategic agendas.

The main differences between the two studies mentioned above point to more organic or less organic TM models. One is definitely supported and influenced by the organizational context and its success depends on who assesses and who is assessed,

while the other is supported on a more mechanical and predictable perspective relying on

clear processes with clearly stated activities. Moreover, by displaying an array of tools

designed for assessment, the authors from both studies showed some of the many

different perspectives currently in use. Nijs et al. (2014) were concerned with measuring

less widely measured variables such as innate ability and affective components. They

viewed these two vectors as critically important for employees to give their best effort at

work. This perspective is often less used by organizations because they do not offer the

readiness for analysis and comparison that other methods do. Church and Rotolo (2013),

on the other hand, were concerned with organizational tools that are more widely used in

varied contexts from local to global perspectives. Their approach leans toward a more

planned managerial approach than the more organic approach by Nijs et al. (2014).

However, there were also aspects in common from the two studies as both authors

pointed to the utilization of multiple talent assessment methods and suggested this as a

useful way of getting better and more accurate information in order to manage talent.

Regarding the utilization of multisource tools, Smither, London and Reilly (2005)

on a different work related with performance improvement, but based on multisource

feedback, argued that the use of diverse methods of feedback on performance reduces the

bias that may result from using only one method. This is a useful perspective in that the

improvement of performance is also linked with the management and assessment of

talent in particular. In order to develop talent one needs to improve its performance. The

authors share that in order to improve one's performance, it is essential to understand the

characteristics of feedback, and then it is possible to develop the appropriate goals,

thereby better understanding any potential or necessary actions. One must also realize

that these developments may perhaps be influenced by personality factors, beliefs about

change, and the perceived need for change as well (Smither et al., 2005). Nonetheless,

this may not be an accepted common practice for all types of settings. According to

Smither et al. (2005), it seems that some people may benefit from this approach, but it is

necessary to more fully understand the specific circumstances where this can be viewed

as a success. Using multisource instruments such as 360-degree feedback, personality

assessments or even performing simple interviews, can indicate a person's value and

consequently open the way for less erroneous paths for development. Church and Rotolo

(2013) also conclude that the utilization of multisource instruments is a sign of the

existence of an agenda by organizations that are interested in defining the right policies

for the measurement of talent and thus develop their employees in a more effective and

serious manner. Under this perspective coaching, for example, can assume a critical

position as a feasible and important tool to provide feedback and help people moving

from where they stand to where they want or need to be. The level of use of one's skills

relies on the ability to know about which skills one actually has, so the importance of

measuring along with the possibility of establishing a personalized relationship with a

coach is of great importance for all parts involved.

Another interesting fact has to do with the wording used in TM when referring to

talent measurement and assessment. According to Thunnissen et al. (2013) organizations

use many different expressions. These authors brought to light that recruitment, staffing,

succession, planning, training and development, and retention management were favored

instead. Sonnenberg, Zijderveld, and Brinks (2014) findings on talent management

practices reported that related activities were identified as communication mechanisms

that promoted recruitment and identification strategies that were only recently linked with development and performance management. Measurement and assessment appear to occur through routine evaluation procedures related to management in general and human resources in particular, but not specifically with talent. Stahl et al. (2012) demonstrated that talent measurement is dispersed in the performance management area. These findings suggest that there are few instruments available that are specifically designed for the assessment of talent.

From a global point of view, Gartside et al. (2014) shared five key talent management practices for companies to succeed in international markets. Without mentioning the words measurement or assessment, these authors called for analytics regarding the number of skills needed for the employees to succeed in global markets. They also refer to cultural norms and values, educational systems, and the skills that the systems produce. According to the same authors, this is critical for companies that want to become experts on the global talent map, meaning that they need to know when and where to hire talent, and when and who they need to develop. This is fundamental in terms of cost efficiency decisions when companies decide to spread their businesses across other cultural realms Gartside et al. (2014). In other words, it is often more advantageous to partner with companies that know the market, taking advantage of that knowledge, and obtaining the skills needed for success (Gartside et al., 2014). These authors viewed these analytics as critical to managing talent in different parts of the world taking into account the contexts associated in each area. As an example of how different it is to manage talent in various countries, the authors reference India, where turnover is relatively high and there is a shortage of talent in managerial positions. As a

result, attraction and retention policies have to be developed in order to keep the best human resources connected to the organization, from recruitment and selection to actual permanency in the company. On the other hand, in certain parts of Europe, social protection laws oblige companies to treat employees as human resources and as liabilities, implying that attraction and retention is not such a critical factor, but instead the retraining and redeployment of talent become the most important factors to motivate and keep employees engaged (Gartside et al., 2014). This is what happens for example in the Portuguese labor market and other Southern European countries where regulations are on the side of the employee implying that organizations are in a constant process of reinventing. This seems to be a good point, however, there are limits and those refer to the fact that when evaluating people and knowing that many times they cannot progress in an organization, the evaluations become unrealistic bringing many times excellent employees to levels of normal when putting numbers on paper. Meaning that if organizations keep evaluating their people as excellent then they will find themselves in a dead end where there is nothing else to say and much less to do due to the limitations in terms of progression.

Even so, according to Davenport, Harris, and Shapiro (2010), companies that succeed in measuring their talented people have become more competitive and more capable of attracting and retaining talent, as these companies are able to make a strong linkage between personal performance data to business performance results. The authors noted that using realistic goals, defined in a clear and objective manner, creates a more simple and effective path to success (Davenport et al., 2010).

Theoretical Framework - EVLN Responses to Talent Management Practices

The topics of satisfaction and employees' commitment have received significant attention from professionals throughout organizations worldwide and at the academic level where scholars have thoroughly invested in examining how employees respond to less satisfactory settings, giving considerable attention to active, passive, constructive, and destructive behavioral responses as well as their combinations (Vangel, 2011). These behavioral responses are part of a bi-dimensional scale initially developed by Hirschman (1970), and later expanded by Rusbult, Zembrodt, and Gunn, (1982) and Farrel (1983). As seen in *Figure 1,* the combination of active and passive behaviors with constructive and destructive possibilities gave place to what is today known as Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect (EVLN) as responses to dissatisfactory environments.
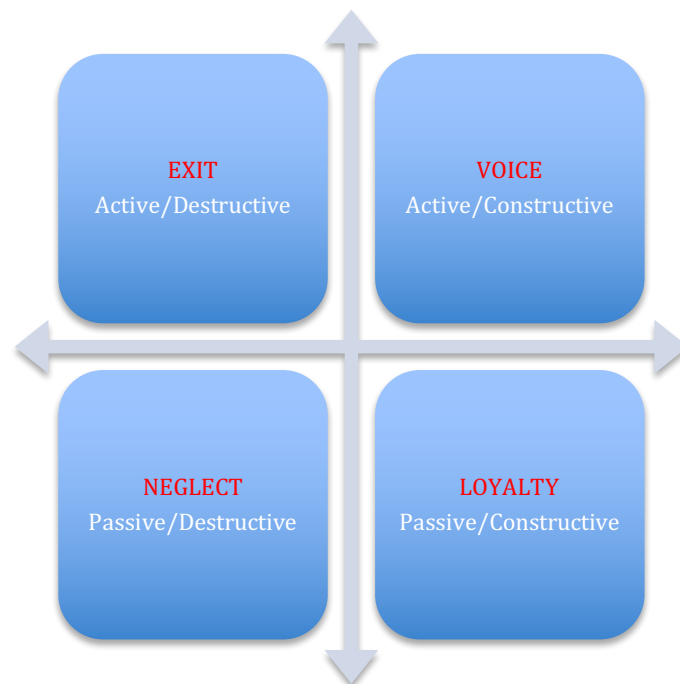
Figure 1. Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect framework (Based on Hirschman 1970; Rusbult, Zembrodt & Gunn, 1982).

The EVLN model is based on Hirschman's (1970) theoretical work (EVL) and on Rusbult and co-authors' model of responses to dissatisfaction in romantic relationships (Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982) where the Neglect variable was added. Although the initial EVLN model with all four measures has been developed to explain romantic involvements as mentioned, it has been since then used as a solid conceptual framework for analyzing employee responses to dissatisfying workplace situations as well (Farrell & Rusbult, 1985; Farrell et al., 1990; Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Rusbult & Lowery, 1985; Rusbult et al., 1988).

So, the question is why EVLN used in this study arises. Despite some efforts in accurately reading and measuring employee's talents, organizations may not be paying proper attention to the possibility that many employees may feel dissatisfied with some informal or less crafted talent management policies and practices, or in some cases the lack of them. This informality often leads to unequal levels of participation in the design, implementation and evaluation of TM practices. It also leads to a random system of use of one's skills. And finally, it can lead to high levels of dissatisfaction. Any of these listed scenarios is possible by itself or in opposite they can all open at the same time or they can even be the cause of one another in many different ways and directions. In addition, in many situations talent, and the way it is managed, is strongly linked with organizational performance and not so much with the development of people (Thunnissen et al., 2013). As a result, this sort of dissatisfaction may trigger constructive or destructive behaviors in employees that may range from active to passive modes of responding (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). Consequently, in order to adequately analyze and

assess talent in organizations, it is necessary to begin by determining how organizations and the employees within organizations perceive talent (Dries, 2013). In short, organizations need to first understand and define what talent represents for them. Moreover, they need to understand how they can implement TM practices in a strategically integrated system and in a favorable context (Lawler, 2008). This whole perspective allows the impact of talent management policies and practices to be properly measured, thereby reducing passive and destructive behaviors from dissatisfied employees (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). Bringing the EVLN model into the talent management field eventually opens way to the voice of the employees when in presence of less developed or informal talent management practices. This is an issue that has not been debated at the academic level in necessary depth, thus reflecting in the lack of literature relating both subjects.

The way in which employees in organizations are responding to possible perceptions of less-than-carefully crafted or non-existent talent management policies and practices may also depend on other factors. Throughout the years, the EVLN model has become one of the most solid works on finding how people respond to their deteriorating or problematic situations at work (Farrell, 1983; Farrell & Rusbult, 1985; Farrell, Rusbult, Lin, & Bernthal, 1990; Hargadorn et al., 1999; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers & Mainous, 1988; Rusbult & Lowery, 1985; Withey & Cooper, 1989). Consequently, this study applies the EVLN model as a dependent variable based on its theoretical and empirical strength. When compared with other constructs, the EVLN model provides a comprehensive explanation with detailed classifications of the four types of responses using active/passive and constructive/destructive segments of possible behaviors.

One of the most significant studies on EVLN, by Rusbult et al. (1988), the Impact of Exchange Variables on Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect: An Integrative Model of Responses to Declining Job Satisfaction, depicts the impact of specific independent variables on the EVLN responses. The study shows that people's behaviors in organizations are influenced by these variables. Linking all four behaviors to specific scenarios combining the three independent variables helps validate the responses in accordance to a specific living situation. Moreover, the responses can be independent or sequential, meaning that an employee may transition through a series of responses (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992, p.203). For example, a dissatisfied employee may go through a period of neglect, before deciding to leave the organization due to the lack of alternatives in the market.

According to Rusbult et al. (1988), in their study of impact of exchange variables on EVLN, Exit, means for example leaving the organization, or searching for a different job. Voice signifies for example trying to improve the conditions in the company, taking the initiative of discussing issues with a supervisor, or taking concrete actions in order to solve organizational problems including suggesting eventual solutions. Loyalty usually refers to more passive actions such as waiting for conditions to improve or simply waiting to see what happens and hope for problems to disappear. Finally, acts of Neglect can refer to allowing conditions to deteriorate through reduced interest or effort, or increase of the number of errors at work, as examples (Rusbult et al., 1988). Following, is a more detailed description of each of the four possible responses:

Exit

The Exit option is here interpreted as a voluntary separation from the job or even the organization. This "painful decision to withdraw or switch" (Hirschman, 1970, p. 81) not only requires considerable effort by the employee and has costs for the organization as well. By leaving, the employee believes the situation is unlikely to improve.

Voice

With Voice, employees believe that anything can be done in order to improve a dissatisfying situation. Voice is described as an attempt to change, rather than escape.

Loyalty

Loyalty means sticking with the organization. Whether the employee likes or does not like a certain situation, he or she will always stay sometimes suffering in silence, confident that things will soon get better (Hirschman, 1970). Loyalty is described as passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve.

Neglect

Neglect was added to the EVL framework in a work developed by Rusbult et al. (1982) where they expanded Hirschman's original Exit, Voice and Loyalty. The neglect option refers to allowing conditions to deteriorate, resulting in inattentive behavior (Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982). The individual who practices neglectful behaviors implies that recovery is not going to happen (Rusbult et al., 1982; Withey & Cooper, 1989).

Conclusion

Talent management does not have a consensual definition or known boundaries, nor a solid theoretical framework to support thorough academic development (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). However, people rely on their experiences, organizations use the term frequently, and big consulting firms dictate the rules providing a top down approach to organizations around the world. It is a fact the field is in need of more empirical research to test the existing frameworks currently found in the conceptual literature (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Thunnissen et al., 2013). As a result, and despite a significant degree of interest surrounding the topic of talent, organizations still lack a reliable and integrated approach to implement their TM strategies, while at the same time, maintaining employee satisfaction with their talents properly availed and their skills properly known and used. Studies in other areas indicate that people in organizations may tend to show signs of dissatisfaction when in the presence of less definite talent management practices, causing intense damage at all levels including organizational and personal.

Another point of importance is that much of the business literature on talent management is related with financial performance and financial outcomes for organizations, while the majority of the academic literature is focused on the human resources practices, many of them with a long past and with scarce history of success, and assuming that human resources are the ones capable of managing talent.

Lewis and Heckman (2006) revealed the ambiguity of the definition of talent and added that much of the literature comes labeled as human capital or human resource management. They further pointed that some literature identifies links to talent

management and career planning and development, identifying talent management as a simple process, leaving little space for the development of unique literature only related with the use of talents by employees in organizational settings. Although talent management literature is strongly built on a broad range of human resources management and organizational behavior theories, this hasn't helped scholars to speak the same TM language (Thunnissen et al., 2013), leading to discrepancies in the way TM is understood at both academic and business levels. Hence, it is urgent that efforts are made for researchers to better understand talent management as a relational construct taking into account the relationships among individuals and those within the organization (Ariss et al., 2013).

Another finding gleaned from the literature is that the definitions and practices of talent are highly influenced by the context where they are applied, whether it is at a local or global level. Moreover, it shows that the study of talent focuses mainly on people that have great potential or on those who are already considered talented, based on the success they already possess. It is not focused on people in general, leaving behind those that are in disfavor of being able to express themselves or make their talents come out as a value for the organizations they work at. Talent cannot just be seen as a way of recruiting and retaining, but as an important vector in a company's success when performing in competitive markets. Another issue to be highlighted from this review is the readiness of the organizations to act and timely respond to challenges. This is based on a finding in Deloitte's study on Global Human Capital Trends 2014, where one of the results pointed to the fact that business leaders have little confidence in their organization's promptness to quickly respond to the various trends that human resources leaders have to face

(Schwartz et al., 2014). This incapacity may well be the result of often being unable to systematically respond to known situations making each one as if it was the first time happening. The lack of formalization induces the spirit of responding according to situations. If those are not known and there is no knowledge database and sharing, then the implicit knowledge reigns and can hardly become explicit to others (Nonaka & Konno, 1998).

Regarding methodological issues, it is important to note that no studies were found incorporating both quantitative and qualitative methods combined. Thus, for the sake of accuracy and understanding the impact of talent leaks in organizations and consequent behavioral responses, this research uses combined methodologies in order to generate solid academic literature, and this is exactly what I have proposed by introducing both survey and interview in the data collection process. By using a convergent parallel mixed methods approach, I was able to more accurately determine what really influences managers' behaviors in organizations when regarding the implementation of talent management practices.

Finally, many discussions focus on how to attract and retain the best people (i.e., the most productive and the most wanted by an organization). One can infer that organizations seem to be more concerned with their results, focusing on prejudice of human development and people's needs, as many studies target organizational results and how their employees assist in making that a reality while often forgetting personal development and employee satisfaction as a whole. The question that continually arises is related to how to deal with those that get lost on the way to success, simply because they lack communication skills or they are shy of their capabilities or they simply were not at

the right time in the right place and all because a system was not in place that could favor

all despite their social abilities. In other words, do organizations need to sacrifice talent in

order to have talent, is a question that needs to be answered.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Overview and Rationale for Methodology and Design

This study was designed to document managerial responses to formal and informal talent management (TM) practices in their respective organizations. The study focused on managers' responses to all types of talent management settings, including those with indefinite or absent talent management practices (i.e., informal, vague, or even largely absent TM practices) as well as factors that could impact their responses. For this study, a convergent parallel mixed methods design was used, in other words, both quantitative survey and qualitative interview data were collected roughly at the same time and then integrated for interpretation of the final results. The collection of both types of data was intended to neutralize weaknesses inherent in both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The combination of the two collection forms, in short, provided a more complete understanding of the study and its research questions.

Being this study focused on managers' responses to both informal and formal talent management practices, makes it an important process of collecting a global perspective on attitudes and behaviors towards the involvement or not in the design and implementation of talent management programs in organizations. This aided in comparing differing responses obtained across the sample. The design of this study considered these factors as well as the fact that there was a need for a deeper understanding of those differences and their significance when comparing formal with non-formal. Additionally, this study compares European managers with North American managers. Finally, given the historical and ongoing issues related to gender in

organizations, a comparison and analyzing was conducted to find potential differences in responses from both male and female managers. This could only be possible due to the fact that the rich data collected provided the opportunity to see the different responses from a broad perspective and different angles of analyses.

Therefore, for the initial portion of the study, and as a result of the participant sampling methodology, two working databases were created as can be seen in *Figure* 2. Database 1 (DB1) contains all seventy managers from service industry organizations (n=70) and respective initial quantitative data subject to validation from interviews. Database 2 (DB2) contains fifteen managers (n=15) that volunteered from the initial main database (n=70), reporting qualitative data from the interview process, performed on managers. Databases 1 and 2 finally merged into a "one only" database (DB3) where quantitative and qualitative data were mixed for the performance of descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, independent samples t-test for comparison of means, and regression analysis.

In short, both forms of quantitative and qualitative data, from the survey and interviews respectively, were collected nearly at the same time in all organizations. Accordingly, bivariate and multivariate correlations, independent samples t-test and simple and multiple regression analysis were conducted with the quantitative and qualitative data jointly prepared in a final database (DB3). As stated by Creswell (2014), the key assumption is that both forms of collecting data eventually display different types of information, specifically when it comes to more detailed perspectives from the managers regarding, in this case, the way talent is being managed in their respective organizations. Consequently, qualitative data was collected from interviews with the

managers to gain a sampled view of the managers' responses in an effort to compare or relate those responses to the quantitative data for interpretation. When conducting the interviews, managers were asked about their satisfaction levels regarding talent management practices and consequent assumed responses regarding how talent is managed in their organizations. As Creswell (2014) further refers, the more similar the quantitative and qualitative databases, the better, in order to form a joint unique database. Online interviews were applicable when in-person face-to-face interviews were not possible.

The sampling for site and participants was carefully considered, knowing the access to quick and reliable information from managers across North America and Europe. As mentioned before, all managers worked in the same sector of activity. Further detailed analysis will be provided in the data analysis section of chapter IV regarding this and other aspects of the methodology. In sum, the convergent parallel mixed methods design intended to present a concise and objective clear response from the managers involved in this study. The qualitative part of the study was, as a result, a confirming or disconfirming response from fifteen of the seventy managers, clarifying in many cases why they opted to respond in a certain way throughout the initial survey.

The instrument used for the quantitative part was object of an internal consistency analysis using Cronbach's Alpha to determine how accurately questions were asked and how questions were in fact obtaining the information needed to advance with final conclusions on the data collected.

Finally, all statistic procedures were conducted using the final database (DB3) with all qualitative and quantitative responses obtained from the managers.

For a complete overview of all procedures presented throughout the study, a design and methodology summary is presented in *Figure 2*:

Convenience Sampling for Site and Participants
(Organizations and Participants from North America and Europe)

Participants - Homogeneous Sampling (Quantitative)
Participants - Confirming Sampling (Qualitative)
(Managers in Tertiary Sector - Service Industry Organizations)

Convergent Parallel Mixed Methods Design
(Quantitative and Qualitative Data roughly collected at the same time for two Databases)

Database 1	Database 2
n=70	n=15
Quantitative Data	Qualitative Data
Survey Process	Interview Process

Database 3 = DB1+DB2 with N=70 with final validated converged Results

Descriptive Statistics for Demographics, Level of Formality,
3 Independent Variables (IVs) (LI, SU, GS) and 4 Dependent Variables (DVs) (EVLN)

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability for 3 IVs (LI, SU, GS) and 4 DVs (EVLN)

Correlations for Demographics, Level of Formality, 3 IVs and 4 DVs
and Independent Samples t-test Compared Means for All Cases, Formal, Informal,
Origin North America and Origin Europe

Simple and Multiple Regression
Based on Significant Results obtained from Correlations and t-tests
Regression conducted for Correlations for All Cases, Formal and Informal plus
Regression for Independent Samples t-tests for
Formal and Informal; Origin North America and Europe; Male and Female

Simple and Multiple Regression
Summary of Predictions Models

Figure 2. Summary of Methodology and Design.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following are the hypotheses associated with the previously stated research questions. The research questions are reiterated below:

Research Question 1:

How are managers responding to indefinite talent management practices in organizations that do not have formal talent management practices?

Research Question 2:

To what extent does Level of Involvement in the TM Design Process, the Level of Use of One's Skills, and the General Level of Satisfaction with TM related issues each impact EVLN responses?

The Hypotheses for this study are:

H1

Managers with high levels of general satisfaction with TM related issues should be more likely to engage in voice and loyalty responses.

H2

Managers with a high level of involvement in the TM design process should be more likely to engage in voice and loyalty responses.

H3

Managers with high levels of skills used by his/her organization should be more likely to engage in voice and loyalty responses.

The stated hypotheses were translated into null hypotheses before they were tested.

Participants

Clearance from Institutional Review Board (IRB)

A detailed explanation of the research was submitted to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for approval. Approval was obtained from the University of San Diego IRB to proceed with the study since there were no significant aspects that could harm the participants throughout the interaction process. Please see approval letter in Appendix E.

Sampling and Site Selection

This study focused on managers' responses to formal and informal talent management practices. The following is a detailed explanation of the sampling and site selection beginning with a discussion of the proposed procedures in order to obtain the final dataset of 70 managers from service industry organizations. Initially, convenience sampling was used for site and participants (Creswell, 2014). In the last approximately 25 years, throughout my professional life as a consultant, trainer, coach, auditor and assessor for the Portuguese government, I had the privilege to work with many European and North American based organizations. During this period, I developed and maintained a number of important professional relationships, generating many connections with managers around the world, more specifically in Europe and North America. Consequently, this study's final sample of 70 managers from service industry organizations resulted from a list of approximately 250 active contacts from people I knew who were working in organizations that I could easily reach. In one way or another, these individuals came across my professional and personal activity and based on their professional background were conveniently chosen to participate in this study. However, since the intention was to have only service industry organizations, I carefully chose

people from those organizations that fulfilled the requisite. Homogeneous sampling was used for participants as they were all managers in their organizations (Creswell, 2014). For the qualitative part of this study confirming/disconfirming sampling was used as my intention was to find confirmation, or not, for the results obtained through the surveys (Patton, 2002).

The organizations chosen have similar characteristics. They belong to the same economical sector in a way that they share a related product or service, or they are organizations in an industry or market that shares common operating characteristics. It is, in fact, the tertiary sector of the economy, as known as the service industry. Therefore, I looked for organizations in this sector that provided similar services to the general population and industry. Activities associated with this sector included wholesale and retail sales, transportation and distribution, entertainment (e.g., movies, television, radio, music, theater), restaurants, hotels, clerical services, media, tourism, insurance, banking, healthcare, education and law services among others. A detailed review of the sample will be explained later in this study in the distribution procedures section. Criteria was founded on the principles presented by the Industry Employment and Output Projections to 2024 (Monthly Labor Review, 2015). In addition, the organizational portion of this sample are comprised of small and medium-sized organizations (with more than 10 and less than 500 employees) with the exception of those education based organizations where three were actually a bit larger than a medium sized institution. According to the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), the adopted definition is as follows: "Small and medium-sized enterprises (SME's) are non-subsidiary, independent firms which employ fewer than a given number of employees.

This number varies across countries. The most frequent upper limit designating an SME is 250 employees, as in the European Union. However, some countries, set the limit at 200 employees, while the United States considers SME's to include firms with fewer than 500 employees. Small firms are generally those with fewer than 50 employees, while micro-enterprises have at most 10, or in some cases 5, workers." (OECD, 2005, OECD SME and Entrepreneurship Outlook: 2005, OECD Paris, p. 17).

From another perspective, and in order to articulate the criteria for selection of the organizations for this study, the literature on the characteristics of organizations with formal and informal talent management practices, was also examined. According to Lawler (2008), organizations that utilize formal talent management practices are typically proactive in integrating talent management with other management practices. In addition, those practices are often formally implemented within a talent management system specifically created for the purpose (Bourdreau & Ramstad, 2007). According to Lawler (2008) effective talent management practices are typically found to be sound, well designed, and deployed and functioning for a considerable period of time in order to promote enough data for analysis and decision-making. As Lawler (2008) further claims, information and knowledge are needed to promote wise decision-making regarding the management of people's talents. Moreover, the system or its practices must be measurable and based on the referred data, mainly generated from human performance in the organization. Formal talent management practices are usually aligned with solid strategic foundations, business drivers and grounded on values (Bourdreau & Ramstad, 2007; Lawler, 2008). In contrast, informal talent management practices are often characterized by modeling the opposite of formal talent management practices, including

unsuitable or absent documentation, a lack of data or any type of records regarding the management of talent and a non-integration in the global strategic management plan or strategic intentions of the organization (Bourdreau & Ramstad, 2007; Lawler, 2008).

Subject Description

When considering talent management and its implementation, managers are often considered the most important members in an organization because they are typically involved or responsible for the design and implementation of TM practices. Commonly, however, many organizations follow goals, with standard rules and procedures, but often neglecting to involve managers in the construction and application of a TM practice. Lawler (2008) reinforces the need to establish formal communication between organizations and employees regarding what is expected from each of the parts involved when managing talent. With this in mind, I selected participants based on the criterion of being active working managers within an organization. According to Lawler (2008), a manager is someone who actually has some sort of supervision over other elements in the organization and, in this sense the term *manager* is not intended to distinguish managers from leaders. Managers may include, for instance team leaders or any person with responsibility over other employees.

Consequently, as in this study the focus lies on managers' responses, homogeneous sampling applied in order to obtain data only from managers in the organizations selected. Furthermore, consent from the subjects was obtained.

<div align="center">

Data Collection

</div>

Initially, quantitative data was collected through a survey (See Appendix B) distributed to 70 managers from organizations within the same area or sector of activity.

Qualitative data was then collected in the following month through approximately 15-20-minute one-on-one semi-structured interviews with 15 managers from the initial set of 70 managers, that offered themselves as volunteers to participate in the interview portion pf the study. A pre-determined checklist (See Appendix D) of possible behavioral responses relating to how satisfied managers were with talent management practices, that can possibly fit in either active/constructive, passive/constructive, active/destructive, and passive/destructive quadrants of the Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect (EVLN) model was used as a guide for the interview process and for the analysis process as well (See *Figure 2)*.

Survey

The survey used in the study is based on the surveys developed by Rusbult et al. (1988) and it was adapted here after being partially tested in a pilot study by Polonia (2015) on managers' responses to dissatisfaction in a Portuguese industrial organization. A detailed explanation of the survey is presented below.

Reliability and Validity. When talking about reliability and validity it can be referred to validity of the construct or the EVLN model and consequently the internal consistency of the questions used for each item analysis. Regarding validity of the construct, since Rusbult et al. (1982) first applied the EVLN model as a complete bi-dimensional scale using all four responses options Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect, a large number of studies have been used in organizational settings, using a wide range of methodologies. For instance, multidimensional scaling (Farrell, 1983), or cross-sectional survey research studies by Farrell & Rusbult (1985) and Withey and Cooper (1989). Moreover, the EVLN model was used in secondary analysis of extant data sets (Rusbult

& Lowery, 1985), simulation and laboratory experimentation (Rusbult et al., 1988), and panel research conducted by Farrell et al. (1990). In summary, the EVLN construct has been one of the most influential frameworks for exploring how people exercise their behaviors as a response to negative or dissatisfying situations at work (Farrell & Rusbult, 1985; Farrell et al., 1990; Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Rusbult & Lowery, 1985; Rusbult et al., 1988). Reliability coefficients were obtained for the measures designed to assess tendencies toward Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect in the study conducted by Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers and Mainous III (1988). However, since my particular research added new independent variables, a reliability analysis was conducted to confirm the reliability of the survey instrument used. A more detailed analysis of the initial survey and its contribution to this study's survey follows.

The survey used in this study was based on the surveys developed by Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers and Mainous III (1988) detailing work on the impact of exchange variables on Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect: An integrative model of responses to declining job satisfaction. These authors developed a three-study integrated model where two of the studies – study 1 and study 2 - used two similar types of surveys that served as the basis for the survey used in this research. The questionnaires used in study 1 and study 2 included questions from each of the four dependent variables Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect and each of the three independent variables that were chosen as predictors for that study corresponding respectively to measures of Satisfaction, Job Investment and Quality of Alternatives, as well as additional questions. Each of the questions had several sub-questions. For the survey used in this study, I retained the Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect terminology. However, some changes were made in the

independent variables due to the fact that this is a specific study where intention was to study manager's responses to formal and informal talent management practices in organizations. The changes made were merely language issues that did not change the content or the intention of the question asked. The satisfaction variable was kept as it was and here used as one of the independent variables. However, the Investment variable was renamed as Involvement in TM Related Issues, and the Quality of Alternatives variable was changed to Level of Skills Used to share a particular point of discussion on how organizations use people's skills (Weise, 2016).

Each of the independent and dependent variables had several sub-questions. Some of those questions were slightly altered in language in order to adapt to the reality of the present study. For example, satisfaction with talent management practices was considered specifically and not job satisfaction as a whole. In the studies developed by Rusbult et al. (1988) the questionnaires measured all model predictors and criteria as well as demographic information. The level of consistency was tested and it showed to be reliable. Consistent measures were found for each independent and dependent variable and they were then used in both studies 1 and 2. The similarity of the questions in both questionnaires of studies 1 and 2 is evident. In fact, study 2 applied nearly exact questions on the dependent variables as those employed in study one. The questions were just slightly altered in order to adapt to the second study. Consequently, considering information from the results acquired and the consistency obtained in their work, I not only trust the reliability and validity of the chosen questions applied in the construction of the survey used in this research, as I also conducted my own internal consistency analysis

for the instrument used in this study. In the proper section regarding the survey, a detailed explanation is provided.

All of the items in the survey used in this research had 7-point Likert-type scales. The Exit, Voice, Loyalty, And Neglect items were similar to those employed in study 1 and 2 of Rusbult et al. (1988), but were altered to measure generalized responses rather than responses to a particular dissatisfying incident and to be appropriate for actual managers in today's settings.

The questions used in the survey and the interview can be found in their respective appendices (Appendix B and Appendix C) at the end of this research study. Following is a brief explanation of how both the survey and the interview guide were built. Questions 2 through 5 are related to demographics information such as Age, Gender, Educational Level, and Years Working in the Organization. Origin of the survey, or knowing the geographical point where the survey was answered, was possible due to the fact that the survey software allowed me to locate each respondent's particular country. Question 6 in the survey was designed to best understand how talent was built for the specific respondent. Question 7 allowed me to view the level of formality of the TM system of each manager. Further, Questions 8 through 16 were connected to the independent variables Level of Involvement, Level of Skills Used and Level of Satisfaction with TM related issues. Questions 17 through 28 spoke to the dependent variables EVLN.

Each of the independent and dependent variables had three sub-questions. The intention was to give equal levels of internal consistency for each of the dependent and independent variables.

An average score was created for each of independent and dependent variables. Consequently, for treatment of data all seven averages were used as well as the average for each sub-question. Following is *Figure 3* displaying how the questions report each of the independent and dependent variables and how they interact with the survey questions.

In addition, it can also be seen that questions from the interview guide were also related with the survey questions. The questions from the interview process were meant to either confirm or disconfirm the answers obtained through the surveys (Patton, 2002).

Variable	Survey Questions	Interview Questions (*)
Level of Involvement	8, 9, 10	3
Level of Skills Used	11, 12, 13	4
Level of Satisfaction w/ TM	14, 15, 16	5
Exit	17, 18, 19	7
Voice	20, 21, 22	8
Loyalty	23, 24, 25	9
Neglect	26, 27, 28	10

Figure 3. Survey and Interview Questions per Variable. Questions 16, 19 and 26 were inverted. Also (*) in the end of the interview respondents were challenged to identify themselves with a possible list of EVLN responses as listed in Appendix D.

Distribution Procedures, Follow-up and Response Rate. The surveys were distributed electronically and were sent to 195 individuals of a previous list of 250 possible respondents, of whom the majority are managers in service industries, part of the tertiary sector of the economy, and in areas such as higher education, hotel and restaurant management, consulting, training, law offices, among others. As a result, 10 surveys were sent to workers in institutes, 13 surveys were sent to consultants in high technology, 8 to managers in the banking industry, 68 were sent to administrators, directors and managers in higher education, and 12 to managers and directors in high schools. Also, 5 surveys were provided to 5 managers in energy services, 2 sent to managers in the sports industry, 8 to freelance consultants and 3 to directors in law offices. Moreover, 7 surveys were sent to managers in the hotel management industry, 2 to managers that worked in TV stations, other 2 in recruiting organizations, 14 in management consultants that worked in known consulting organizations. Finally, the survey was also sent to 2 psychology professionals, 4 architects, 6 directors in the military, 4 managers in engineering services, 4 in student associations with relevant directing positions, 5 distributed to managers in pharmaceutical companies, 5 in airport management and 5 managers in real estate companies.

During a period of exactly one month the survey was available for managers to respond. Several electronic mails and electronic messages along with phone calls occurred during the last 10 days of the month the survey was available in order to further advance the number of respondents. From the initial 195 potential respondents 70 effectively answered the survey producing a total return rate of 36%. The initial goal of having at least 60 managers was surpassed with ten more respondents, giving way to

more reliable statistics on the data. Ideally, the sample would have at least 90

participants, with a total of 30 respondents corresponding to each of the predictor

variables used (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). However, accepting 60 according to the

number of independent variables in the study, was considerable as an acceptable

minimum as some authors refer that having a 10 to 1 ratio is acceptable (Miller & Kunce,

1973). Having 70 managers responding was a number in between that revealed to provide

interesting findings as it can be seen further in the Results chapter.

Potential respondents were informed that the survey was anonymous. All

respondents gave their personal consent to pursue the study.

Interview Process, Criteria and Response Rate

An interview guide with a 7-point Likert type questionnaire and a set of open-

ended questions (See Appendix C) was used to conduct the one-on-one semi-structured

interviews with 15 of the 70 managers. Those 15 managers represented approximately

21% of all 70 respondents that actually accepted the interview in order to validate their

inputs on the study. The process was displayed at the end of the survey where

respondents were asked to volunteer for the next phase.

Questions focused on the items described in the survey, specifically with the

intent to validate or confirm questions 8 through 28 for all independent and dependent

variables. Questions were not asked exactly as they were posed in the survey because that

was not the intention. The goal was to sense how the managers were actually sticking to

their affirmations or noticing whether or not they were making slight or critical changes

to their initial positions (Patton, 2002). After analyzing all interviews and subsequently

comparing the pertinent data obtained from the surveys, 3 respondents made significant

changes to their responses, 5 made slight changes, and the remaining stuck to their initial thoughts on talent management issues. The interviews were administered for 15 to 20 minutes.

The Strategy used for the interviews was to get clear and clean information regarding EVLN behavioral trends. Therefore, I adopted a positivist and realist approach meaning that I wanted to know what was really going on and find explanations for the reality observed and described in the surveys. These semi-structured interviews, meaning interviews had a guide but also gave importance to emerging contexts, had the purpose to bring to the stage a more informal conversational Interview. Open ended and closed questions in the very end were applied (Patton, 2002).

Data Analysis

This study focused on managers' responses to indefinite or absent talent management practices. Managers in North America and Europe had the opportunity to express responses through the Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect (EVLN) model. Additionally, the study examined the impact of three independent variables: The Level of Involvement in the TM Design Process, the Level of Use of One's Skills, and the General Level of Satisfaction with TM related issues. Consequently, data analysis followed a detailed, meticulous method of gathering the quantitative and qualitative data with the goal of presenting it in a way that was first perceived in statistical terms and then in non-statistical terms. The sample of 70 managers from North America and Europe (Database 1) gave origin to Database 2 where 15 of those 70 managers accepted and then actually provided the interview for response validation purposes. With this, I intended to mitigate eventual fails in the data when collecting it through survey only. Thus, the following is a

two-part explanation of what, how, and why the following type of analysis was made for both quantitative and qualitative statistical procedures.

Quantitative Statistical Procedures

These specific procedures were conducted on Database 3. This database included information from databases 1 and 2 using a convergent parallel mixed methods methodology where a final set of responses was specifically prepared for analysis. Once data was arranged in the final database (DB3), then a sequence of statistical procedures were conducted which you will see explained below. For all variables with no equal intervals, dummy variables were created. For instance, Age was recoded into dummy variables. The same situation occurred with Educational Level and Years Working in the Organization variables. Regarding the level of formality asked in question 7 of the survey, I considered two values rather than the initial given seven options for response. What was accomplished was that all values obtained from 1 through 7 in the Likert-type scale were transformed into two variables of Formal and Informal only. Non-formal includes values from 1-4 and Formal contains values from 5-7. The recoding of this seven-option variable into a two-option variable was also achieved. Finally, three questions were inverted I order to show a true and real response of what was answered by the respondents. As a result, questions 16, 19, and 26 had their values inverted in a way that 1's responses became 7's, 2's responses became 6's, 3's responses became 5's and 4's responses remained the same. Following, is a detailed explanation of all the steps in the data analysis process conducted on managers' responses to talent management practices within this study. Those TM practices concluded to be either indefinite, absent or solid and clear.

Additionally, the statistical procedures used for correlations, independence sample t-tests and both simple and multiple regression, used a two-tailed test of significance, allowing bi-directional hypotheses testing instead of unidirectional. This is a more rigorous procedure, making it more difficult to reject the null hypotheses.

All quantitative data analysis was conducted on SPSS version 24, while qualitative data was treated using AudioNote Software.

Descriptive Statistics. Descriptive statistics focused on the demographic variables such as Origin, Age, Gender, Educational Level, and Years Working in the Organization. The level of formality was also an object of analysis in an effort to show the formal or informal nature of the TM systems in the workplace of this particular group of managers. Included in this descriptive statistical analysis were also the three independent predictor variables plus the four EVLN dependent variables. Descriptive analysis included calculation of means and standard deviations for all the mentioned variables. In addition, for each of the independent and dependent variables, means and standard deviations were calculated for each scale sub-question (three each for a total of 21 sub-questions that were analyzed). The reason this was calculated was to share the average of each of the independent and dependent variables could not be sufficient to give a clear and more detailed perspective of possible influences of one variable over another. For instance, a higher level of formality predicts higher levels of involvement. However, what part of involvement is vitally important is the question. Consequently, on the results chapter, all models presented and statistically significant will have all the necessary detail to clearly explain how prediction models were obtained, and what exact

influences exist. In this chapter only data analysis is refereed mentioning what procedures were taken into account to later provide the results.

Reliability - Cronbach's Alpha for IVs and DVs. Despite the fact that the survey used for this study is based on a validated survey (Rusbult, et al., 1998), Cronbach's alpha was used in this study to measure internal consistency for each scale of independent and dependent variables. In other words, it served to measure how well a group of items measure a single dimension for the level of involvement, the level of skills used and the general level of satisfaction with talent management practices. It also served to measure the Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect scales. So, basically the question of reliability came to the forefront when variables were in the position of predicting or being predicted.

Correlation Analysis for Demographics, IVs and DVs. Pearson correlation analysis was conducted for all demographic variables, for the level of formality of TM settings in the organization, and for all independent and dependent variables in this study. The reason it was conducted for the aforementioned variables was that initially, I intended to verify the strength of relationship among independent and dependent variables, while also verifying the relationship of factors such as Age, Gender or Origin, with other variables. The level of formality in talent management settings was critical for this study and for that reason it was also included in the calculations. From the conducted analysis three tables were generated specifically for all cases included and then for both formal and non-formal settings where this study is focused. With the obtained results, I used the significant correlations for performing and conducting regression analysis,

which will be explained later in this chapter. The levels of statistical significance were

obtained at both $p < .01$ and $p < .05$, being this last one considered for the analysis.

    Independent Samples t-test. The fact that this study included 70 managers from

Europe and North America and that both demographics afforded strong and balanced

participation of men and women, showed potential that these demographic factors along

with the level of formality could also serve as a platform for the conduction of regression

analysis. The differing responses noted throughout the survey and interview process

offered an interesting and detailed perspective of how origin, age, gender, educational

level, among others can actually influence different approaches when regarding to the

involvement in talent management practices. For this reason, independent samples t-tests

were conducted along several scales of this research in order to provide comparison of

means in particular points of the research.

    Samples t-tests were obtained from all cases on gender, origin, and formality

levels. In North American respondents and in European respondents the compared means

included formality versus informality plus gender analysis. In formal and informal

settings origin and gender were object of analysis. In discovering how talents were

actually built throughout life, gender, origin, and level of formality were analyzed.

Finally, I summarized some of the demographic results in a single table where North

Americans could be compared with European respondents concerning age, gender,

educational level, and years working in the organization. With little doubt the samples t-

tests showed up a strong inferential statistic that provided particular information on how

to proceed with regression analysis, and that will be explained in the next paragraph.

Regression Analysis. Regression was conducted on all statistically significant results obtained from both correlation analysis and sample t-test results. The method used to conduct regression was the both the enter method and stepwise method using a complex approach to the order and sequence of all regressions, entering first one variable or group of variables at a time (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003). As a result, the following regressions were conducted: Regression based on statistically significant results from correlation analysis was conducted on all cases, formal settings, and informal settings.

For all cases, multiple and simple regression were conducted with all demographics of each of the dependent variables EVLN. Then all demographics adding the level of formality together and for each of the EVLN variables. Following regression was conducted for formality predicting each of the independent variables plus formality predicting each of the dependent variables. Finally, for all cases, regression was conducted to verify and validate prediction of the three independent variables on the EVLN dependent variables. From the all cases analysis, five models proved to be statistically significant as seen in the results chapter, and as summarily described below.

<u>All Cases</u>

All Demographic Variables predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

All Demographic Variables + Formality predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

Level of Formality predicting Level of Involvement; Level of Skills Used;

General Level of satisfaction with TM

Level of Formality predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

Level of Involvement; Level of Skills Used; General Level of satisfaction with

TM predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

In formal settings, regression was conducted with all demographic variables influencing or possibly predicting EVLN. Then regression was conducted to verify the level of prediction of the three independent variables of this study on EVLN. The same methodology was applied to informal settings with a difference. Since educational level was statistically significant as the only demographic variable when related to the dependent variables, regression was conducted to verify the significance of the level of predictions, if any, of educational level on EVLN dependent variables, as described below:

Formal TM Settings

All Demographic Variables predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

Level of Involvement; Level of Skills Used; General Level of satisfaction with

TM predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

Informal TM Settings

All Demographic Variables predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

Level of Involvement; Level of Skills Used; General Level of satisfaction with

TM predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

Educational Level predicting Exit; Voice; Loyalty; Neglect

Regarding the regression analysis conducted based on the obtained results from the samples t-tests, the following were performed: For all cases, origin North America, origin Europe and informal settings.

Since 29 models were conducted and verified the information can better be analyzed in the following *Figures* 4 through 7.

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable (DV)		Sub-Item of DV
Gender	→	Neglect	→	Level of Effort
Origin	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	Level of Disappointment
Origin	→	Neglect	→	Letting Things Go
Formality	→	Level of Involvement	→	Average Involvement
Formality	→	Level of Involvement	→	Level of Participation
Formality	→	Level of Involvement	→	Involvement in Design TM
Formality	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	Average Satisfaction
Formality	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	TM Well Managed
Formality	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	Satisfied with How TM is
Formality	→	Voice	→	Average Voice

Figure 4. All Cases Regression Based on t-tests.

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable (DV)		Sub-Item of DV
Formality	→	Level of Involvement	→	Average Involvement
Formality	→	Level of Involvement	→	Involvement in Design TM
Formality	→	Level of Involvement	→	Level of Participation
Formality	→	Level of Involvement	→	Suggesting
Formality	→	Voice	→	Cooperation with Peers
Gender	→	Neglect	→	Level of Effort

Figure 5. Origin North America Regression Based on t-tests.

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable (DV)		Sub-Item of DV
Formality	→	Level of Skills Used	→	Skills are Assessed
Formality	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	Average Satisfaction
Formality	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	TM Well Managed
Formality	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	Satisfied with How TM is
Gender	→	Level of Involvement	→	Average Involvement
Gender	→	Level of Involvement	→	Involvement in Design TM
Gender	→	Level of Involvement	→	Level of Participation
Gender	→	Level of Involvement	→	Suggesting

Figure 6. Origin Europe Regression Based on t-tests.

Independent Variable		Dependent Variable (DV)		Sub-Item of DV
Origin	→	Level of Involvement	→	Suggesting
Origin	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	Satisfied with How TM is
Origin	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	Level of Disappointment
Origin	→	Level of Satisfaction	→	Average Satisfaction
Origin	→	Voice	→	Seeking Opinions

Figure 7. Informal TM Settings Regression Based on t-tests.

The regression analysis procedures were conducted considering several important assumptions that needed to be satisfied if linear regression was to be used. Consequently, both the independent and the dependent variables were measured at the interval or ratio level. The relationship between the independent and the dependent variables was tested for linearity. Frequency charts and scatterplots were obtained to verify data from participants' responses. In addition, errors in prediction of the value of the dependent

variable were tested to verify independence of one another. Finally, procedures were conducted to check for significant signs of multicollinearity or homoscedasticity. All results can be found and discussed in the results chapter ahead.

Qualitative Statistical Procedures

In qualitative data, the lines aren't so clear dividing collection and analysis as it is in quantitative analysis (Patton, 2002). Qualitative data in this study was obtained through interview process as described before and had the purpose of validating data or even capture different dimensions of the same phenomenon (Patton, 2002). Below is a detailed description of how data was analyzed and then used for validation purposes.

Description and Data Coding. The coding scheme was the first step in qualitative data analysis, as without classification there would be chaos and confusion (Patton, 2002). The codes used were chosen according to the independent and dependent variables. Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect were coded as EVLN and Level of Involvement (LI), Level of Skills Used (SU) and Level of Satisfaction with TM issues (LS).

The process of data coding was completed after collecting both quantitative and qualitative information from the initial 70 managers and the 15 participants in the interview process. In other words, data coding was executed with data from DB3. The collected data was collected in the form of natural language (Patton, 2002). Consequently, once all data was collected from all organizations, data was analyzed, interpreted and coded according to the EVLN (Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect) (See *Figure 8*) framework in a unique database. Thus, the collected data was allocated in each of the four behavioral response quadrants mentioned above according to the specified and

previously designed checklist. For example, a response that indicated Exit was

categorized in that specific quadrant, and the same occurrence applied to all three

remaining situations as illustrated in *Figure 8* below.

Figure 8 will show some examples can be found related to each of the four

dependent variables, Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect. The examples were taken from

previous studies (Rusbult et al., 1982) and slightly adapted here to be applied in the data

collection and analysis processes.

EXIT	VOICE
- I can leave by choice if I feel unheard - I would rather exit than feel negligent - When the organization does not work effectively I consider leaving - Twice I had the feeling of leaving	- I always suggest first - I give several alerts for my peers regarding the way we manage our work - I tell the board that if they don't say anything, I will implement - I talk with the Administration
NEGLECT	LOYALTY
- There are no opportunities for suggestions - When we meet on Mondays the agenda is only about technical problems, and I feel that I am not useful. I am doing nothing here - I am very passive	- I am 100% loyal - Even with problems with clients I remain present - Many times, I was invited to other organizations and declined - I grew up in this organization and salary wasn't leveled

Figure 8. Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect Conceptual framework (Hirschman 1970; Rusbult, Zembrodt & Gunn, 1982). Results obtained from a Polonia (2015) pilot study Top Management Responses to Talent Management Policies in a Portuguese Organization.

Data was organized in note taking documents that allowed categorization of the different behaviors used in response to specific indefinite TM practices. Moreover, common themes that came across the responses and how they related to the four quadrants was consistently sought (Patton, 2002). A theory driven analysis of narrative based on EVLN was used in order to compare the different responses. For collecting and coding data I used AudioNote Software version 4.2.2, a simple note taking software with notepad and voice recorder that allowed me to record the interviews while allowing me at the same time to take notes with direct time reference to the recording, making it easier to find ideas and thoughts in real timing. In other words, notes were taken linked directly with recorded audio.

Contribution to Final Data. The data collected from the interviews were found to be critical at several levels. First, it served to converge with the quantitative data obtained from the surveys allowing to mitigate eventual differences in responses from participants (Patton, 2002). The fact that 15 respondents accepted the challenge proved to be a good response rate allowing a safe conclusion that the entire data obtained in the end was in fact valid and truthful. Second, with the interviews I was able to sense what people really felt when they discussed how their talents are not being properly used. Notations of sentiments of fear and frustration will be explained in detail in the proper sections ahead. Third, the interview allowed me to sense how talents are built and how we can contribute to a more accurate definition of talent and talent management. Finally, using the semi-structured interviews, I was able to introduce both structured and open portions which allowed participants to feel free to respond in any way, as the interviews had a guide but also gave importance to emerging contexts bringing to the stage a more informal

conversational Interview (Patton, 2002). The interviews also helped to guide me with

certain questions allowing me to better perceive their behaviors such as those related

specifically with Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect. The structured part of the interview

was based on the electronic questionnaire with a certain sequence of questions, asked in

the same order and the same way as all subjects of the research survey. The final part of

the interview consisted of reading three sentences for each of the four dependent

variables, and ask the participants to situate themselves on a 1-7 Likert scale, simulating

the questions associated with the dependent variables in the survey (Appendix D. This

process served as cross-validation for the final scores, as I had the survey scores, the

interview responses and finally this sort of validation scale in order to come up with the

final values for database 3. The information was stated and recorded in each of the

AudioNote files created for each of the fifteen participants.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Introduction and Brief Summary of Results

The results presented in this chapter follow a sequence of statistical operations described in detail in the methodology section. Initially, descriptive statistics will be presented for the demographic data as well as for the following three independent variables: Level of Formality, Level of Involvement in the Talent Management Design Process, the Level of Use of One's Skills and the General Level of Satisfaction with Talent Management related issues, and EVLN as the four dependent variables. Following, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for each of the independent and dependent variables. Internal consistency results will be presented and discussed in statistical terms. This portion of the summary will cover data obtained from correlations among all demographics, plus the level of formality and all independent and dependent variables. Additionally, the data obtained from the comparison of means, conducting independence sample t-tests for all cases, informal and formal settings, and cases with origin in North America and Europe will be studied. Finally, regressions were conducted for all significant results obtained from the correlations and from the independent sample t-tests. For the purposes of this study, only the significant regression models at $p<.05$ will be discussed in the summary of predictions shown at the end of this chapter. These significant models will detail the influence of some variables over others in order to search for validation of the hypotheses initially stated. Results will focus on the averages of each independent and dependent variable, and on each of the items that compose the average scale.

Quantitative Data Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all independent variables such as the Level of Involvement in the Talent Management Design Process, the Level of Use of One's Skills and the General Level of Satisfaction with Talent Management related issues. Moreover, descriptive statistics were obtained for all dependent variables, which are Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect. Finally, all demographic related variables such as Origin, Age, Gender, Education Level, Years Working in the Organization, and the Level of Formality of the talent management system in the organization were also targets of analysis for measures of central tendency and dispersion. Mean and standard deviations were calculated for all above mentioned variables and its sub-items when applicable (Hinkle et al., 2003).

The survey was distributed to managers in the service industry (tertiary sector) with n=70 including 42 respondents working in North America which made up 60% of the sample and 28 (40%) working in Europe. The interview process relied on the 18 managers that initially accepted participation in this phase. However, only 15 were available to participate. Therefore, the interview was conducted with an n=15, including 7 from North America, making up approximately 46.7% of the interview sub-sample and 8 from Europe which made up approximately 53.3%. The actual number of interviewed respondents totaled approximately 21.4% of 70 survey respondents. The respondents' age range was presented in five different intervals. Ages ranging from 36-45 and 46-55 were highly represented with 29 respondents each corresponding to a percentage of 41.4% for each of those intervals. Thirty-seven males answered the survey representing 52.9% of

the entire sample. Female respondents totaled 47.1% corresponding to 33 participants.

The educational level was represented mostly by respondents with high levels of

education, with 38 respondents out of 70 with a Masters' degree corresponding to 54.3%

of the sample. The second most populated interval was 12 respondents with a Bachelor

degree representing 17.1% of all respondents. The sample was mainly composed of

individuals with a high level of professional experience with 28 of the 70 respondents

having 9 or more years of work experience in their particular organization. This

corresponded to 40% of the total sample. The second most experienced level of

respondents were individuals with 2-4 years working in their organizations. The number

of respondents for this interval was 16 corresponding to 22.9% of all 70 respondents.

Finally, the results concerning the level of formality of the talent management

systems that respondents worked in was obtained. Since the goal was to study managers'

responses to indefinite or absent talent management practices, the levels of formality of

the talent management systems were crucial to obtain. The results showed that 47

respondents (67.1%) work in an informal system. The remaining 23 respondents (32.9%)

work in more formal systems. For this particular variable, a formal system was

considered for all responses obtained in question number 7 – TM Level of Formality. All

responses with a score of 5, 6 or 7 in the 7-point Likert scale were considered formal

systems. All values below or equal to 4 corresponded to informal systems. As a result,

two groups were constituted with both formal and informal talent management settings

according to managers' responses in question 7 of the survey. Talent management

systems either exist as formal policies and procedures aligned with the organization's

strategy, or they may not be considered formal talent management systems.

A formal talent management system is one that has solid organizational

disciplines and methodologies recognized in typical industry and organizational settings

and environments where formal structures are capable of reading and collecting data for

people's developmental purposes. Frequently, in order to be formalized practices, these

methodologies are associated with organizational objectives and with strong strategic

orientation principles, while constantly producing data for development purposes and the

management of talent. By contrast, an informal system is the opposite of what was just

described. It is a system that has no solid talent management practices, does not collect

data on a frequent basis, does not use information for future development and is not

linked to a solid organizational strategy where Talent Management is considered. Having

this in mind, all data collected produces important descriptive information that deserves

to be carefully analyzed. To this end, Tables 1-5 provide basic descriptive statistics for all

dependent and independent variables as well as their respective scale items.

Table 1

All Cases Descriptive Statistics for Demographic, Independent Variables (IVs),
Dependent Variables (DVs), and Level of Formality of Talent Management Practices

	n	Min	Max	$\bar{x}$	s
Origin	70	1	2	NA	NA
Age	70	1	5	3.27	.88
Education	70	2	6	4.74	.94
Years Working	70	1	5	3.36	1.57
Avg Involvement	70	1	7	3.61	1.53
Avg Skill Use	70	2	6	4.37	1.28
Avg Satisfaction	70	1	7	3.54	1.52
Avg Exit	70	1	7	4.10	1.42
Avg Voice	70	1	6	3.83	1.23
Avg Loyalty	70	2	7	3.90	1.05
Avg Neglect	70	1	5	2.50	1.07
Level Formality TM	70	0	1	NA	NA

Note. NA – Not Applicable.

Table 2

Formal Talent Management Cases Descriptive Statistics for Demographics, Independent Variables (IVs), and Dependent Variables (DVs)

	n	Min	Max	$\bar{x}$	s
Origin	23	1	2	NA	NA
Age	23	2	5	3.39	.72
Education	23	2	6	4.70	.97
Years Working	23	1	5	3.61	1.40
Avg Involvement	23	2	7	4.30	1.58
Avg Skill Use	23	2	6	4.65	1.19
Avg Satisfaction	23	1	7	4.13	1.58
Avg Exit	23	1	6	3.96	1.40
Avg Voice	23	3	6	4.22	.90
Avg Loyalty	23	3	6	4.09	.95
Avg Neglect	23	1	5	2.39	.99

Note. NA – Not Applicable.

Table 3

Informal Talent Management Cases Descriptive Statistics for Demographics, Independent Variables (IVs), and Dependent Variables (DVs)

	n	Min	Max	$\bar{x}$	s
Origin	47	1	2	NA	NA
Age	47	1	5	3.21	.95
Education	47	2	6	4.77	.93
Years Working	47	1	5	3.23	1.64
Avg Involvement	47	1	6	3.28	1.41
Avg Skill Use	47	2	6	4.23	1.32
Avg Satisfaction	47	1	6	3.26	1.43
Avg Exit	47	1	7	4.17	1.44
Avg Voice	47	1	6	3.64	1.34
Avg Loyalty	47	2	7	3.81	1.09
Avg Neglect	47	1	5	2.55	1.11

Note. NA – Not Applicable.

Table 4

Origin Based Cases Descriptive Statistics for Demographics, Independent Variables (IVs), Dependent Variables (DVs), and Level of Formality of Talent Management Practices

| | Origin | | | | | |
| | North America | | | Europe | | |
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n
Age	3.07	.92	42	3.57	.74	28
Education	4.76	1.08	42	4.71	.71	28
Years Working	2.98	1.50	42	3.93	1.51	28
Avg Involvement	3.50	1.52	42	3.79	1.57	28
Avg Skills Used	4.33	1.39	42	4.43	1.14	28
Avg Satisfaction	3.74	1.43	42	3.25	1.65	28
Avg Exit	4.10	1.54	42	4.11	1.26	28
Avg Voice	3.76	1.28	42	3.93	1.18	28
Avg Loyalty	3.83	.99	42	4.00	1.16	28
Avg Neglect	2.57	1.19	42	2.39	.88	28
Level Formality TM	NA	NA	42	NA	NA	28

Note. In North America, there are 28 Non-formal TM systems – 66.7% and 14 Formal TM systems - 33.3%; In Europe, there are 19 Non-formal TM systems – 67.9% and 9 Formal TM systems – 32.1%; NA – Not Applicable.

Table 5

All Cases Descriptive Statistics for all IVs and DVs Survey Questions and Sub-Items

	n	Min	Max	$\overline{x}$	s
Involvement	70	1	7	3.56	1.68
Participation	70	1	7	3.36	1.67
Suggestions	70	1	7	3.81	1.50
AVG INVOLVEMENT	70	1	7	3.61	1.53
Assess Skills	70	1	7	3.67	1.75
Skills Used	70	2	7	4.79	1.25
Capacity Use	70	2	7	4.67	1.24
AVG SKILLS USED	70	2	6	4.37	1.28
Think About Tm	70	1	7	3.30	1.64
Satisfaction Tm	70	1	7	3.53	1.63
Disappointed Tm	70	1	7	3.73	1.47
AVG SATISFACTION	70	1	7	3.54	1.52
Change Career	70	1	7	3.69	1.66
Look Alternatives	70	1	7	3.56	1.66
Speak Hierarchy	70	1	7	5.06	1.57
AVG EXIT	70	1	7	4.10	1.42
Suggesting	70	1	7	3.90	1.46
Cooperation	70	1	7	3.90	1.61
Seek Opinions	70	1	7	3.69	1.53
AVG VOICE	70	1	6	3.83	1.23
Stay Loyal	70	1	7	4.79	1.41
Always Agree	70	1	7	3.50	1.49
Wait do Nothing	70	1	7	3.39	1.48
AVG LOYALTY	70	2	7	3.90	1.05
Care	70	1	7	3.04	1.58
Let Go	70	1	6	2.80	1.49
Minimal Effort	70	1	6	1.74	1.15
AVG NEGLECT	70	1	5	2.50	1.07

Beyond the closed Likert-type questions asked to participants in this study, one

question was asked regarding the way talent is acquired throughout their careers. The

options given were Innate, Inherited, Professional Courses, Professional Activity,

Academics, Hobbies, and Other. The responses were clear in a way that 34.6% of the 70

participants chose Professional Experience as the main source for acquiring talent.

Academics as a critical source was next with 17% of respondents. And following closely

were respondents who referred that talent is an innate phenomenon. Professional Courses came right after with 14.7%. Interesting though were the answers given in the open alternative "Other". When given the possibility to suggest any thoughts on how talent can be acquired, respondents proposed Coaching and Mentoring as the most important way of reaching high potential using people's talents. Coaching was mentioned 6 times as by far the most important way of acquiring talent. In second came Networking with 2 single references along with Life Experience in general. This certainly explains the importance of the professional environment as well as the influence that coaches and mentors have in the development of people in organizations. See Table 6 below for results of descriptive statistics.

Table 6

All Cases Compared Means for "How You Built Up Your Talents" for Origin; Gender; Talent Management Level of Formality

	Origin		Gender		TM Formality	
	North America	Europe	Female	Male	Informal TM	Formal TM
Innate	16.60	15.61	20.67	12.22	16.53	15.52
Inherited	8.31	7.71	10.00	6.35	9.36	5.43
Professional Courses	12.10	18.50	13.91	15.32	13.30	17.43
Academic Work	19.14	13.79	15.30	18.51	17.47	16.04
Professional Experience	32.98	36.93	31.52	37.27	32.66	38.43
Hobbies	5.79	6.39	4.45	6.14	6.00	4.00
Other	4.98	2.79	3.97	4.19	4.68	2.82

Note. n = 42 for Origin North America; n = 28 for Origin Europe; n = 33 for Female; n = 37 for Male; n = 47 for Informal TM; n = 23 for Formal TM.

Moreover, when looking at Table 6 other interesting conclusions may be noted. First, European managers seem to believe that talent can be acquired mainly through professional courses while North American managers seem to rely on academic work. In general, women believe more than men that talent is innate. Men believe work is needed to acquire talent. Finally, when formality is present, all data seems to be leveled with a few exceptions concerning inheriting talent and acquiring it through professional work. Later in this chapter, when comparing means and testing for significance, these values will be shown in detail for better appreciation.

Reliability – Cronbach's Alpha for IVs and DVs

Internal consistency coefficients were calculated for all three independent and four dependent variables. The scales of each variable consisted of three items each. The coefficient of reliability for the Level of Involvement in the Talent Management Design Process was $\alpha=.92$. The Level of Use of One's Skills came up with a value of $\alpha=.86$. The third and last independent variable, the General Level of Satisfaction with Talent Management related issues had a reliable internal consistency of $\alpha=.91$. These values were definitely pointing to a strong internal consistency for each independent variable. When examining the reliability coefficients for the dependent variables the values were for Exit ($\alpha=.75$), Voice $\alpha=.64$), Loyalty $\alpha=.41$), and Neglect ($\alpha=.57$). Loyalty had the lowest reliability coefficient. In part, this fact can be explained by a low number of three questions for this particular case, or due to poor inter-relatedness between items in the scale. Another reason given for such a low value may have to do with the fact that the sample had 70 subjects. A larger sample may have solved this issue with this scale (Inoue, 2014).

However, later in the discussion chapter, a detailed overview on previous studies will demonstrate that Loyalty is the most difficult variable or behavior to predict. In conclusion, all values were viewed as strong for all independent variables with all values of alpha equal to or higher than .86. Regarding the dependent variables all values showed high internal consistency except for the Loyalty scale as explained above. These values can be seen in table 7.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics and Cronbach's Alpha for Average Independent and Dependent Variables

Variable	$\overline{x}$	s	α
AVG Level of Involvement	3.58	1.54	.92
AVG Level of Skills Used	4.38	1.29	.86
AVG General Level Satisfaction w/ TM	3.52	1.53	.91
Average EXIT	4.10	1.43	.75
Average VOICE	3.83	1.24	.64
Average LOYALTY	3.89	1.05	.41
Average NEGLECT	2.53	1.07	.57

Note. n=70.

Correlation Analysis for Demographics, IVs and DVs

A first set of correlations was conducted for all cases of both formal and non-formal talent management settings. The variables involved included all data obtained from demographics such as Origin, Age, Gender, Education Level, and Years Working in the Organization, plus all the data from the average results of all independent variables such as the Level of Involvement in the TM Design Process, the Level of Use of One's Skills, and the General Level of Satisfaction with TM related issues. In addition, the

averages for the dependent variables Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect were included in

the correlations since they represent the indices associated with these variables.

Additionally, the variable Level of Formality was also included in the correlation

table. When performing correlations, a $p < .05$ level of significance was used. The results

from the "All Cases" table showed interesting and significant results as seen in Table 8.

Education Level showed significant a negative correlation with the average of the Level

of Skills Used with $r = -.25$, indicating that there might be a possibility of highly

educated people not using all their skills in organizational settings. Also, Education Level

is the only demographics variable that has impact in either the independent or dependent

variables for all cases as well as for formal and non-formal settings. Moreover, for all

case analysis, the Level of Formality was highly correlated with the Average Level of

Involvement ($r = .31$) and the Average Level of Satisfaction ($r = .27$).

Regarding the correlations between independent variables and dependent

variables, the Average Level of Involvement was the variable that correlated the strongest

with the dependent variables Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect. For example, there was a

significant negative correlation with Exit ($r = -.30$) indicating the possibility of managers

leaving the organization if they don't feel that they are involved in TM practices. There

was also a negative correlation with Neglect ($r = -.34$) indicating not only a tendency for

staying in the organization and being neglectful but also a strong tendency for destructive

behaviors in general.

Finally, a positive statistically significant correlation was found with Voice ($r = .53$) somehow validating the importance of involvement in staying when managers are

truly involved in TM practices. Not surprisingly, the Average Level of Skills Used, was

also negatively correlated with Exit (r = -.55) and positively correlated with Voice (r = .34). Following the same pattern was the Average Level of Satisfaction, where a strong negative correlation with Exit (r = -.74) was found and a positive one with Voice (r = .24). In conclusion, strong evidence of statistically significant correlations exists between the three independent variables and Exit and Voice, evidencing their strong relationship. Table 8 will show all cases correlations matrix for demographics, independent variables, dependent variables, and level of formality of talent management Practices.

Table 8

All Cases Correlations Matrix for Demographics, Independent Variables, Dependent Variables, and Level of Formality of Talent Management Practices

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Origin	1	.28*	-.05	-.03	.30*	-.01	.09	.04	-.16	.04	.07	.08	-.08
2. Age		1	.10	.12	.28*	.10	.12	-.17	-.22	.13	-.01	-.10	-.10
3. Gender			1	.02	-.06	-.07	.17	.14	.17	-.10	.12	-.04	-.01
4. Education				1	.01	-.04	-.09	-.25*	-.14	.20	-.04	-.17	-.01
5. Years Working					1	.11	-.06	-.05	-.17	.05	-.15	-.05	-.14
6. Level Formality						1	.31**	.15	.27*	-.07	.22	.13	-.07
7. AVG Involvement							1	.29*	.18	-.30*	.53**	.18	-.34**
8. AVG Skill Use								1	.67**	-.55**	.34**	.04	-.21
9. AVG Satisfaction									1	-.74**	.24*	.09	-.18
10. AVG Exit										1	-.25*	-.28*	.39**
11. AVG Voice											1	.28*	-.38**
12. AVG Loyalty												1	-.08
13. AVG Neglect													1
x̄	a	3.27	NA	4.74	3.36	NA	3.61	4.37	3.54	4.10	3.83	3.90	2.50
s	a	.49	NA	.94	1.57	NA	1.54	1.29	1.53	1.43	1.24	1.05	1.07

Note. NA – Not Applicable; * Significant at .05; ** Significant at .01.

When looking exclusively at Formal settings in Table 9, fewer significant correlations were noted. However, those found were quite high and statistically significant. For example, Average Level of Involvement had a positive correlation with Voice ($r = .46$) and negative correlation with Neglect ($r = -.58$). The Level of Skills Used showed to be negatively correlated with Exit ($r = -.56$). And finally, the Average Level of Satisfaction was strongly correlated with Exit but in a negative way ($r = -.82$).

When looking at the Informal talent management organizational setting (Table 10), the number of significant correlations was again large. For instance, Origin and Age were significantly negatively correlated with Average Level of Satisfaction ($r = -.30$) and ($r = -.33$) respectively. Educational Level was also negatively correlated with Loyalty ($r = -.32$). The Average Level of Involvement was positively correlated with the Level of Skills Used ($r = .51$), negatively correlated with Exit ($r = -.32$), and positively correlated with Voice ($r = .53$). The Average Level of Skills Used was the most correlated variable of all with positive correlations with the Level of Satisfaction ($r = .60$) and Voice ($r = .44$) and negative correlations with Exit ($r = -.54$) and Neglect ($r = -.32$). The Average Level of Satisfaction had negative correlation results with Exit ($r = -.71$) and with Neglect ($r = -.31$).

Table 9

Formal Cases Correlations Matrix for Demographics, Independent Variables, Dependent Variables, and Level of Formality of Talent Management Practices

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Origin	1	.19	.12	-.02	.62**	-.10	.16	.10	-.04	-.10	.02	-.14
2. Age		1	-.04	.11	-.02	.25	-.05	-.09	.06	.14	.15	-.16
3. Gender			1	-.33	.08	.09	.14	.15	-.10	-.24	-.09	.15
4. Education				1	.10	.06	-.41	-.24	.19	.13	.18	-.20
5. Years Working					1	-.11	.13	.11	-.10	.03	-.04	-.05
6. AVG Involvement						1	-.28	-.11	-.24	.46*	-.08	-.58**
7. AVG Skill Use							1	.80	-.56**	-.10	-.37	.12
8. AVG Satisfaction								1	-.82**	.01	-.13	.14
9. AVG Exit									1	-.17	-.07	.21
10. AVG Voice										1	-.08	-.51*
11. AVG Loyalty											1	.16
12. AVG Neglect												1
$\bar{x}$	NA	3.39	NA	4.70	3.61	4.30	4.65	4.13	3.96	4.22	4.09	2.39
s	NA	.50	NA	.97	1.41	1.58	1.19	1.58	1.40	.90	.95	.99

Note. NA – Not Applicable; * Significant at .05; ** Significant at .01.

Table 10

Informal Cases Correlations Matrix for Demographics, Independent Variables, Dependent Variables, and Level of Formality of Talent Management Practices

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Origin	1	.32*	-.13	-.03	.18	.21	-.02	-.30*	.02	.13	.11	-.06
2. Age		1	.16	.13	.37*	.04	-.23	-.33*	.16	-.07	-.19	-.07
3. Gender			1	.19	-.11	.27	.16	.22	-.10	.27	-.01	-.09
4. Education				1	.02	-.16	-.18	-.08	.21	-.09	-.32*	.06
5. Years Working					1	-.10	-.15	-.36*	.12	-.24	-.07	-.17
6. AVG Involvement						1	.51**	.23	-.32*	.53**	.26	-.22
7. AVG Skill Use							1	.60**	-.54**	.44**	.17	-.32*
8. AVG Satisfaction								1	-.71**	.26	.14	-.31*
9. AVG Exit									1	-.27	-.36*	.46**
10. AVG Voice										1	.35*	-.34*
11. AVG Loyalty											1	-.16
12. AVG Neglect												1
$\bar{x}$	NA	3.21	NA	4.77	3.23	3.28	4.23	3.26	4.17	3.64	3.81	2.55
s	NA	.95	NA	.94	1.65	1.41	1.32	1.44	1.45	1.34	1.10	1.12

Note. NA – Not Applicable; * Significant at .05; ** Significant at .01.

In conclusion, the following can be inferred from the analysis of the three tables, including all cases of formal and non-formal data. Simply stated, Formality helps level the data. When in the presence of formal settings, it can often be seen that there are fewer significant correlations and that Exit and Neglect are the most affected variables, both supported by destructive responses. When looking at informal systems the correlations appear from all angles. While Exit and Neglect are still well represented, Voice and Loyalty gain importance, suggesting that in informal TM environments factors such as Educational Level may potentially gain critical predicting power in determining constructive responses. Curiously, Gender didn't correlate with any variable and Origin was only correlated with the Level of Satisfaction. Satisfaction was also higher correlated with constructive behaviors in formal settings than in non-formal settings. This is a factor in explaining the importance of having formal systems in order to keep people happy in organizational settings. These variables will later be used to conduct regression analysis confirming or not the capacity to predict how managers respond to informal and formal TM environments.

Independent Samples t-test

Beside the findings obtained from the correlational analysis, independent samples t-tests were conducted for the following groups: North America and Europe, and those in non-formal or informal talent management settings. The main goal of conducting these t-tests was to detect differences in responses from specific groups from a formal point of view and also from a geographical point of view. Gender was also considered as potentially critic for determining managers' responses. Contained in Tables 11 thorough 14 is the full set of all statistically significant differences in means. All other differences

were not considered significant at $p < .05$ and as a result they are not presented in this chapter, but will be discussed later in this study. Tables 11-14 will summarize all predictor variables, dependents variables and respective sub-items when applicable, used for the samples t-test. Sub-items are any of the three questions asked for each of the independent and dependent variables. Therefore, when referring to the main average variable itself such as EVLN or any of the three independent variables, the sub-item is described as average and is properly identified in the table as the average of that variable. For example, Average Involvement or Average Satisfaction are the main variables. Putting Minimal Effort is a sub-item of a main variable, in this case Average neglect.

Table 11

All Cases Independence Samples t-test

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sub-Item
Gender	Neglect	Minimal Effort
Origin	Level of Satisfaction	Level of Disappointment
Origin	Neglect	Letting Things Go
Formality	Level of Involvement	Average Involvement *
Formality	Level of Involvement	Level of Participation
Formality	Level of Involvement	Involvement in Design TM
Formality	Level of Satisfaction	Average Satisfaction *
Formality	Level of Satisfaction	TM Well Managed
Formality	Level of Satisfaction	Satisfied with TM
Formality	Voice	Average Voice
Formality	Level of Skills Used	Skills Assessment

Note. * Independent (Involvement; Satisfaction; Skills Used) or Dependent Variable (EVLN).

Table 12

Origin North America Cases Independence Samples t-test

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sub-Item
Formality	Level of Involvement	Average Involvement *
Formality	Level of Involvement	Involvement in Design TM
Formality	Level of Involvement	Participation
Formality	Level of Involvement	Suggesting
Formality	Voice	Cooperation with Peers
Gender	Neglect	Level of Effort

Note. * Independent (Involvement; Satisfaction; Skills Used) or Dependent Variable (EVLN).

Table 13

Origin Europe Cases Independence Samples t-test

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sub-Item
Formality	Level of Skills Used	Skills are Assessed
Formality	Level of Satisfaction	Average Satisfaction *
Formality	Level of Satisfaction	TM Well Managed
Formality	Level of Satisfaction	Satisfied with TM
Gender	Level of Involvement	Average Involvement *
Gender	Level of Involvement	Involvement in Design TM
Gender	Level of Involvement	Participation
Gender	Level of Involvement	Suggesting

Note. * Independent (Involvement; Satisfaction; Skills Used) or Dependent Variable (EVLN).

Table 14

Informal Cases Independence Samples t-test

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Sub-Item
Origin	Level of Involvement	Suggesting
Origin	Level of Satisfaction	Satisfied with TM
Origin	Level of Satisfaction	Level of Disappointment
Origin	Level of Satisfaction	Average Satisfaction *
Gender	Voice	Seeking Opinions

Note. * Independent (Involvement; Satisfaction; Skills Used) or Dependent Variable (EVLN).

In analyzing each of the above identified comparisons of means, a table was created for each statistically significant difference. Tables 15 through 44 will provide each specific independence samples t-test.

All Cases Independence Samples t-test. Following are independence samples t-test for all cases:

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare men and women's effort levels when they are not satisfied with the way talent is managed in their organizations. Noteworthy differences were found as men reported significantly higher levels of putting forth minimal effort. In other words, men put forth less effort than women when feeling their talent is not properly used or managed. Men ($\bar{x}$=2.00, s=1.33) reported significantly lower levels of effort than women ($\bar{x}$=1.45, s =.83) at the *p*<.05 level. See Table 15.

Table 15

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases - Putting Minimal Effort by Gender

	Sex						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Male			Female					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Minimal Effort	2	1.33	37	1.45	.83	33	-1.08, -.01	-2.02*	68

Note. * p = .05 for p < .05.

Results of the independent samples t-test show that mean Disappointment with TM differs between managers in North American ($\bar{x}$=4.02, s=1.33, n=42) and managers in Europe ($\bar{x}$=3.29, s=1.58, n=28) at the .05 level of significance. On average managers in North America tend to have higher levels of disappointment with TM practices than managers in Europe. See Table 16.

Table 16

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases – Disappointment with TM by Origin

	Origin						95% CI Mean Difference		
	North America			Europe					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Disappointment with TM	4.02	1.33	42	3.29	1.58	28	.04, 1.44	2.10*	68

Note. * p = .04 for p < .05.

Findings also suggest that mean Letting Things go differs between North Americans ($\bar{x}$=3.12, s=1.53, n=42) and Europeans ($\bar{x}$=2.32, s=1.31, n=28) at the .05 level of significance. As shown on Table 17, on average North Americans tend to be more neglectful by letting things go than Europeans when dissatisfied with the way talent is managed in their organizations.

Table 17

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases – Letting Things Go by Origin

| | Origin | | | | | | 95% CI Mean Difference | | |
| | North America | | | Europe | | | | | |
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Disappointment with TM	3.12	1.53	42	2.32	1.31	28	.09, 1.50	2.26*	68

*Note. * p = .03 for p < .05.*

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare formal and informal TM settings. Differences were found as managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of Average Involvement. Managers in informal TM settings ($\overline{x}$=3.28, s=1.41) reported significantly lower levels of involvement than managers in formal settings. See Table 18.

Table 18

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases – Average Involvement by Level of Formality

| | Formality | | | | | | 95% CI Mean Difference | | |
| | Informal | | | Formal | | | | | |
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
AVG Involvement	3.28	1.41	47	4.30	1.58	23	-1.77, -.28	-2.75*	68

*Note. * p = .01 for p < .05.*

Results of the independent samples t-test show that participation levels differ between managers in Formal TM settings ($\overline{x}$=4.30, s=1.55, n=23) and managers in Informal settings ($\overline{x}$=2.89, s=1.55, n=47) at the .05 level of significance. On average managers participate more in formal TM settings than in informal TM settings as shown in Table 19.

Table 19

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases –Participation by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Participation	2.89	1.55	47	4.30	1.55	23	-2.20, -.62	-3.58*	68

Note. * *p* = .01 for *p* < .05.

Samples t-test findings suggest that mean Involvement in TM Design differs between Formal ($\overline{x}$=4.26, s=1.91, n=23) and Informal ($\overline{x}$=3.21, s=1.46, n=47) settings at the .05 level of significance (t=-2.54, df=68, *p* < .05, 95% CI for mean difference -1.87 to -.226). On average managers in formal TM settings tend to be much more involved than managers in informal settings. See Table 20 below.

Table 20

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases –Involvement in TM Design by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Involvement	3.21	1.46	47	4.26	1.91	23	-1.87, -.23	-2.54*	68

Note. * *p* = .01 for *p* < .05.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare Average Satisfaction in formal and informal TM settings. Differences were found as managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of Average Satisfaction. As shown in Table 21, managers in informal TM settings ($\bar{x}$=3.26, s=1.44) reported significantly lower levels of satisfaction than managers in formal settings ($\bar{x}$=4.13, s=1.58). See Table 21.

Table 21

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases – Average Satisfaction by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
AVG Satisfaction	3.26	1.44	47	4.13	1.58	23	-1.63, -.12	-2.32*	68

Note. * p = .02 for p < .05.

Findings suggest that managers in formal and informal TM settings differ significantly. Managers in formal TM Settings have better impressions of their TM system ($\bar{x}$=4.13, s=1.74, n=23) than managers in informal settings ($\bar{x}$=2.89, s=1.45, n=47) at the .05 level of significance. See Table 22.

Table 22

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases – Thoughts on TM by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Think About TM	2.89	1.45	47	4.13	1.74	23	-2.02, -.45	-3.14*	68

Note. * p = .01 for p < .05.

Results of the independent samples t-test also show that Satisfaction with TM differ between managers in Formal TM settings ($\bar{x}$=4.13, s=1.60, n=23) and managers in Informal settings ($\bar{x}$=3.23, s=1.59, n=47) at the .05 level of significance. As shown in Table 23, on average managers are more satisfied with TM practices in their organizations in formal TM settings than in informal TM settings.

Table 23

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases – Satisfaction with TM by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Satisfaction TM	3.23	1.59	47	4.13	1.60	23	-1.71, -.09	-2.21*	68

Note. * p = .03 for $p < .05$.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare Voice responses in formal and informal TM settings. No significant differences were found. However, managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of active constructive practices. Managers in informal TM settings ($\bar{x}$=3.64, s=1.34) reported significantly lower levels of Voice behaviors than those in formal settings ($\bar{x}$=4.22, s=0.90). See Table 24.

Table 24

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases – Voice by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
AVG Voice	3.64	1.34	47	4.22	0.90	23	-1.20, -.04	-1.87*	68

Note. * p = .07 not significant for $p < .05$.

Sample t-test findings suggest that managers in formal and informal TM settings differ significantly. Managers in formal TM Settings have their skills assessed more frequently ($\bar{x}$= 4.30, s=1.55, n=23) than managers in informal settings ($\bar{x}$=3.36, s=1.79, n=47) at the .05 level of significance. See Table 25.

Table 25

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for All Cases – Skills Assessment by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Assess Skills	3.36	1.79	47	4.30	1.55	23	-1.81, -.07	-2.16*	68

Note. * *p* = .03 for *p* < .05.

Origin North America Cases Independence Samples t-test. Following are independence samples t-tests for Origin North America:

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare formal and informal TM settings in North America. Differences were found as North America managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of Average Involvement. As shown in Table 26, managers in informal TM settings ($\bar{x}$=3.04, s=1.20) reported significantly lower levels of involvement than managers in formal settings ($\bar{x}$=4.43, s=1.70).

Table 26

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin North America – Average Involvement by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	x̄	s	n	x̄	s	n		t	df
AVG Involvement	3.04	1.20	28	4.43	1.70	14	-2.31, -.48	-3.08*	40

Note. * *p* = .01 for *p* < .05.

Samples t-test findings suggest that mean Involvement in TM Design differs between Formal (x̄=4.36, s=2.06, n=14) and Informal (x̄=3.04, s=1.24, n=28) settings in North America at the .05 level of significance. On average managers in formal TM settings in North America tend to be much more involved than managers in informal settings. See Table 27.

Table 27

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin North America – Involvement in TM Design by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	x̄	s	n	x̄	s	n		t	df
Involvement	3.04	1.29	28	4.36	2.06	14	-2.37, -.27	-2.55*	40

Note. * *p* = .02 for *p* < .05.

Results of the independent samples t-test show that participation levels differ between North American managers in Formal TM settings (x̄=4.50, s=1.56, n=14) and North American managers in Informal settings (x̄=2.75, s=1.32, n=28) at the .05 level of significance. On average managers in North America participate more in formal TM settings than in informal TM settings. Results are presented in Table 28.

Table 28

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin North America – Participation by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	x̄	s	n	x̄	s	n		t	df
Participation	2.75	1.32	28	4.50	1.56	14	-2.68, -.82	-3.81*	40

Note. * *p* = .01 for *p* < .05.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare suggestion levels in formal and informal TM settings in North America. Differences were found as North America managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of suggestions. Managers in informal TM settings (x̄=3.25, s=1.27) reported significantly lower levels of suggestions than managers in formal settings (x̄=4.29, s=1.68). See Table 29.

Table 29

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin North America – Suggestions by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	x̄	s	n	x̄	s	n		t	df
Suggestions	3.25	1.27	28	4.29	1.68	14	-1.97, -.10	-2.24*	40

Note. * *p* = .03 for *p* < .05.

A t-test was also conducted to compare Cooperation - Voice behaviors in formal and informal TM settings. Significant differences were found as managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of active constructive practices. Managers in informal TM settings (x̄=3.50, s=1.60) reported significantly lower levels of Voice behaviors than managers in formal settings (x̄=4.71, s=1.49). See Table 30.

Table 30

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin North America – Cooperation (Voice) by Level of Formality

| | Formality | | | | | | 95% CI Mean Difference | | |
| | Informal | | | Formal | | | | | |
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Cooperation	3.50	1.60	28	4.71	1.49	14	-2.25, -.18	-2.37*	40

Note. * *p* = .02 for *p* < .05.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare men and women's effort levels in North America when they are not satisfied with the way talent is managed in their organizations. Noteworthy differences were found as men reported significantly higher levels of putting forth minimal effort. In other words, men put forth less effort than women when feeling their talent is not, according to them, properly used or managed. Men ($\overline{x}$=2.26, s=1.57) reported significantly lower levels of effort than women ($\overline{x}$=1.42, s=.96). See Table 31.

Table 31

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin North America – Putting Minimal Effort by Gender

| | Gender | | | | | | 95% CI Mean Difference | | |
| | Female | | | Male | | | | | |
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Minimal Effort	1.42	0.96	19	2.26	1.57	23	-1.68, -.01	-2.03*	40

Note. * *p* = .05 for *p* < .05.

Origin Europe Cases Independence Samples t-test. Following are independence

samples t-test for Origin Europe:

In Europe, sample t-test findings suggest that managers in formal and informal

talent management settings differ significantly. As shown in Table 32, managers in

formal TM Settings have their skills assessed more frequently ($\bar{x}$= 4.78, s=1.09, n= 9)

than managers in informal settings ($\bar{x}$=3.05, s=1.71, n=19) at the .05 level of significance.

Table 32

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin Europe – Skills Assessment by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Assess Skills	3.05	1.72	19	4.78	1.09	9	-3.02, -.44	-2.75*	26

*Note. * p = .01 for p < .05.*

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare Average Satisfaction in

formal and informal TM settings in Europe. Differences were found as managers in

formal settings reported significantly higher levels of Average Satisfaction. Managers in

informal TM settings ($\bar{x}$=2.74, s=1.52) reported significantly lower levels of satisfaction

than managers in formal settings ($\bar{x}$=4.33, s=1.41). See Table 33.

Table 33

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin Europe – Average Satisfaction by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
AVG Satisfaction	2.74	1.52	19	4.33	1.41	9	-2.84, -.36	-2.65*	26

Note. * $p = .01$ for $p < .05$.

Findings suggest that European managers in formal and informal TM settings differ significantly. As shown in Table 34, managers in formal TM Settings have better impressions of their TM system ($\overline{x}= 4.67$, s=1.32, n= 9) than managers in informal settings ($\overline{x}=2.53$, s=1.47, n=19) at the .05 level of significance.

Table 34

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin Europe - Thoughts on TM by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Think About TM	2.53	1.47	19	4.67	1.32	9	-3.33, -.96	-3.71*	26

Note. * $p = .01$ for $p < .05$.

Results of the independent samples t-test also show that Satisfaction with TM differ between European managers in Formal TM settings ($\overline{x}= 4.22$, s= 1.48, n = 9) and European managers in Informal settings ($\overline{x}=2.58$, s=1.58, n=19) at the .05 level of significance. On average, European managers are more satisfied with TM practices in their organizations in formal TM settings than in informal TM settings. See Table 35.

Table 35

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin Europe – Satisfaction with TM by Level of Formality

	Formality						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Informal			Formal					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Satisfaction TM	2.58	1.58	19	4.22	1.48	9	-2.93, -.36	-2.63*	26

Note. * *p* = .01 for *p* < .05.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare male and female managers' Average Involvement in TM practices in Europe. Differences were found as male managers in Europe reported significantly higher levels of Average Involvement. As shown in Table 36, female managers in Europe (x̄=2.93, s=1.39) reported significantly lower levels of involvement than male managers (x̄=4.64, s=1.28).

Table 36

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin Europe – Average Involvement by Gender

	Gender						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Female			Male					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
AVG Involvement	2.93	1.39	14	4.64	1.28	14	-2.75, -.68	-3.41*	26

Note. * *p* = .01 for *p* < .05.

Independent samples t-test findings also suggest that mean Involvement in TM Design differs between male (x̄=4.50, s=1.29, n=14) and female (x̄=2.86, s=1.70, n=14) managers in Europe. On average male managers in Europe tend to be much more involved in TM Design and Implementation than female managers. See Table 37.

Table 37

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin Europe – Involvement in TM Design by Gender

	Gender						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Female			Male					
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Involvement	2.86	1.70	14	4.50	1.29	14	-2.82, -.47	-2.88*	26

Note. * *p* = .01 for *p* < .05.

Results of the independent samples t-test show that participation levels in TM settings differ between European male ($\overline{x}$=4.50, s=1.45, n=14) and European female managers ($\overline{x}$=2.29, s=1.38, n=14) at the .05 level of significance. On average male managers in Europe participate more in TM settings than female managers. Results are presented in Table 38.

Table 38

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin Europe – Participation by Gender

	Gender						95% CI Mean Difference		
	Female			Male					
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Participation	2.29	1.38	14	4.50	1.45	14	-3.32, -1.11	-4.13*	26

Note. * *p* = .01 for *p* < .05.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare suggestion levels among male and female managers in Europe. Differences were found as European managers reported significantly higher levels of suggestions. As shown in Table 39, female managers ($\overline{x}$=3.36, s=1.22) reported significantly lower levels of suggestions than male managers ($\overline{x}$=4.93, s=1.39).

Table 39

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Origin Europe – Suggestions by Gender

| | Gender | | | | | | 95% CI Mean Difference | | |
| | Female | | | Male | | | | | |
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Suggestions	3.36	1.22	14	4.93	1.39	14	-2.58, -.56	-3.19*	26

Note. * p = .01 for p < .05.

In order to compare suggestion levels from North American and European managers in informal TM settings, an independent samples t-test was conducted. Differences were found as European managers in informal settings reported significantly higher levels of suggestions. Managers in North American informal TM settings ($\bar{x}$=3.25, s=1.27) reported significantly lower levels of suggestions than managers in formal settings ($\bar{x}$=4.16, s=1.50). See Table 40.

Informal Cases Independence Samples t-test. Following are independence samples t-tests for informal talent management cases:

Table 40

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Informal TM Settings – Suggestions by Origin

| | Origin | | | | | | 95% CI Mean Difference | | |
| | North America | | | Europe | | | | | |
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
Suggestions	3.25	1.27	28	4.16	1.50	19	-1.73, -.09	-2.24*	45

Note. * p = .03 for p < .05.

Results of independent samples t-test also reveal that Satisfaction with TM differ between European managers in informal TM settings ($\overline{x}$=2.58, s=1.58, n=19) and North American managers in informal settings ($\overline{x}$=3.68, s=1.47, n=28) at the .05 level of significance. As shown in Table 41, North American managers are more satisfied than Europeans in informal TM settings.

Table 41

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Informal TM Settings – Satisfaction with TM by Origin

	Origin						95% CI Mean Difference		
	North America			Europe					
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Satisfaction TM	3.68	1.47	28	2.58	1.58	19	0.20, 2.00	2.45*	45

Note. * *p* = .02 for *p* < .05.

When looking exclusively at Informal TM settings, findings from the independent samples t-test show that Less Disappointment with TM differs between managers in North American ($\overline{x}$=4.04, s=1.35, n=28) and managers in Europe ($\overline{x}$=3.05, s=1.68, n=19) at the .05 level of significance. Managers in North America tend to have lower levels of disappointment with TM practices than managers in Europe. See Table 42.

Table 42

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Informal TM Settings – Disappointment with TM by Origin

	Origin						95% CI Mean Difference		
	North America			Europe					
	$\overline{x}$	s	n	$\overline{x}$	s	n		t	df
Disappointed TM	4.04	1.35	28	3.05	1.68	19	0.09, 1.88	2.22*	45

Note. * *p* = .03 for *p* < .05.

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare Average Satisfaction in informal TM settings in Europe and North America. Differences were found as managers in North America reported significantly higher levels of Average Satisfaction. European managers in informal TM settings ($\bar{x}$=2.74, s=1.52) reported significantly lower levels of satisfaction than North American managers in formal settings ($\bar{x}$=3.61, s=1.29). See Table 43.

Table 43

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Informal TM Settings – Average Satisfaction by Origin

	Origin						95% CI Mean Difference		
	North America			Europe					
	$\bar{x}$	s	n	$\bar{x}$	s	n		t	df
AVG Satisfaction	3.61	1.29	28	2.74	1.52	19	0.04, 1.70	2.11*	45

Note. * *p* = .04 for *p* < .05.

Results from the independent samples t-test show that Seeking Opinions within informal TM settings differ between female managers ($\bar{x}$=2.81, s=1.47, n=21) and male managers in informal settings ($\bar{x}$=4.08, s=1.57, n=26) at the .05 level of significance. In other words, female managers tend to be more autonomous and independent than male managers in informal TM settings, while men seek more opinions. See Table 44.

Table 44

Results of t-test and Descriptive Statistics for Informal TM Settings – Seeking Opinions by Gender

| | Gender | | | | | | 95% CI Mean Difference | | |
| | Female | | | Male | | | | | |
	x̄	s	n	x̄	s	n		t	df
Seek Opinion	2.81	1.47	21	4.08	1.57	26	-2.17, -.36	-2.83*	45

Note. p = .01 for * *p* < .05.

Interestingly, when comparing means in formal talent management settings no significant differences were found for all cases, or North America and Europe, or even when looking at gender differences between male and female managers. Formality seems to level the choices in behavior.

Regression Analysis

Before beginning the regression analysis, the general assumptions for multiple regression were tested including linearity, normality, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity (Inoue, 2014). As required, regression needs the relationship between the independent and dependent variables to be linear (Inoue, 2014). For the assumptions testing, seven variables were considered including all three independent variables and EVLN as dependent variables. Each independent variable was plotted against each of the predictable dependent variables. Therefore, linearity assumption was tested with 12 scatterplots, showing in all cases a linear relationship. No significant outliers were found.

Regarding normality, multiple linear regression analysis requires that the error between observed and predicted values should be normally distributed (Inoue, 2014). This assumption was checked by plotting residual values on a histogram with a fitted normal curve and by reviewing a Q-Q-Plot. In this case, I used Shapiro-Wilk as a

goodness of fit test for normality checking. The *p*-values obtained from the test of normality table suggest at the $p < .05$ level the data was normally distributed.

Concerning multicollinearity, it is known to only occur when the independent variables are not statistically independent from each other (Inoue, 2014). Looking at the tolerance measures and VIF values and checking the influence of one independent variable on all other independent variables it was confirmed that there is no existence of multicollinearity. The tolerance was calculated with an initial linear regression analysis being tolerance defined as $T = 1 - R^2$ for these first step regression analysis. It was assumed that with $T < 0.2$ there was multicollinearity in the data and with $T < 0.01$ it certainly exists (Inoue, 2014). The values were the following for each of the inter-relationships among all independent variables: Average Level of Skills Used and Average Levels of Satisfaction with TM related Issues as independent variables, tolerance had a value of $T = .55$ and $VIF = 1.81$ using Average Level of Involvement as the dependent variable. Then, using Average Satisfaction and Average Level of Involvement as independent variables, tolerance was .96 and $VIF = 1.04$, using Average Level of Skills Used as dependent variable. Finally, having Average Level of Involvement and Average Level of Skills used as independent variables and Average Level of Satisfaction with TM as dependent variable a value for $T=.92$ and $VIF = 1.09$ was found. Looking at the obtained values there is no existence of multicollinearity.

Finally, concerning homoscedasticity, the scatter plots conducted for the independent and dependent variables showed no signs of dispersion along the regression lines. This means that errors found when predicting the dependent variable were

approximately the same in size and direction at all levels of the independent variables (Urdan, 2017).

Therefore, with assumptions verified, the regression analysis procedures were ready to be conducted. Consequently, both the independent and the dependent variables were measured at the interval or ratio level. The relationship between the independent and the dependent variables was found to be linear. Moreover, errors in prediction of the value of the dependent variable were all independent of one another, and there were no significant signs of multicollinearity or homoscedasticity. Regression was consequently conducted for all significant results derived initially from correlation and t-tests analysis. Below is a full list of all models run followed by a detailed analysis for each statistically significant model. Regressions were conducted using a two-tailed test of significance.

A total of 70 regression models were conducted and a total of 39 models were found to be significant. Looking at the tables below it is possible to see a summary of all models.

Regression Conducted based on Significant Correlation Results

A total of 39 models were run and 10 models were found to be significant at p<.05. The first table, Table 45, shows the regressions conducted on all cases, while Tables 46 and 47 present the regressions for the formal TM and informal TM, respectively.

Table 45

Summary All Cases Regression based on Significant Correlations Results

Predictor	Dependent	Sig. Level
All Demographics	Exit	.495
All Demographics	Voice	.641
All Demographics	Loyalty	.663
All Demographics	Neglect	.893
All Demographics + Level Formality	Exit	.559
All Demographics + Level Formality	Voice	.244
All Demographics + Level Formality	Loyalty	.609
All Demographics + Level Formality	Neglect	.932
Level Formality	Level of Involvement	.008**
Level Formality	Level of Skills Used	.204
Level Formality	Level of Satisfaction	.023*
Level Formality	Exit	.560
Level Formality	Voice	.066
Level Formality	Loyalty	.301
Level Formality	Neglect	.557
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Exit	.001**
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Voice	.001**
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Loyalty	.428
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Neglect	.025*

*Note. * Significant at p < .05; ** Significant at p < .01.*

Table 46

Summary Formal TM Settings Regression based on Significant Correlations Results

Predictor	Dependent	Sig. Level
All Demographics	Exit	.967
All Demographics	Voice	.840
All Demographics	Loyalty	.964
All Demographics	Neglect	.892
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Exit	.001**
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Voice	.189
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Loyalty	.089
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Neglect	.030*

*Note. * Significant at p < .05; ** Significant at p < .01.*

Table 47

Summary Informal TM Settings Regression based on Significant Correlations Results

Predictor	Dependent	Sig. Level
All Demographics	Exit	.536
All Demographics	Voice	.128
All Demographics	Loyalty	.191
All Demographics	Neglect	.822
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Exit	.001**
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Voice	.001**
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Loyalty	.336
Level Involvement + Level Skills Used + Level Satisfaction	Neglect	.105
Educational Level	Exit	.165
Educational Level	Voice	.565
Educational Level	Loyalty	.029*
Educational Level	Neglect	.669

*Note. * Significant at p < .05; ** Significant at p < .01.*

Regression Conducted based on Significant t-tests Results

A total of 31 models run where 29 models were found to be significant at $p < .05$. Below are Tables 48 through 51 with all conducted regressions and respective significance levels.

Table 48

Summary All Cases Regression based on Significant t-test Results

Predictor	Dependent	Sig. Level
Gender	Minimal Effort (N)	.047*
Origin	Less Disappointed (LS)	.039*
Origin	Let Things Go (N)	.027*
Level Formality	Level of Involvement	.008**
Level Formality	Participation (LI)	.001**
Level Formality	Involvement Design (LI)	.013**
Level Formality	Level of Satisfaction	.023*
Level Formality	Thoughts on TM (LS)	.003**
Level Formality	Satisfaction TM (LS)	.031*
Level Formality	Voice	.066

*Note. * Significant at p < .05; ** Significant at p < .01; N (Neglect); LI (Level Involvement), LS (Level Satisfaction).*

Table 49

Summary Origin North America Regression based on Significant t-test Results

Predictor	Dependent	Sig. Level
Gender	Less Effort (N)	.049*
Level Formality	Level of Involvement	.004**
Level Formality	Involvement Design (LI)	.015*
Level Formality	Participation (LI)	.001**
Level Formality	Suggestions (V)	.031*
Level Formality	Cooperation (V)	.023*

Note. * *Significant at p < .05*; ** *Significant at p < .01*; N (Neglect); LI (Level Involvement), LS (Level Satisfaction); V (Voice).

Table 50

Summary Origin Europe Regression based on Significant t-test Results

Predictor	Dependent	Sig. Level
Gender	Level Involvement	.002**
Gender	Involvement Design (LI)	.008**
Gender	Participation (LI)	.001**
Gender	Suggestions (V)	.004**
Level Formality	Skills Assessment (SU)	.034*
Level Formality	Level Satisfaction	.014**
Level Formality	Thoughts on TM	.001**
Level Formality	Satisfaction TM LS)	.014**
Level Formality	Cooperation (V)	.023*
Level Formality	Voice	.061

Note. * *Significant at p < .05*; ** *Significant at p < .01*; N (Neglect); LI (Level Involvement), LS (Level Satisfaction); V (Voice); SU (Level Skills Used).

Table 51

Summary Informal Cases Regression based on Significant t-test Results

Predictor	Dependent	Sig. Level
Origin	Suggestions (V)	.010**
Origin	Level Satisfaction	.040*
Origin	Satisfaction TM	.018*
Origin	Less Disappointed (LS)	.032*
Gender	Seek Opinions	.007**

*Note. * Significant at p < .05*; ** *Significant at p < .01*; V (Voice); SU (Level Skills Used).

Following are detailed analyses of each of all significant results derived from all regressions conducted based on statistically significant correlation results, followed by the analysis based on significant t-tests' results.

Summary All Cases Regression based on Significant Correlations Results:

Formality predicting AVG Involvement

Correlation and regression analysis were conducted to examine the relationship between Formality and Average Involvement. Table 52 summarizes the analysis results. As it can be seen Formality and Average Involvement are significantly highly and positively correlated. The regression model produced $R^2 = .10$, $F(1,68)=7.583$, $p < .008$, meaning that 10% of the variation in Average Involvement was explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the Average Involvement scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers working in formal TM systems were expected to have higher levels of involvement in the design and implementation of TM practices.

Table 52

Regression Formality Predicting Average Involvement – All Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Formality	1.03	.37	2.75	.008

Note. p < .05; r = .32

Formality predicting AVG Satisfaction

Formality and Average Satisfaction are significantly highly and positively correlated. The regression model produced $R^2 = .07$, $F(1,68)=5.378$, $p < .023$, meaning that 7% of the variation in Average Satisfaction was explained by the score obtained in Formality. Consequently, the Average Satisfaction scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers working in formal TM systems were expected to have higher levels of Satisfaction in the design and implementation of TM practices. Table 53 summarizes the analysis results.

Table 53

Regression Formality Predicting Average Satisfaction – All Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Formality	.88	.38	2.32	.023

p < .05; r = .27

AVG Satisfaction predicting Exit

As it can be seen in Table 54, Average Satisfaction and Exit are significantly correlated. The regression model produced $R^2 = .57$, F(1,68)=29.405, $p < .001$, meaning that 57% of the variation in Exit was explained by the score obtained in Average Satisfaction. This indicates that managers expect to exit less their organizations when they feel satisfied.

Table 54

Regression Average Involvement, Average Satisfaction, and Average Skills Used Predicting Exit – All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
AVG Satisfaction	-.63	.10	-6.18	.001

p < .05; r = .76

AVG Involvement predicting Voice

Average Involvement and Voice are significantly positively correlated. The regression model produced $R^2 = .32$, F(1,68)=10.298, $p < .001$, meaning that 32% of the variation in Voice was explained by the score obtained in Average Involvement. In other words, this indicates that managers expect to express more active constructive behaviors when generally involved in TM practices.

Table 55

Regression Average Involvement, Average Satisfaction, and Average Skills Used Predicting Voice – All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
AVG Involvement	.38	.09	4.43	.001

p < .05; r = .57

AVG Involvement predicting Neglect

Average Involvement and Neglect are also significantly correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.13, F(1,68)=3.324, p < .013, meaning that 13% of the variation in Neglect was explained by the score obtained in Average Involvement. This indicates that managers expect to express less passive destructive behaviors when generally involved in TM practices. Table 56 below displays regression results.

Table 56

Regression Average Involvement, Average Satisfaction, and Average Skills Used Predicting Neglect – All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
AVG Involvement	-.21	.08	-2.54	.025

p < .05; r = .36

The following tables will show Summary Formal TM Settings Regression based on Significant Correlations Results.

Summary Formal TM Settings Regression based on Significant Correlations Results:

AVG Involvement + AVG Satisfaction predicting Exit

As it can be seen in Table 57 below, Average Involvement and Average Satisfaction are related and significantly predict Exit behaviors. The regression model produced R^2=.79, F(1,68)=24.168, p < .013, meaning that 79% of the variation in Exit was explained by the score obtained in both Average Involvement and Satisfaction. This means that managers expect to express less active destructive behaviors when generally involved and satisfied with TM practices in their organizations.

Table 57

Regression Average Involvement, Average Satisfaction, and Average Skills Used Predicting Exit – Formal TM Settings Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
AVG Involvement	-.27	.10	-2.79	.012
AVG Satisfaction	-.85	.16	-5.36	.001

p < .05; *r* = .89

AVG Involvement predicting AVG Neglect

When formality is solid, Average Involvement and Neglect are also significantly correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.37, F(1,68)=3.699, p < .004, meaning that 37% of the variation in Neglect was explained by the score obtained in Average Involvement. In other words, managers expect to express less passive destructive behaviors when generally involved in formal TM settings. Table 58 below expresses regression results for analysis.

Table 58

Regression Average Involvement, Average Satisfaction, and Average Skills Used Predicting Neglect – Formal TM Settings Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
AVG Involvement	-.39	.12	-3.24	.004

p < .05; *r* = .61

Summary Informal TM Settings Regression based on Significant Correlations Results:

AVG Satisfaction predicting AVG Exit

As it can be seen in Table 59, Average Satisfaction and Exit are significantly correlated in informal TM settings. The regression model produced R^2=.54, $F(1,68)$=16.622, *p* < .001, meaning that 54% of the variation in Exit was explained by the score obtained in Average Satisfaction. This means that managers expect to engage less in active destructive behaviors when they feel satisfied in their informal TM settings. So, satisfaction in either formal or informal settings is always a good factor to help managers avoid exiting their organizations.

Table 59

Regression Average Involvement, Average Satisfaction, and Average Skills Used Predicting Exit – Informal TM Settings Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
AVG Satisfaction	-.62	.13	-4.72	.001

p < .05; *r* = .73

AVG Involvement predicting AVG Voice

When it comes to informal TM settings, Average Involvement and Voice are significantly positively correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.32, $F(1,68)$=6.656, $p < .008$, meaning that 32% of the variation in Voice was explained by the score obtained in Average Involvement. Therefore, this indicates that managers expect to express more active constructive behaviors when generally involved in TM practices, even in informal TM settings. The question here is how it can be compared when looking at formal models of talent development, where the results strongly indicate a difference for the better I formal settings. Table 60 indicates results for analysis.

Table 60

Regression Average Involvement, Average Satisfaction, and Average Skills Used Predicting Voice – Informal TM Settings Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
AVG Satisfaction	.39	.14	2.78	.008

p < .05; *r* = .56

Level of Education predicting Loyalty

Finally, regarding the prediction models based on correlation results, it can be concluded that the Level of Education produced lower levels of loyalty. The more educated the less loyal managers are. The regression model produced R^2=.10, $F(1,68)$=5.118, $p < .029$, meaning that 10% of the variation in Loyalty was explained by the score obtained in Educational level. This means that managers expect to engage less

in passive constructive behaviors such as Loyalty when they are more educated. See
Table 61 for results.

Table 61

Regression Level of Education predicting Loyalty - Informal TM Settings Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Education	-.37	.17	-2.26	.029

p < .05; r = .32

Following are detailed analysis of each of all significant results derived from regressions
conducted based on statistically significant t-tests results.

Summary All Cases Regression based on Significant t-test Results:

Gender predicting Putting Minimal Effort

Gender and Neglect (through Putting Minimal Effort) are also significantly
correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.06, $F(1,68)$=4.095, $p < .047$. The results
in Table 62 along with previous t-tests results, indicated that, in general, male managers
tend to put less effort than female managers when it comes to dissatisfaction with TM
practices.

Table 62

Regression Gender Predicting Putting Minimal Effort – All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Gender	.55	.27	2.02	.047

p < .05; r = .24

Origin predicting Level of Disappointment

By looking at Table 63, it can be seen that Origin and Level of Disappointment were tested to be significantly correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.06, $F(1,68)$=4.424, $p < .039$. The results from regression along with the results obtained from t-tests indicated that, in general, North American managers tend to be more disappointed than European managers.

Table 63

Regression Origin Predicting Level of Disappointment– All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Origin	-.74	.35	- 2.10	.039

p < .05; r = .25

Origin predicting Letting Things Go

Origin and Letting Things Go were tested to be significantly correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.07, $F(1,68)$=5.100, $p < .027$. The results from regression along with the results obtained from t-tests indicated that, in general, North American managers tend to let things go more than European managers, consequently being more

neglectful as previously shown when comparing means. Please see Table 64 below for analysis of regression results.

Table 64

Regression Origin Predicting Letting Things Go – All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Origin	-.80	.35	- 2.26	.027

p < .05; *r* = .26

Formality predicting AVG Involvement

Correlation and regression analysis were conducted to examine the relationship between Formality and Average Involvement. Table 64 summarizes the analysis results. As it can be seen Formality and Average Involvement are significantly highly and positively correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.10, F(1,68)=7.583, *p* < .008, meaning that 10% of the variation in Average Involvement was explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the Average Involvement scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers working in formal TM systems were expected to have higher levels of involvement in the design and implementation of TM practices. This supports also the conclusions taken based on the correlation results as formality indicates involvement in general. See Table 65.

Table 65

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Average Involvement – All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Formality	1.03	.37	2.75	.008

p < .05; *r* = .32

Formality predicting Participation

Table 66 summarizes the analysis results of Formality predicting Participation levels in TM settings. As it can be seen Formality and Participation are significantly correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.16, F(1,68)=12.795, *p* < .001, meaning that 16% of the variation in Participation was explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the Participation item-scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers in general, were expected to have higher levels of Participation in TM practices.

Table 66

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Participation – All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Formality	1.41	.39	3.58	.001

p < .05; *r* = .40

Formality predicting Involvement on TM Design

Analysis of regression results of Formality predicting Involvement in TM Design indicate they are significantly correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.09, $F(1,68)$=6.470, $p < .013$, meaning that 9% of the variation in Involvement was explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the Involvement in TM Design item-scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers in general, were expected to have higher levels of Involvement in TM practices in formal TM settings. Table 67 shows all results for analysis.

Table 67

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Involvement in TM Design – All Cases

Variable	B	$SE\ B$	t	p
Formality	1.05	.41	2.54	.013

$p < .05$; $r = .30$

Formality predicting AVG Satisfaction

The regression model below produced R^2=.07, $F(1,68)$=5.378, $p < .023$, meaning that 7% of the variation in Satisfaction was explained by the score obtained in Formality. This means that the higher the formality of the TM system the more managers become satisfied. Please see Table 68 for results.

Table 68

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Average Satisfaction – All Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Formality	.88	.38	2.32	.023

p < .05; *r* = .27

Formality predicting Thoughts about How TM Is Managed

Looking at Table 69, it can be concluded that Formality and Thoughts about TM systems are significantly correlated and that one predicts the other. The regression model produced R^2=.13, F(1,68)=9.850, *p* < .003, meaning that 13% of the variation in Thoughts on TM was explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the higher the formality of the TM system the more managers have better and positive thoughts on how their TM systems run.

Table 69

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Thoughts on How TM is Managed – All Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Formality	1.24	.39	3.14	.003

p < .05; *r* = .36

Formality predicting Satisfaction with TM

       Formality and Satisfaction with TM are significantly highly and positively

correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.07, F(1,68)=4.876, p < .031, meaning that

7% of the variation in Satisfaction was explained by the score obtained in Formality.

Consequently, the Satisfaction with TM item had significant positive regression weights,

indicating managers working in formal TM systems were expected to have higher levels

of Satisfaction with TM practices in general. Table 70 summarizes the analysis results.

Table 70

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Satisfaction with TM – All Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Formality	.90	.41	2.21	.031

p < .05; *r* = .26

Summary Origin North America Regression based on Significant t-test Results:

Formality predicting AVG Involvement

       Table 71 below summarizes the analysis results for Formality predicting

Involvement among North American managers. As it can be seen Formality and Average

Involvement are significantly highly and positively correlated. The regression model

produced R^2=.19, F(1,68)=9.481, p < .004, meaning that 19% of the variation in Average

Involvement was explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the

Average Involvement scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating

managers working in formal TM systems were expected to have higher levels of involvement in general.

Table 71

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Average Involvement – Origin North America

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Formality	1.39	.45	3.08	.004

p < .05; *r* = .44

Formality predicting Involvement in TM Design

Results for Formality predicting Involvement in TM Design among North American managers are displayed in Table 72. Formality and Involvement are significantly highly and positively correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.14, $F(1,68)$=6.507, $p < .015$, meaning that 14% of the variation in Involvement in TM Design was explained by the score obtained in Formality. This indicates that managers working in formal TM systems tend to be more involved in processes of TM design, when it comes to analyze North American Managers.

Table 72

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Involvement in TM Design – Origin North America

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Formality	1.32	.52	2.55	.015

p < .05; *r* = .37

Formality predicting Participation

Table 73 summarizes the analysis results of Formality predicting Participation

levels in TM settings among North American managers. As it can be concluded

Formality and Participation are significantly correlated. The regression model produced

R^2=.27, F(1,68)=14.519, $p < .001$, meaning that 27% of the variation in Participation was

explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the Participation item-scale

had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers in North America, were

expected to have high levels of Participation in TM practices.

Table 73

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Participation – Origin North America

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Formality	1.75	.46	3.81	.001

p < .05; r = .52

Formality predicting Suggestions

Looking at Table 74, it can be concluded that Formality influences the level of

Suggestions making managers participate more in their TM systems. As it can be seen

Formality and Suggestions are significantly correlated. The regression model produced

R^2=.11, F(1,68)=4.999, $p < .031$, meaning that 11% of the variation in Participation was

explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the Participation item-scale

had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers in general, were

expected to have high levels of suggestions and participation in TM practices.

Table 74

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Suggestions – Origin North America

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Formality	1.04	.46	2.24	.031

p < .05; *r* = .33

Formality predicting Cooperation

Among North American managers, Formality predicts and influences the level of Cooperation. As it can be seen in Table 75 below, Formality and Cooperation are significantly correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.12, $F(1,68)$=5.625, $p < .023$, meaning that 12% of the variation in Cooperation was explained by the score obtained in Formality. Therefore, the Cooperation item-scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers in North America in general, were expected to have high levels of Cooperation in their organizations.

Table 75

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Cooperation – Origin North America

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Formality	1.21	.51	2.37	.023

p < .05; *r* = .35

Gender predicting Minimal Effort

Among North American managers, Gender and Putting Minimal Effort are significantly correlated as it can be seen below. The regression model produced R^2=.09,

F(1,68)=4.130, $p < .049$. The results in Table 76 below along with previous t-tests results, indicate that, in general, male managers in North America tend to put less effort than female managers when it comes to dissatisfaction with TM practices.

Table 76

Regression Gender Predicting Putting Minimal Effort – Origin North America

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Gender	.84	.41	2.03	.049

p < .05; r = .31

Summary Origin Europe Regression based on Significant t-test Results:

Formality predicting Skills Assessment

For European managers Formality influences the way Skills are assessed in their organizations. As it can be seen Formality and Skills Assessment are significantly correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.23, F(1,68)=4.380, $p < .043$, meaning that 14% of the variation in Skills Assessment was explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the Skills Assessment scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating managers in Europe, were expected to have their skills better assessed when in presence of formal TM settings. Please see Table 77 below for results.

Table 77

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Skills Assessment – Origin Europe

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Formality	1.73	.63	2.75	.011

p < .05; *r* = .48

Formality predicting AVG Satisfaction

Formality predicting Satisfaction was tested for European managers. The regression model below produced R^2=.21, $F(1,68)$=7.016, *p* < .014, meaning that 21% of the variation in Satisfaction in general was explained by the score obtained in Formality. This means that the higher the formality of the TM system the more European managers become satisfied. Please see Table 78 for all results.

Table 78

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Average Satisfaction – Origin Europe

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Formality	1.60	.60	2.65	.014

p < .05; *r* = .46

Formality predicting Thoughts on TM

Table 79 indicates that Formality and Thoughts about TM systems are significantly correlated and that one predicts the other. The regression model produced R^2=.35, $F(1,68)$=13.793, *p* < .001, meaning that 35% of the variation in Thoughts on TM

was explained by the score obtained in Formality. In other words, the higher the formality

of the talent management system the more managers have better and positive thoughts on

how their TM systems run in European organizations.

Table 79

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Thoughts on How TM is Managed – Origin Europe

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Formality	2.14	.58	3.71	.001

p < .05; *r* = .59

Formality predicting Satisfaction with TM

Looking at regression results below, Formality and Satisfaction with TM are

significantly highly and positively correlated when it comes to analyze European

managers. The regression model produced R^2=.21, $F(1,68)$=6.895, $p < .014$, meaning that

21% of the variation in Satisfaction with TM was explained by the score obtained in

Formality. This indicates that European managers working in formal TM systems were

expected to have higher levels of Satisfaction with TM practices in general. Table 80

below summarizes the analysis results.

Table 80

Regression Level of Formality Predicting Satisfaction with TM – Origin Europe

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Formality	1.64	.63	2.63	.014

p < .05; *r* = .46

Gender predicting AVG Involvement

Correlation and regression analysis were conducted to examine the relationship between Gender and Average Involvement. Table 64 summarizes the analysis results. As it can be seen Gender and Average Involvement are significantly highly and positively correlated. The regression model produced R^2=.31, F(1,68)=11.591, *p* < .002, meaning that 31% of the variation in Average Involvement was explained by the score obtained in Gender. In other words, the Average Involvement scale had significant positive regression weights, indicating that male managers working in European TM systems are having higher levels of involvement in the design and implementation of TM practices than female managers. Please see Table 81.

Table 81

Regression Gender Predicting Average Involvement – Origin Europe

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Gender	1.71	.50	3.41	.002

p < .05; *r* = .56

Gender predicting Involvement in TM Design

Also, the same as above applies to Involvement in TM Design as male European

managers are more involved than women managers. The regression model produced

R^2=.24, F(1,68)=8.296, p < .008, meaning that 31% of the variation in Involvement in

Design was explained by the score obtained in Gender. Please see Table 82.

Table 82

Regression Gender Predicting Involvement in TM Design – Origin Europe

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Gender	1.64	.57	2.88	.008

p < .05; *r* = .49

Gender predicting Participation

Regression results from Table 83, show that male European managers are more

participative than female managers. The regression model produced R^2=.40,

F(1,68)=17.044, p < .001, meaning that 40% of the variation in Participation was

explained by the score obtained in Gender.

Table 83

Regression Gender Predicting Participation – Origin Europe

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Gender	2.21	.54	4.13	.001

p < .05; *r* = .63

Gender predicting Suggestions

Moreover, male European managers are also more able to suggest than female European managers. Table 84 below shows that the regression model produced R^2=.28, $F(1,68)$=10.181, p < .004, meaning that 28% of the variation in Suggestions was explained by the score obtained in Gender. Please see Table 84.

Table 84

Regression Gender Predicting Suggestions – Origin Europe

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Gender	1.57	.49	3.19	.004

p < .05; *r* = .53

Summary Informal Cases Regression based on Significant t-test Results:

Origin predicting Suggestions

In informal TM Settings, Origin also predicts the level of Suggestions. Results from Table 85 confirm that European managers suggest more than North American managers as it was seen in the comparison of means before in this chapter. The regression model produced R^2=.10, $F(1,68)$=5.012, p < .030, meaning that 10% of the variation in Suggestions was explained by the score obtained in Origin.

Table 85

Regression Origin Predicting Suggestions – Informal TM Settings Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Origin	.91	.41	2.24	.030

p < .05; *r* = .32

Origin predicting AVG Satisfaction

      Also in informal TM Settings, Origin predicts the level of general Satisfaction. Results from Table 86 confirm that European managers present lower levels of satisfaction than North American managers as it was seen in the comparison of means before in this chapter. The regression model produced R^2=.09, F(1,68)=4.467, p < .040, meaning that 9% of the variation in Average Satisfaction was explained by the score obtained in Origin.

Table 86

Regression Origin Predicting Average Satisfaction – Informal TM Settings Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Origin	-.87	.41	-2.11	.040

p < .05; *r* = .30

Origin predicting Satisfaction with TM

      Origin predicts the level of Satisfaction with TM practices. Results from Table 87 confirm that European managers present lower levels of satisfaction than North American managers as it was also seen in the comparison of means before in this chapter. The

regression model produced R^2=.12, F(1,68)=5.995, p < .018, meaning that 12% of the variation in Satisfaction with TM was explained by the score obtained in Origin. This applies exclusively for informal TM settings.

Table 87

Regression Origin Predicting Satisfaction with TM – Informal TM Settings Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Origin	-1.10	.45	-2.45	.018

p < .05; r = .34

Origin predicting Disappointed with TM

It was found that in informal TM settings, North American managers, report lower levels of disappointment with TM practices than European managers. Results from Table 88 shows that the regression model produced R^2=.10, F(1,68)=4.927, p < .032, meaning that 10% of the variation in Disappointment with TM was explained by the score obtained in Origin. Origin influences disappointment with TM practices confirming results from t-test analysis.

Table 88

Regression Origin Predicting Disappointment with TM – Informal TM Settings Cases

Variable	B	SE B	t	p
Origin	-.98	.44	-2.22	.032

p < .05; r = .31

Gender predicting Seeking Opinions

Finally, also for informal TM settings, male managers tend to seek more opinions than female managers. That was concluded when comparing means for informal TM settings. This regression model shows an $R^2=.15$, $F(1,68)=7.991$, $p < .007$, meaning that 15% of the variation in Seeking Opinions within informal TM settings was explained by the score obtained in Gender as this one highly predicts how men and women tend to be more or less autonomous. Please see Table 89.

Table 89

Regression Gender Predicting Seeking Opinions – Informal TM Settings Cases

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*t*	*p*
Gender	1.27	.45	2.83	.007

p < .05; r = .39

Summary of Predictions

The summary of predictions in Figure 9 gives a visual display of all the regression models that used all cases; specifically, North American based organizations versus European organizations and formal versus informal TM settings. The following is a detailed analysis of all sequential regression models that were found statistically significant and that explain all significant relationships between demographic and independent variables and all other possible dependent variables, including variable's scale sub-items. This means that in some cases models were found that connected a variable with the average variable (independent or dependent), but in some cases the relation and the prediction was established between the variables and the sub-items of a

variable in the scale. For multiple regression analysis, the stepwise method was used. In other words, the method of fitting the regression models, choosing the best independent variables, was carried out automatically by SPSS.

As a result, for all cases studied, it was found that Gender predicts the Level of Effort (Neglect). Origin, for example, predicts both the Level of Disappointment (Satisfaction) and how much one has a tendency to just let things go (Neglect). Finally, for all cases, the Level of Formality predicted many other variables. First, it was found that there was an interesting sequence where Formality predicted the Level of Involvement following by this variable predicting both either Voice positively or Neglect negatively as a whole. The more formal, the more involvement and the more involvement the more Voice. But if the involvement is low then people will have a tendency to stay and be neglectful. This may be due to the fact that they do not have alternatives to leave and so prefer to stay but adopting destructive behaviors. Further detailed analysis will be provided in the discussion chapter. Formality also predicts Participation (Involvement) and Involvement in the Design of TM practices (Involvement). This leads to another interesting conclusion where the more formal the system the more people get involved in almost all manners since only one sub-item was not predicted in the Level of Involvement variable. Moreover, high Formality helps increase the Level of Satisfaction and how formality helps may lower the satisfaction levels. And if there is a low level of satisfaction, this then often pushes people to leave the organization. In other words, less formal leads to less satisfaction and consequently to exiting the organizations. Formality is highly connected with the General Level of Satisfaction and also with two of its sub-items such as Thoughts on TM (Satisfaction) and Satisfaction with TM (Satisfaction).
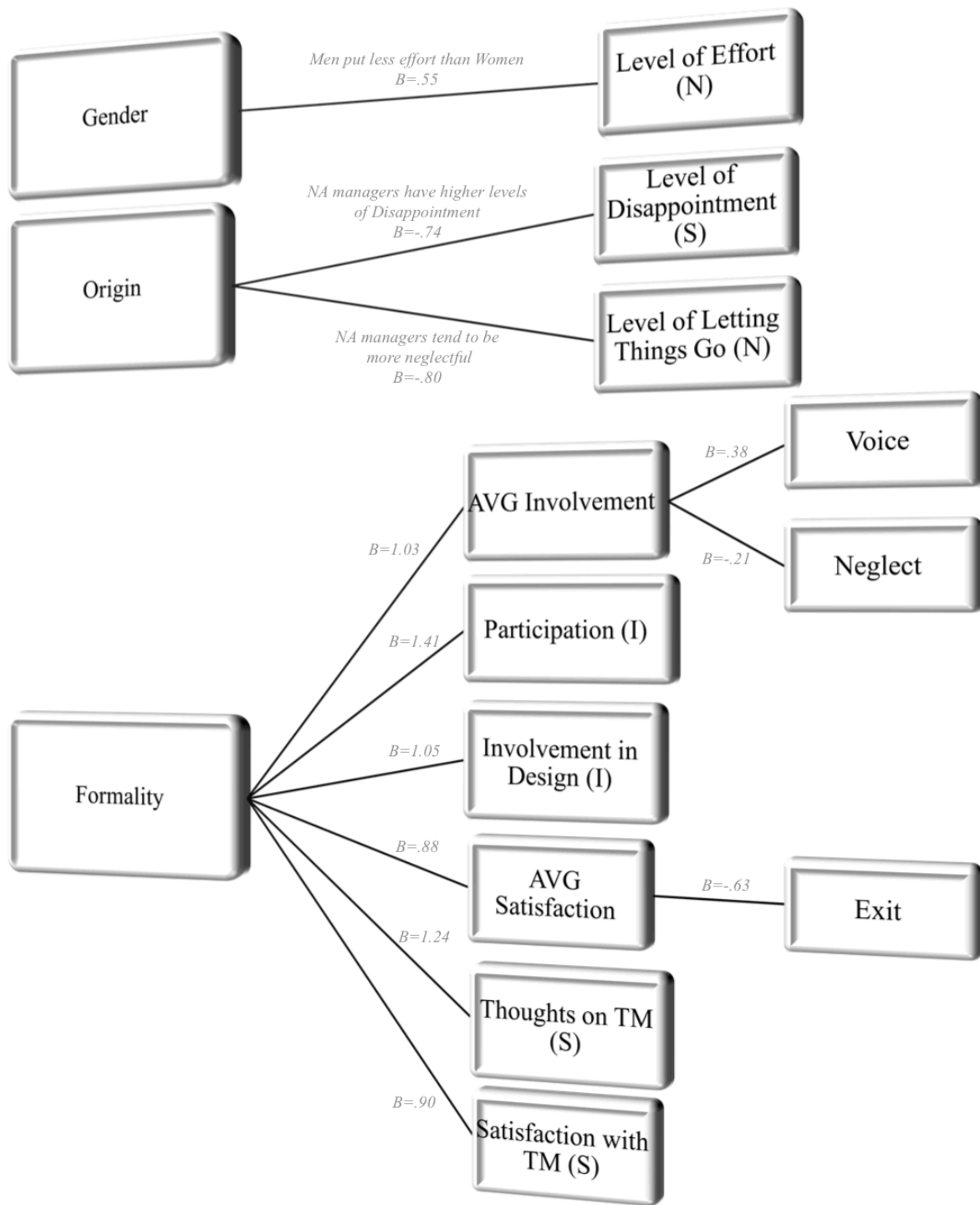
Figure 9. All Cases Summary of Predictions.

Regarding the models obtained when looking exclusively in North America (see *Figure* 10) it can be seen that Gender predicts, as in all cases, the Level of Effort (Neglect). This means that the result obtained above when looking at all cases, is mainly supported by the results derived from North American managers. Relevant is the importance of Formality in predicting Involvement and all its sub-scale items such as Participation, Design and Suggestions. Moreover, Formality is seen here as a great predictor for active constructive behaviors when it comes to Cooperation among managers.

When looking at the European continent respondents (see *Figure* 11), the models obtained suggest a strong prediction mostly on how Formality brings higher levels of satisfaction. Curiously, Gender plays an important role when it comes to Involvement. European male managers get more involved in the process of participating, designing and suggesting when it comes to TM settings. So, the results obtained in all cases are essentially supported by European male managers. In other words, in North America in order to be involved one has to be formally involved regardless of gender. In Europe, essentially men are involved regardless of whether or not the TM system is formal or informal.

Formal and informal TM practices or systems suggest interesting differentiating results (see *Figure* 12 and 13). Both satisfaction and involvement play a crucial role in formal settings in making managers avoid destructive behaviors such as Exit and Neglect. In informal TM settings Gender, Involvement, Origin and Educational Level play an important role in predicting managers' behaviors. Highly educated managers have more

tendency to lower their loyalty levels towards their organizations. Origin is determinant on how satisfied managers are within their TM systems.

A more detailed analysis will be provided in the conclusion in Chapter V.
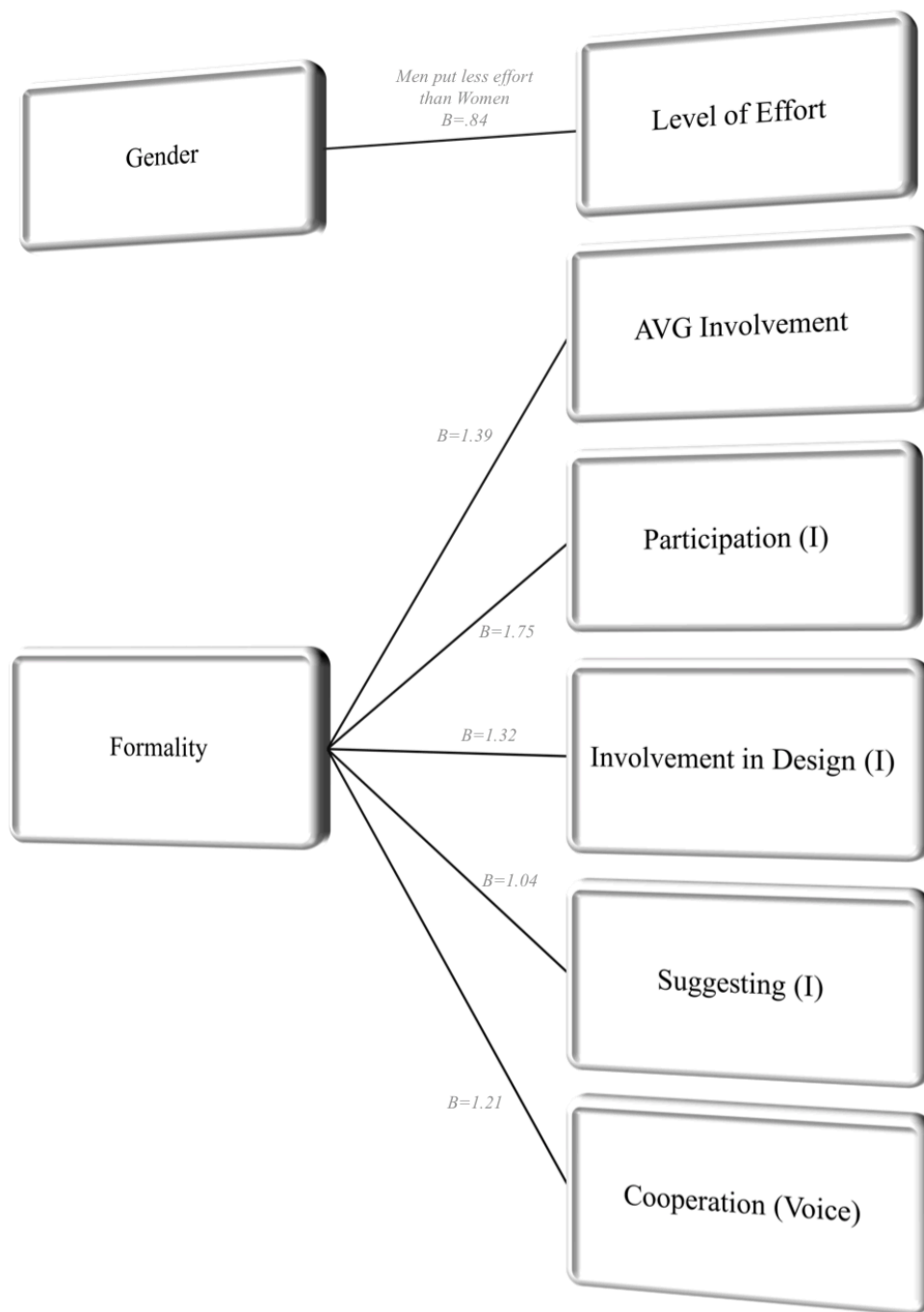

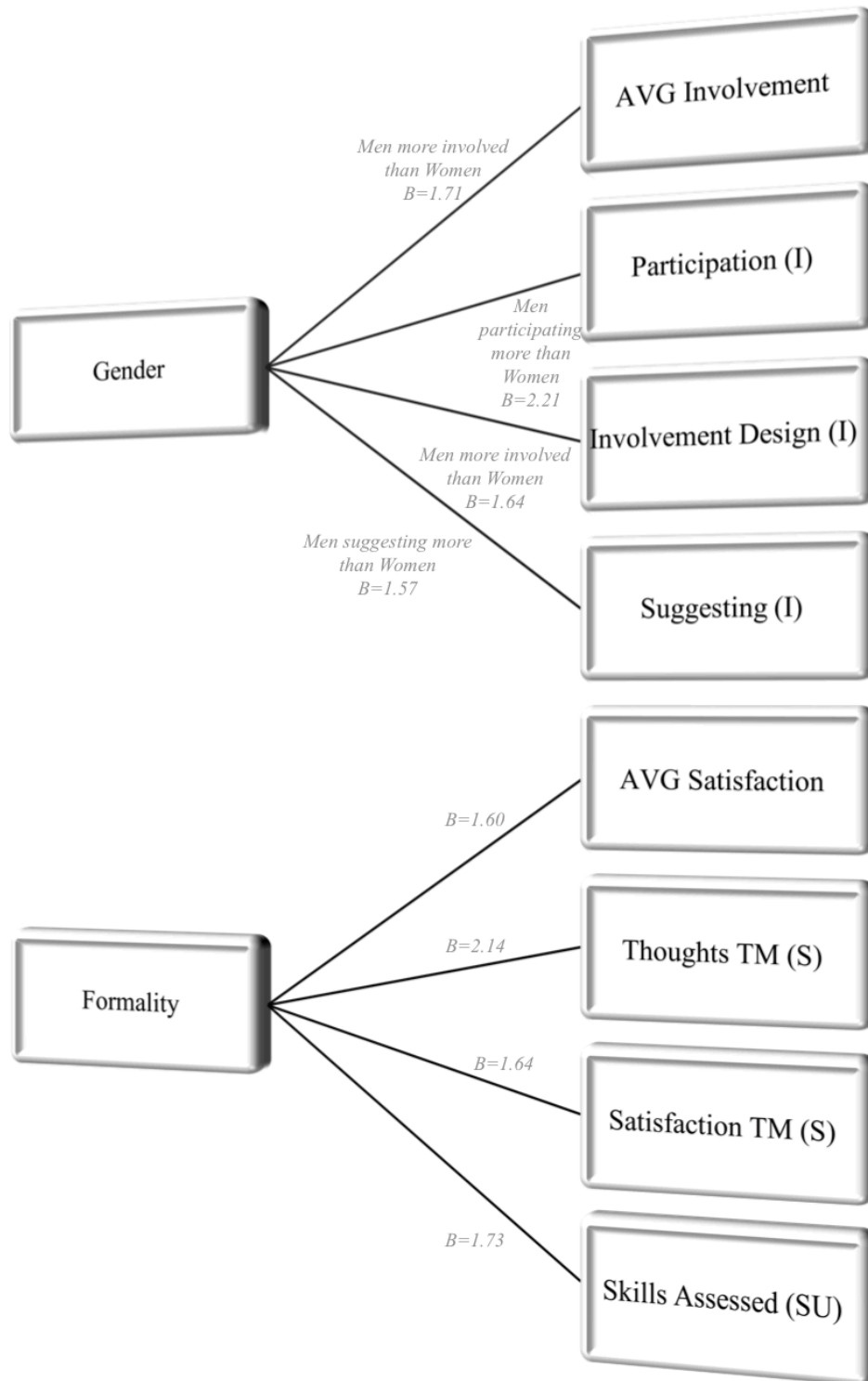*Figure 10.* Origin North America Summary of Predictions.

Figure 11. Origin Europe Summary of Predictions.
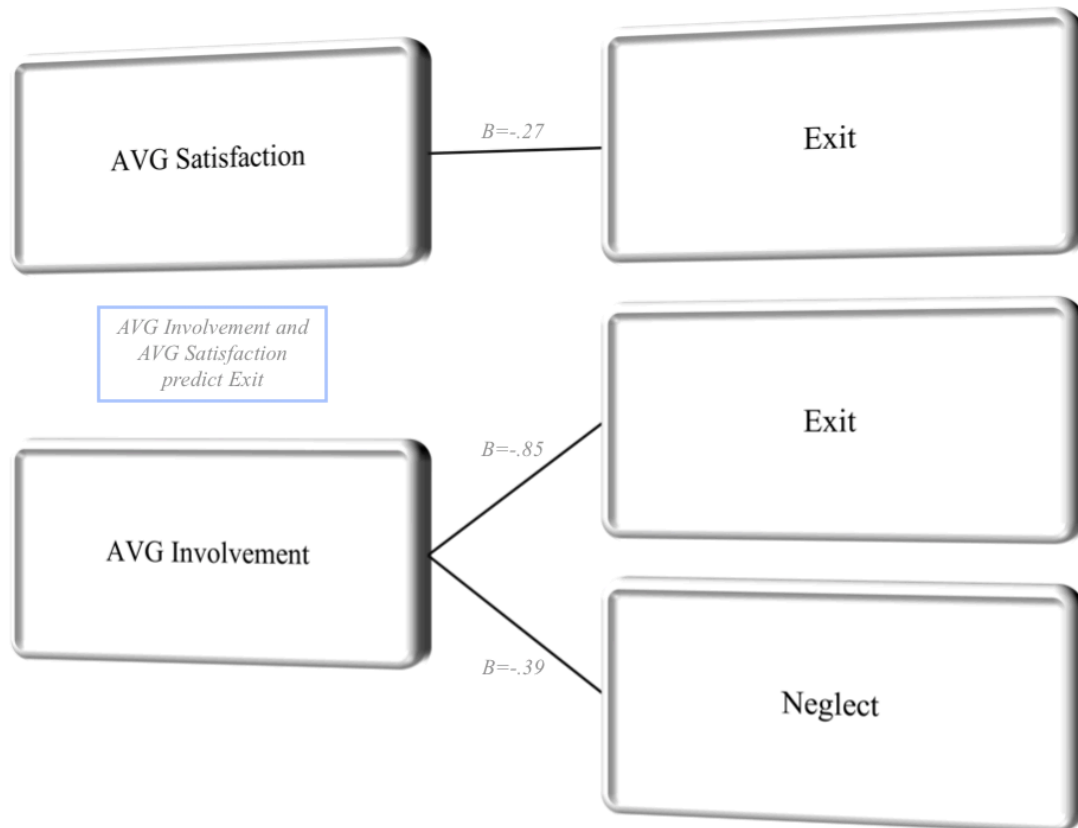
Figure 12. Formal TM Cases Summary of Predictions.
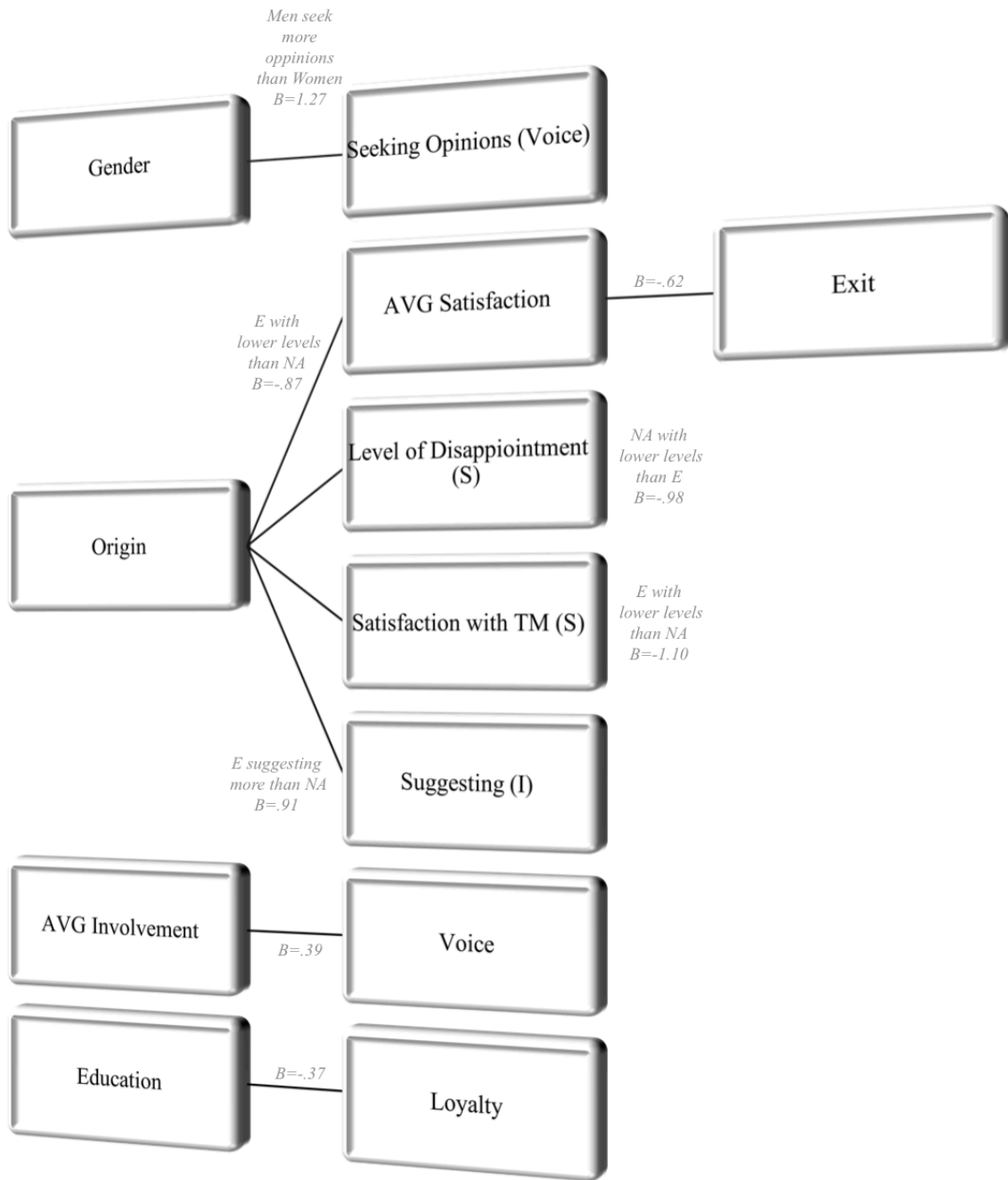
Figure 13. Informal TM Cases Summary of Predictions.

Qualitative Data Findings

Both the interview and part of the survey process provided useful information regarding the definition of talent and talent management, the independent and dependent variables, and how managers believe that talent can be acquired. The information collected throughout the interviews showed that talent may well be an innate phenomenon. However, some managers also viewed talent as a set of skills and capacities that can be improved. Others, a few, saw talent as innate but mentioned that it can be developed. Here are some examples of responses from managers. When asked about the origin of talent or how talent can be acquired one manager answered that "Talent is innate. You cannot learn how to do the things you know. You either were born with it or you won't be able to do the things you need to do". Other manager responded that "Talent is all about learning throughout life in general. You learn with your experiences". While other answered that "you can be born with some gifts, but in life you have the opportunity to develop those gifts and become more skillful".

Regarding the definition of talent management, managers believed that is the ability to develop the capacities in people and the way managers implement knowledge towards the vision and the mission of an organization. A couple of examples follow as one respondent said "Talent management is the capacity to develop abilities in others" and other said "Talent management is action oriented implementation of knowledge towards a vision and a mission".

When asked about the importance of being involved in TM practices managers revealed that either they were somehow involved or not involved at all. One referred "I am involved related only to my capacities", indicating that he may not be fully involved

in all critical common organizational TM processes. The importance of having their skills used is determinant on how managers reveal their satisfaction levels. Most managers responded that their skills were being used solely for their positions instead of a broader utilization. Finally, regarding satisfaction with how the TM is being well managed, about half the managers responded that they were not satisfied with the way talent is managed in their organizations.

When managers were asked about their reactions and attitudes when talent is not properly used their answers were focused on frustration and fear. Managers showed that they were often afraid of confrontation and as a result they lost interest and passion in the way they performed in their jobs. Besides frustration and fear, disappointment was a word that came up frequently. One manager referred that "I don't talk about talent management with my superiors because I am afraid of being dismissed. You have to be smart you know…". Frustration was also present as I mentioned, one of the managers said that "when regarding talent management practices in my organization, it frustrates me because the first years everything is great and then it starts to deteriorate".

Finally, when asked about behaviors when talent is not being properly used or when they are dissatisfied with the way talent is managed in their organizations, managers responded with signs of active destructive behaviors. However, what was interesting was the fact that exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect are four different behaviors that may have a sequence when joining and working for an organization. This is in fact a pattern that was found among several managers in this study. Patterns actually emerged as questions were being answered (Patton, 2002). In other words, when initially joining an organization managers show that they frequently opt for active constructive behaviors,

then followed by loyalty behaviors. When they perceive that their organizations do not avail their skills in a proper way, managers opt to engage in neglectful behaviors and later on they end up deciding on exiting the organization. In the conversation with the 15 managers it was clear that this transition from one behavior to another can actually last 7 to 10 years showing that managers believe in their organizations when they join those organizations and they may become slowly frustrated and have the fear of confrontation with their administrations, opting to become less active and more destructive with their attitudes and behaviors. One manager pointed that "The first 3 years were amazing, then I figured that expressing my opinions did not count, so I became more passive and slowly I became completely unaware of what was needed. I did not care at all until I could find a way out". When asked about how long this would take the same manager answered that this can take 7 to 10 years.

Figure 14 below, shows how the wording of these topics came up and how it was used by managers to express their satisfaction levels with the way talent is managed in their organizations. As I had the opportunity to mention before, coding was critical to allocate responses to each of the independent and dependent variables. As seen in *Figure* 14, answers were reduced to simple words that had a certain frequency level of response. For instance, I would highlight the fact that "Innate" had 6 responses out of 14, half the managers do not feel they are fully involved, one third is not satisfied at all with the way talent is managed in their organizations, and frustration and fear actually represent more than 50% of all responses obtained when managers were asked about what reactions they have when they feel their talents are not being properly used.

Topic	Wording	Frequency
Defining Talent		
	Innate	6
	Improvable skills and capacities	3
	Knowledge	2
	Capacity	2
	Achievement	1
Defining Talent Management		
	Develop Capacities	3
	Implement Knowledge	2
	Strong Leadership	1
	Encouragement and Support	1
	Adequate capacities	1
	Grow a team	1
	Do what is expected	1
	Use resources properly	1
	Inspire people	1
	Explore qualities	1
Level of Involvement		
	Somehow Involved	5
	Not much Involved	4
	Involved	1
Level of Skills Used		
	Used in my position	4
	Somehow used	3
	Not very used	1
	Organization doesn't know my Skills	
Satisfaction with TM		
	Not Satisfied	6
	Satisfied	2
	Very Satisfied	1
Reactions when Talent is not Used		
	Frustration	3
	Fear	2
	Disappointment	2
	Anger	1
	Annoyed	1
Exit	Leaving the Organization?	7 Y 3 N
Voice	Giving Suggestions?	7 Y 3 N
Loyalty	Being Loyal to the Organization?	8 Y 2 N
Neglect	Losing Interest in Things?	7 Y 3 N

Figure 14. Qualitative Data from Survey (Q7) and Interviews.

When asked about how managers acquire talent, the answers were clear.
According to this study, talent is acquired from professional experience followed by
academic courses. However, managers also think that talent is innate. Additionally, as it
can be seen, managers had the opportunity to answer with other alternatives. When
making choices, other managers mentioned coaching and mentoring as the most
important factor in talent development. Networking was also chosen by two of the 17
managers along with reading and life experience. Below is *Figure* 15 displaying how
results were distributed in question number seven in the survey.

Innate – 16.2%
Inherited – 8.1%
Professional Courses – 14.7%
Academics – 17%
Professional Exp – 34.6%
Hobbies – 5.3%

Other – 4.1% (24.3% of the 70 – 17 people - surveyed managers chose the
answer - OTHER)
      Coaching and Mentoring – 6
      Networking – 2
      Reading – 2
      Life - 2
      Peers – 1
      Spiritual activities – 1
      Media – 1
      Cultural Activity – 1
      Observation - 1

Figure 15. How Talent can be Acquired (Results from Survey Q7).

Therefore, when looking at the data collected, regarding the definition of both
talent and talent management and the way talent can be acquired, there seems to be a
strong inclination toward seeing talent as something innate or something that can be
acquired through professional and academic experience.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Summary of Findings

Before going into discussion of obtained results, it is important to point out that I

found no evidence of published studies on Talent Management settings, practices or

policies using EVLN as possible behavioral responses to how satisfied one is with the

way talent is managed in an organization. Additionally, no research was found depicting

the level of involvement or the level of skills used as possible impact variables on EVLN.

In any ways described, no evidence was also found on non-academic publications of such

a work having these three variables impacting EVLN. Therefore, the results of this study

will be discussed not only connecting the results to the theoretical background but also

commenting from a management perspective, how the hypotheses were verified. In order

to properly share this process, several studies on EVLN will be brought forth for

comparison and for the purpose of clarifying the rich data obtained from the 70 managers

in this study.

This summary discussion will first focus on the research questions, the stated

hypotheses, and the definition of talent and talent management as a way to help find a

solid definition for both. Additionally, the strong contributions of talent and talent

management will be highlighted. As referred previously, there were two research

questions that guided this study. Initially, I wanted to know how managers were

responding to indefinite talent management practices in organizations that did not have

formal talent management practices. The second research question was intended to bring

to light and verify those variables (e.g., the Level of Involvement in the TM Design Process, the Level of Use of One's Skills, and the General Level of Satisfaction with TM related issues) that may impact EVLN responses. In review of the findings in this study, they indicate that managers respond in a significantly different manner when in presence of formal TM settings versus informal TM settings. Concerning all responses regardless of origin, managers in formal TM settings are shown to be more involved in all matters of the process of developing, designing and implementing a TM system or a TM group of practices. Moreover, Involvement is a strong predictor of active constructive behaviors and a way of making managers stay away from both active and passive destructive behaviors. When working in informal TM settings, managers' involvement maintains its importance but, as it can be later seen, other factors interfere with the way they behave when dissatisfied with how talent is managed in their organizations. Usually, high involvement organizations place a strong emphasis on their talent sharing across organizational levels (Lawler, 2008). However, when looking into other factors and variables, origin, gender and level of education become as important. Specifically, origin interferes and predicts with satisfaction as seen in the comparison of means between European and North American managers.

Regarding the initially stated hypotheses the following was concluded:

H1

Managers with high levels of general satisfaction with TM related issues should be more likely to engage in voice and loyalty responses.

It was not absolutely verified that satisfaction indicates voice and loyalty responses. However, when reviewing all cases, and then in particular, separately

analyzing those organizations with formal TM settings, satisfaction was a strong predictor and an influencer of less active destructive behaviors. According to this study, the more satisfied the manager the less likely they are to abandon their organizations for other work opportunities. Therefore, it can be implied that by not choosing active destructive behaviors they are still able to choose passive destructive, passive constructive and active constructive behaviors. However, as mentioned, none of these behaviors could be directly or objectively verified. The sense of satisfaction from the work and the commitment of the talented employees is absolutely critical as putting the two together influence the way people behave in today's organizations (Altinoz, Cakiroglu & Cops, 2012). The fact that this was noticed in part in this study may have to do with reasoning that managers may tend to engage more positively when involved and not only because they are satisfied (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992).

H2

Managers with a high level of involvement in the TM design process should be more likely to engage in voice and loyalty responses.

It was verified that Involvement influences active constructive behaviors. For all cases, regardless of other factors, it was found that formality indicates Involvement and this illustrates Voice behaviors. Looking particularly in North America or Europe responses in separate, involvement does not influence constructive behaviors. Involvement is just a consequence of how the system is built. However, when observing formal TM settings, it was clear that Involvement often causes managers to move away from both active and passive destructive behaviors. In informal settings, Involvement influences Voice behaviors. According to Lawler (2008), the high involvement approach

to management can be traced back at least to the early 1950's. Formality seems to bring the basic principles of effective talent management such as the involvement of managers themselves (Stahl et al., 2012; Lawler, 2008),

Involvement likely helps managers to be more independent in decision making processes related to TM issues. According to Lawler (2008), the high involvement approach is about involving individuals in designing and implementing change.

H3

Managers with high levels of skills used by his/her organization should be more likely to engage in voice and loyalty responses.

It was not verified that the level of skills used influence any type of behavior. However, it was verified that formal TM settings influence the practice of skills assessment. Lawler (2008), describes the talent management organization as the source of skills or a described skills database. These databases should include information about competencies skills plans for development and work histories. Davenport, Harris, and Shapiro (2010), mention that information obtained from talent analytics begins with the focus on history data facts, but also to have in consideration is that many organizations are not yet ready to address talent and human resource analytics, as well as performance management (Schwartz et al., 2014). Studies on TM report that 66% of organizations mention that project management skills in the area of TM are the most difficult to find, but over 90% of organizations say that those skills are teachable (PMI, 2014). So, it seems that the engagement process depends on the formality of passing information to others. If that passage of information is not working properly then managers will feel lack of support regarding this issue.

Moreover, TM practices may not be clearly aligned with corporate strategy, or may not be grounded on valid talent data analytics (Cheese, Thomas, & Craig, 2008). In addition, only 17% of business leaders see implementation efforts as strategic, not to mention that in just 33% of organizations, business leaders and HR actually work towards setting TM program aligned with the business strategy (PMI, 2014). All these facts, suggest that the use of skills is not yet clearly measured in benefit of the organization or the manager. Therefore, none of these seemed to be critical in order to validate the importance of skills assessment as a predictor of EVLN responses. The reason this hypothesis was not verified may also be due to the fact that the measures used to assess skills in these organizations may not be appropriate for the managers' expectations of true skills assessment (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007). A few managers mentioned in the interview that their expectations were sometimes above of the organizations' capabilities.

Regarding the impact in general on EVLN, in all three stated hypotheses, Loyalty was a variable that could be impacted by the three indicated independent variables. However, it was clear that Loyalty did not draw an impact from those specifically. The only variable that influenced Loyalty was the level of education in informal TM settings indicating that the more educated the less likely to remain loyal to the organization.

Finally, regarding the definition of talent and talent management, it was shown how different definitions can be regardless of origin, and formality level. Additionally, the manner in which talent can be acquired differs in all obtained responses. Below is the discussion of all obtained results including a detailed analysis on the matters of building or acquiring talent.

A two-tailed test of significance was used in hypotheses testing.

Discussion

Discussion of Obtained Results

The discussion portion of this chapter will focus on results obtained from descriptive statistics, reliability, correlation analysis, independence sample t-tests, and regression analysis. The descriptive statistics provides brief summaries of the sample and measures. Correlation describes those circumstances that are significantly related but may not necessarily be influenced by the relation itself. The sample t-tests represent actual comparisons of the significant means obtained from the data, and regression analysis points to one variable influencing or predicting a separate action. The following findings are the subject of this discussion:

Descriptive Statistics. Usually, descriptive statistics are not much subject to discussion. In this case however, I brought some of the findings in order to verify how, for example, some of the means differ from formal to informal and differ from European to North American respondents, regarding the most chosen responses and values on the Likert scales. Therefore, looking at data from all cases, the managers possess high levels of education in most cases related to this study. Most men and women have earned at least both a bachelor's and masters' degrees and a few have earned doctoral degrees. In addition, they are all regarded as highly experienced managers in their fields, meaning they have worked in their respective industries for a considerable number of years. Regarding EVLN behavioral options, from all four options Exit has shown the highest average value meaning that managers likely feel they need a change in their careers due to how they feel towards TM and its practices in their organizations. This is an interesting finding since usually Voice has higher values from all four dependent variables (Lee &

Jablin, 1992). In a study where American, Japanese and Korean individuals were tested in order to respond to dissatisfying job conditions, Voice was the most likable response. Nevertheless, Americans responded with Voice whereas Japanese responded with Voice and Loyalty. From another perspective, previous studies also pointed to the possibility of having two different types of voice behaviors such as considerate voice and aggressive voice (Hagedoorn, Yperen, Van de Vliert & Buunk, 1999). These authors concluded that Voice sometimes comes into play when considering solving an existing problem. Voice can come as considerate voice, while other times it can come as a form to gain position or win a certain position in the organization, and this is called aggressive voice. In this study, and looking at the results, especially those from the interviews, it is possible to conclude that fear and frustration have an influence on how managers express their feelings and behave. In fact, that fear and frustration can be transformed into a phenomenon called planned exit (Grima & Glaymann, 2012). These authors affirm that planned exit exists when a worker settles in an organization and feels that there is nothing else to gain, assuming from that point the possibility of destructive behaviors until the worker finds new stability.

When looking exclusively at formal TM settings Exit and Neglect lower their values relating to the numbers obtained from all data cases. Involvement, Skills Used and Satisfaction raise their average values considerably as they relate to information obtained from all cases. Voice and Loyalty also increase their average values when managers live under formal procedures and rules related to TM. These results appear to be closer to what was expected according to previous studies, as this relates to the involvement process in TM oriented organizations where rules and procedures to involve managers are

a reality and critical for success (Lawler, 2008). Moreover, it seems that human centered organizations imply a certain culture of organizational habits and rituals that promote the obligation to participate in the design and decision making process of TM related issues (Bourdreau & Ramstad, 2007). These authors also reveal that employees in general must have collective and individual characteristics in order to establish a bridge between investment – in this case involvement – and sustainable success.

For informal TM settings, managers tend to behave oppositely to managers that live under strong TM rules and orientation. Therefore, their behavioral options are exactly the opposite as of what is typically seen in formal TM settings. Involvement, Skills Used and Satisfaction average values drop considerably as they relate to information obtained from all cases. Voice and Loyalty average values were also decreased. Thus, it is plausible to infer that the existence of informality in organizations may have lowered the average values obtained for active constructive behaviors. Again, when looking at informal TM systems there is no obligation to create a culture (Bourdreau & Ramstad, 2007) or to be mechanically and automatically involved in TM related issues (Lawler, 2008).

When comparing results from North American and European managers, workers in Europe were often found to be a more experienced population than those in North America. Europeans also showed to be slightly more skilled and were often seen as more deeply involved in TM matters than their North American counterparts. This study has also shown that work satisfaction is higher in North America than in Europe. This may be due to the fact that North American managers may have more opportunities for growth

and advancement living and working in a larger demographic area, and more dynamic markets thereby offering more creative challenges in the workplace.

Findings suggest that European managers are more loyal and less neglectful than North American managers. Historically and as a culture, Europeans along with Japanese (Lee & Jablin, 1992) consider loyalty to be a predominant part of most facets of their lives. However, this may be due to legislation protecting the worker that cannot be easily fired from a company. In addition, job offering dynamics seem more active in North America than in European countries. Many Europeans choose to stay working with a company for a longer period of time than their North American counterpart even if it doesn't suit their lifestyle. They typically manage any neglect by turning to something more deep-seated in their professional or personal lives.

When asked about how talent can be built it was considered the influence of gender. Therefore, when considering gender in this population, by and large, female managers believe talent is innate or inherited. Males and Europeans in general from this study believe talent is a result of work while many North American managers believe talent is a product of academic experience and higher education. Those managers in more formal TM settings believe talent advances through work while managers in informal TM settings believe talent is innate. Thus, formality helps clarify and indicate a source of talent while in informal settings people tend to associate talent with innate characteristics in organizations where TM rules and procedures are not a habit. Studies show that can both situations can happen (Meyers et al. 2013). In fact, these authors refer that a TM system can be built upon these different premises and according to a particular definition of talent. Moreover, academic education, hobbies, sports, arts, and professional training

with other plausible influences, often lead people to act as sources of knowledge, motivation, and, desires. This integral perspective offers a broader view on how talent can actually be acquired, rather than assuming merely that talent is exclusively innate (McCall, 1998). Finally, concerning the geography of talent, in some northern European countries, like Germany, Denmark, and Russia, talent is considered an innate giftedness or ability, while in other cultures, like in Japan, although talent is recognized as an ability, it is not considered an innate one (Tansley, 2011), and here might be the reason why Europeans and North Americans have different approaches on building talent.

Reliability and Correlations. As seen in the Results chapter, reliability levels were considered acceptable for all variables with the exception of Loyalty. As explained, this may be due to the fact that there were only 70 managers responding or because the sub-items under the variable were not strong enough to explain and predict the best number and the best reliable answers. What has not been stated is that Loyalty has historically been the most difficult variable to predict or show reliability. In fact, studies suggest that Loyalty has shown to be the least reliable. For instance, Withey & Cooper (1989) had already mentioned in their work on predicting EVLN that voicers were difficult to predict and that a better understanding of Loyalty and Voice was needed in order to predict how employees respond to dissatisfaction in general. Moreover, the work developed by Drigotas, Whitney, and Rusbult (1995) also revealed that Loyalty was the least visible of the four possible responses. The authors referred that when an individual behaves loyally, the response frequently remains unnoticed or even misinterpreted. According to the same authors, usually this happens because acts of loyalty operate in an indirect manner, consequently producing less extreme outcomes. In addition, Farrell

(1983) mentioned that in his study, Loyalty did not fit in the passive constructive quadrant but rather in the passive destructive. Loyalty appeared disguised as a passive constructive option when in fact it was more of a passive destructive behavior. Farrell (1983) explained that this might have been due to the fact that the definition of Loyalty by Hirschman was not as clear or desirable and also because people may have different expectations when considering dissatisfaction. In 1992, Lee and Jablin referred that Loyalty had no connection or relation with Investment. In their study on cross-cultural investigation of EVLN as an integrative model of responses to declining job satisfaction, results suggested that even low investment promoted Loyalty and that Loyalty could in fact be Neglect. Finally, regarding the discussion on the reliability results, values obtained from a 1990 study named Impact of Job Satisfaction, Investment Size, and Quality of Alternatives on Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect Responses to Job Dissatisfaction: A Cross-Lagged Panel Study by Farrell, Rusbult, Lin, and Berthall (1990), indicated that Loyalty had the lowest Cronbach's Alpha of all possible EVLN responses. Cronbach's alpha for this study were Exit .83, Voice .77, Loyalty .30 and Neglect .58. Compared with the reliability levels obtained in this current research, the values in this study were much higher suggesting that, in both cases, Loyalty is really a difficult behavior to predict.

Correlation analysis was conducted for all cases including separate attention to formal and informal TM cases. Findings from all cases within this study suggest Level of Education is correlated with the level of Skills Used. In addition, Formality correlates with Involvement and Satisfaction. Involvement and Satisfaction correlate with Voice and Exit. Moreover, it can be concluded from this work that Formality correlates with

Voice and Exit. This is supported by previous studies on EVLN responses to dissatisfaction in varied settings. For instance, in a study of the Impact of Exchange Variables on Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect: An Integrative Model of Responses to Declining Job Status Satisfaction (Rusbult et al., 1988), High satisfaction and Investment were related to Voice and Loyalty and although related to Exit and Neglect, they were negatively related. In addition, in the same study, Satisfaction and Investment interacted to promote Voice, but more supported by Satisfaction as the main factor of relation and influence. To reinforce this analysis, it was concluded also that Loyalty has no connection with Investment in previous studies (Lee & Jablin, 1992), because low investment still promoted Loyalty. In this study, Investment is replaced by the variable Involvement and it was shown that by actively being more involved a manager does not necessarily become more loyal.

Nevertheless, and in opposition to the previous paragraph, correlations obtained in a study conducted by Farrell et al. (1990) indicated that Satisfaction was mainly correlated negatively with Exit and Neglect, destructive responses, and that Investment was correlated with Loyalty and Voice, all constructive responses.

When considering Involvement in formal TM practices, Involvement correlated with Voice and Neglect while Skills and Satisfaction correlated with Exit. Additionally, in the informal setting, Involvement is correlated with Exit and Voice while the Level of Skills Used is correlated with Exit, Voice and Neglect. Satisfaction is correlated with Exit and Neglect. Again, Loyalty is not related to any of the three impact variables. What is interesting is the fact that Involvement assumes a tremendous importance both in formal and informal settings. Lawler (2008) considers the high-involvement organizations the

opposite of bureaucratic organizations. However, formality seems to bring a heavy weight on the issue of bureaucracy. In the particular cases of formal TM organizations, the secret lies in the depth and dynamics of the structure. This means that the elements of power, information, knowledge and rewards are still the same in both structures but in the case of the formal TM setting with high-involvement practices, there is a spiral of knowledge that promotes performance interaction among the elements, rather than a typical top-down knowledge deployment approach (Lawler, 2008).

Comparison of Means. Several means were compared to verify differences among managers relating to all cases, formal, informal, origin and gender. In most cases of this study, men have clearly put forth less effort than women when feeling their talent was not properly utilized. Managers in North America tended to show higher levels of disappointment with TM practices than their counterpart managers in Europe. North Americans were often seen as more neglectful by letting things go when their talents are not being used or when not satisfied in general on how TM is deployed.

In many instances, those managers in informal TM settings reported significantly lower levels of involvement and markedly lower levels of satisfaction as compared with those managers in formal TM settings. Therefore, managers reportedly participated more in formal TM settings than in informal TM settings, as participation is a critical piece of measurement of Involvement, especially when talking about individuals playing major roles in organizations as these managers do (Lawler, 2008). Those managers in formal TM settings have their skills assessed more frequently than managers in informal TM settings likely leaving also better impressions of their TM systems. They are therefore more involved than managers in informal TM settings leaving them more satisfied with

TM practices in their organizations. Assessment assumes a critical role in the

maintenance and development of a TM system as referred by Bourdreau and Ramstad

(2007). These authors indicate that throughout time, an organization to be reliable on its

data, needs to go from ad-hoc measurements of talent to scorecards and drilldowns where

the strategic function impacts the organization proving systems of causality and leading

indicators of success (Bourdreau & Ramstad, 2007). In addition, PwC's 2016 Annual

Global CEO Survey found that 72% of CEOs identified availability of key skills as a

major concern. In opposition, managers in informal TM settings reported significantly

lower levels of Voice behaviors than managers in formal settings, meaning that

informality brings up less constructive approaches than formality in TM settings.

According to Berger & Berger (2011), in TM settings, performance planning sets

the expectations between the manager and the employee, and certainly sets the

expectations among managers. Formality, helps to develop the what and the how of the

job that is to be performed and assessed, eliminating unwelcome surprises, typically

keeping people on track. Thus, it is no surprise that in formal settings active constructive

behaviors are more frequent than in informal settings. Moreover, formality helps data

analytics to be frequently produced so the experiences of the past influence are studied

which helps to decipher the future and by doing so, helps the creation of more predictable

and mature decisions and as a result obtain better results (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007).

When looking at origin and how origin may make a difference in the results,

North American managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of

average involvement pointing to tendencies of deeper levels of involvement than North

American managers in informal settings. Managers in North America participate more in

formal TM settings than in informal TM settings leaving those managers in formal settings reporting decidedly higher levels of suggestions for TM improvement. Those managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of active constructive practices, using more Voice behaviors through acts of Cooperation. In addition, according to this study, when North American male managers felt their talents not being properly utilized, they reported higher levels of minimal effort than their European counterparts.

In Europe, things run slightly different as European managers in formal TM Settings seem to have their skills assessed more frequently as results demonstrate. Differences were also found as managers in formal settings reported significantly higher levels of Average Satisfaction in Europe. According to this study, European managers also have better impressions and are more satisfied with TM practices in their organizations in formal TM settings than they are in informal TM settings. Specifically, those female managers in Europe reported considerably lower levels of involvement than their male counterparts in TM systems. This may be due to the fact that women do not have as many management opportunities as men do in top management areas. Therefore, male managers in Europe tend to be much more involved in TM settings including Design and Implementation than their female counterparts. Finally, European managers reported significantly higher levels of suggestions than Female managers. The situation with women in the workplace is historic especially in Europe even with European Union protection policies which are some of the most advanced in the world (Pascal & Lewis, 2004). These authors refer that women do not achieve top positions of decision as men do, nor do they earn as much as men. As a result, the participation process and the

involvement piece relating to TM design and implementation may often seem a mirage for those trying to be as involved as men.

Looking exclusively from a perspective where managers are working under informal TM settings, managers in North American informal TM settings are more satisfied with TM practices in their organizations while reporting significantly lower levels of suggestions than European managers in informal settings. Managers in North America also reported significantly higher levels of Average Satisfaction and tend to have lower levels of disappointment with TM practices than managers in Europe. Female managers tend to be more autonomous and independent than male managers in informal TM settings.

Regression Analysis. Much of the discussion of this study has been linked to some of the theoretical approaches and explained in the previous sections regarding samples t-tests and correlation analysis. The regression analysis was conducted on significant results from previous statistical procedures. A deeper analysis connecting results to theory will follow at the end of this section. Thus, here, the regression analysis section is no more than depicting the results of the predictions of the regression models based on the statistically significant results obtained in the comparison of means and in the correlations. Therefore, the several regression models run based on significant correlation and t-test results are described here as a consequence and this may give reason to much of the explanation and discussion herewith.

When analyzing data obtained from all cases, Gender seemed to predict level of effort by managers. According to this study, when men felt dissatisfied with how their TM systems were run in their organizations, they put forth less effort than their women

counterparts. It was noted that Origin influences the level of disappointment or dissatisfaction one feels with operation of their organizational TM systems. Formality was seen as a great predictor or influencer of Involvement in general with particular emphasis on the Level of Participation in TM related issues and also in the design of TM practices. Formality also influences the general level of Satisfaction with their TM systems with importance pointing to how managers view their particular TM practices. Therefore, more formality in a TM system typically implies more involvement and satisfaction. The more managers are involved, the more they engage in active constructive behaviors (Voice) and the less they are likely to engage in passive destructive behaviors (Neglect). This is a recognition of the importance of going formal in TM program implementation. In fact, in a study performed by PwC and PMI in 2014, 726 business leaders were surveyed 318 HR professionals and 408 other business professionals with roles in TM programs. One of the main findings was that one third of HR professionals and approximately one fifth of the business leaders mentioned that TM policies and practices consistently support strategic programs and projects, invoking formality through this needed connection with top strategic management decisions (Lawler, 2008).

Finally, Satisfaction in general is a great predictor of the Exit behavior. Evidenced by this study, the more satisfied the manager, the less likely abandonment will occur in their organizations. So, as in previous studies (Rusbult et al., 1988) high satisfaction and Investment (here Involvement) encouraged Voice and Loyalty and discouraged Exit and Neglect. Satisfaction and Investment interacted to promote Voice. However, the result was more supported by the variable Satisfaction. Moreover, as verified in the Lee &

Jablin (1992) study, low satisfaction promoted high levels of the Exit option and lower levels of loyalty.

When looking exclusively at North American managers, Gender influences the level of effort involved in TM systems when managers feel their systems are not being effective. Men put forth less effort than women when they feel that TM systems and practices are not properly working. This point has proven to be a main feeder of the data for all case conclusions in this study. Interesting remains the fact that European managers' gender does not influence passive destructive behaviors as it does among North American managers.

Formality proved to be a great predictor of Involvement in general and also in correlating sub-items such as Participation, Involvement in TM design and Suggestions. Certainly, the most important data appeared to be from the group of managers from North America suggesting formality would be a must in order for managers to feel involved with continued and positive participation at all levels in TM practices. Formality also proved to influence Voice behaviors through high levels of cooperation among North American managers.

When observing European managers, results suggest that Gender influences all involvement items. Therefore, contrary to North American managers where all managers feel that formality is critical for involvement, in Europe that is seen from this study as true only for men. As viewed from this study, women are less involved in TM practices in Europe. This may be due to the fact that they are not typically awarded as many top leading jobs as men. Formality is a great influencer of satisfaction. In North America, it was observed that Formality was critical in order to be involved. In Europe Formality

was found to be critical for satisfaction and also to guarantee that people's skills are properly assessed. Detailed explanation of this matter has already been relayed in previous sections. Nevertheless, more can be suggested and added that is related to data obtained from global trends with human capital observing the different results by region. In fact, the major differences that exist studying North America versus Europe in terms of talent management points to the simple fact that retention is the number two factor for North Americans. As previously stated, that is likely due to the market dynamics and to the low levels of unemployment in the United States. For Europe, the number two factor is HR and talent management in general. (Schwartz et al. 2014). The number one factor, leadership, is common to both. Therefore, the levels of loyalty are not surprisingly higher in Europe. In fact, European organizations may have a problem in getting rid of some of its workforce. As a result, the management of talent is certainly more complex than in North American counterpart organizations, because European organizations have to constantly reinvent pleasant settings for the workforce.

When in the presence of formal TM systems only two predictors are critical. This study suggests that satisfaction is a must to guarantee that managers do not abandon their organizations. Likewise, Involvement is very important and significant in order to guarantee that managers do not engage in destructive behaviors such as exiting the organization or staying and being neglectful.

Informal systems often generate more confusion in the way managers respond to dissatisfaction. Gender influences Voice behaviors as men may seek more opinions in their peers than women. Origin is a great influencer of satisfaction in general and this includes most of its sub-items such as level of disappointment and satisfaction with TM

practices. Origin also influences how one is involved in TM practices through suggesting. Involvement still strongly influences Voice behaviors even in informal TM settings. As depicted in this study, the more active constructive manager exists when managers are more involved.

Finally, education level predicts Loyalty levels in informal TM settings. Education was the only demographic variable to influence a behavioral option among all informal TM settings cases. In any other situation, a demographic variable influenced the end result of opting for either one of the EVLN options. Interesting was the fact that the more educated, the less loyal a manager may be in a given organization. In fact, some of the managers interviewed believe that organizations grow slower than their managers, and as a result, the managers, usually highly educated, become frustrated and are ready to move on to a different work experience.

Discussion and Relation to Literature Review and Theoretical Background

Continuing tying the results of this study with the theoretical framework follows in the next lines. Although some results have already been discussed in previous sections, here, the intention is to close eventual gaps that may have been left open.

It seems there is little or no doubt that talent management is a critical piece of today's organizational strategies. Managers are more and more dependent upon how talent management policies interfere with the way they behave in their organizations. Before engaging in a more detailed discussion of the findings, it seems important to clarify some aspects regarding the definition of both talent and talent management under the view and perspective of the 70 respondents. Talent was never defined in this study as capital, giftedness or a strength (Dries, 2013), however it was somehow seen as a process

with inputs and outputs where leaders have the responsibility to transform people and their capacities (Thunnissen et al., 2013). Talent defined was also viewed as something that can be learned (Dries, 2013) as respondents were very keen to admit that professional courses and experience as well as academic experience strongly contributes to how one can in fact acquire talent. Still, when looking in particular for the obtained definitions, talent seems to be whatever one feels it can be (Ulrich, 2011). Despite these different approaches, findings indicated that talent may be innate but it can also be developed as capacities in people. This is true for most norther European countries and it was found as true for this research (Tansley, 2011). Gagné (2000) also refers to talent as natural abilities but also admits talent can be learned. Studies have agreed that talent can in fact be innate or learned. (Meyers, Woerkom, & Dries, 2013).

Another important aspect is the fact that talent and talent management crosses all areas and parts of the organization and it is not only another human resources' idea or program (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007). Creelman (2015) goes even further as the author mentions that in order to be successful in implementing talent management policies, organizations have to be ready to own the process and have its own mindset. Also, according to findings, talent needs to be formalized and not just viewed as a holistic approach (Ashton & Morton, 2005). Looking at the results from both survey and interviews talent management is about attracting and engaging, as well as transforming and reinventing (Schwartz et al., 2014). Although the assessment of talent and people's skills in general is critical (Stahl et al., 2012) the truth is that this study did not show that critical importance for managers as the variables related to skills and it assessment.

As previously mentioned, many organizations may not ready to address talent and human resource analytics, as well as performance management (Schwartz et al., 2014). So, the use of skills and its assessment were in part forgotten by the managers that preferred to highlight involvement and general satisfaction instead.

Regarding the theoretical framework used, EVLN proved to be a reliable scale in general as verified by various studies (Rusbult et al., 2008). When analyzing all four items in this particular study, only the Loyalty item appeared to be less reliable and as mentioned before that may be a result of the number of questions and its interconnections as well as the low number of managers answering the survey. In any case, previous studies have shown to be even weaker concerning the prediction of Loyalty as a dependent reliable variable (Whithey & Cooper, 1989). The bi-dimensional scale initially developed by Hirschman (1970), and later expanded by Rusbult, Zembrodt, and Gunn, (1982) and Farrell (1983) seemed to be appropriate for this research. In fact, the idea of clarifying four different forms of behavior so objectively, left no doubts about the possible choices managers had to express their feelings when asked about involvement and satisfaction in their organizations. Moreover, the scale allowed for observation of an interesting pattern in what gleans to behavioral choices. According to (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992) results may appear in a sequenced order. This means that choosing to leave may not be the initial choice but ultimately the decision after being engaged in Voice, Loyalty and Neglect for a considerable period of time, when no hope or alternatives are present. According to the same authors, the responses can be independent or sequential, meaning that an employee may transition through a series of responses (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). For example, a dissatisfied employee may go through a period of neglect before deciding

to leave the organization due to the lack of alternatives in the market. Although the survey did not intend to verify this process, the fact is that during the interview process several managers described that path as a natural way of behaving first when joining and then throughout their professional lives.

Concluding this theoretical and definition approach, Talent management continues to lack a consensual definition or known boundaries, nor a solid theoretical framework to support thorough academic development (Collings & Mellahi, 2009). However, people rely on their experiences and organizations use the terms frequently. Therefore, it is true when it is said that the definitions and practices of talent are highly influenced by the context of where they are applied whether at local or global levels (Barab & Plucker, 2002).

To conclude, as mentioned in the literature review there were many definitions of talent and how talent can actually be built. In this study respondents affirmed that talent assumes many different forms at it was predicted in chapter II. Also true is that the ability to assess talent is definitely a weakness in less formal organizational settings**.** Additionally**,** an interesting fact remains that oftentimes a behavioral response actually appears in a cycle as a sequence of responses. In previous studies, it was affirmed that people that engage in active destructive behaviors may actually have a preliminary behavior of passive destructive attitudes.

Implications for Policy

The results of this study suggest alerts and recommendations for policy making in organizations. As seen from this study, the advent of global change within the workplace supports the need for a better and more recognizable understanding of Talent, including

consistent study of Talent and Talent Management in order for management in all levels of organizations to realize their options for best practices for utilization of Talent. Consequently, organizations considering more detailed and specific implications for policy will likely create an atmosphere of optimal awareness and knowledge of all facets of Talent and Talent Management.

Based on this study, organizations are advised to invest in the development of formal TM systems in order to hire and retain workers with the best skills available. By going formal organizations will be able to plan, execute, measure and ameliorate the way they manage their people. Informal measures would likely be seen as incomplete and therefore deficient. As a result of implementing formal TM systems, transparency will be highlighted and bias will tend to disappear. Moreover, the intention is to show that through formal TM systems, constructive behaviors are reinforced and as a result managers will spend less time looking for alternative jobs or will be less neglectful in case they remain unhappy in their organizations. However, this does not mean that organizations should abandon informal knowledge. In fact, it's critical that organizations focus also on informal aspect of development (PMI, 2014) as this will encourage people to learn from one another creating implicit or tacit knowledge that then can become explicit knowledge for organizational use (Nonaka & Konno, 1988).

In addition, involvement of managers in the formal TM design and implementation processes is conceivably the most critical aspect of attaining an accomplished formal TM setting within the institution. At the highest level, individuals are more often looking for challenges including participation in being part of the critical decision making processes. Oftentimes, managers prefer to be a part of this all-

encompassing and important relevance in determining the way over receiving higher wages.

The results of the interviews from this study were very clear, pointing to the fact that organizations should bear in mind that the existence of a career investment cycle on the part of managers may exist when affiliated with an organization. This means that individuals, when first assuming their positions as managers or when joining a new organization as managers, have a strong tendency to begin their work cycle by being active constructive, then passive constructive, followed by passive destructive and finally active destructive. This cycle may progress slower or quicker depending upon managers' satisfaction. According to interview results it can take 3 to 9 years on average for a full cycle to be realized. Moreover, the level and quality of alternatives available to managers outside of the organization is crucial for decision making pertaining to leaving or remaining with the organization. Those slight differences may generate passive or active destructive behaviors. Therefore, according to this study, organizations will be better suited with policies in place to create and sustain awareness of this inevitable process creating conditions for good people in general to remain and for the less skilled workers to realize opportunities for self-development. However, since there are different and very distinct phases in the work cycle described, the strategies for each phase of the cycle will have to be properly designed and fundamentally adequate to managers' needs and specificities.

The findings resulted from the interviews also suggest that organizations may be creating a gap between their own expectations and the managers' expectations. This gap has to do with how individuals and organizations grow and manage expectations.

Additionally, it has a lot to do with the amount of training provided by the organization. This is due to the fact that training and learning creates growth for both parts involved but with very distinctive levels of growth and importance for each. In other words, training and educating people to extreme levels may not always have a positive impact and viewpoint and may not always be the right decision. Moreover, many managers feel they have reached their peak within their organizations. In many cases this has created job dissatisfaction and frustration about future options for growth. It is like an addiction from a drug that the organizations are no longer able to provide. While organizations may believe that they are aware of managers' skills, reality is they might in fact be losing track of managers' knowledge and expectations as they simply are not able to go along with or truly understand managers' needs. A full integration of talent policy with strategic intentions is believed to be critical and is strongly recommended with inclusion of a consistent approach to comprehension of managers' desires.

Implications for Leadership

Implementation of TM programs often require a strategy for success. In fact, 88% of executive leaders consider strategy implementation important, however, only 61% percent also admit that their organizations are struggling to bridge the gap between formulation and implementation (PMI, 2014). This is a problem that needs to be solved quickly by organizations and its leaders. The results of this study suggest alerts to the fact that the entire concept of leadership may need to be built upon the premise that by being a source one automatically becomes a leader of self, resulting in organizations now viewing all individuals as sources of information, knowledge, and abilities, and ultimately collective progress. Thus, all workers are considered leaders based on their

knowledge and capabilities and authenticity (Klenke, 2007). This certainly applies to managers in this study and how leadership must be envisioned in their organizations. Secondly, classic organizational structures may no longer prove valid as moving forward talent will be used to bring value to a process, project or product under the customer orientation perspective (Lawler, 2008). Structures need to be adapted in order to create dynamics of action and measurement in a way that provokes regular involvement from critical people in the organization. Senior leadership is mandatory in all areas of the organization because this is what is going to create financial performance, motivation and satisfaction (Lawler, 2008). Finally, where the responsibility of managing talent falls is a question of basis for development not only in organizations but also regarding the literature itself, since much of it is found in conjunction with human resources practices (Dries, 2013). The reinvention of human resources (HR) in organizations is a must happen where HR must become more a partner than a ruler and where leaders from all department have equal power and decision making (Lawler, 2008). Less than 8% of HR leaders have confidence that their HR teams meet today's challenges concerning the management of talent (Schwartz et al., 2014).

Recommendations for Future Research

This thesis studied managers' responses to formal and informal TM practices. Recommendations for future research actually come from distinct perspectives. First, in general, it would be relevant to know more about the definitions of talent and TM and about the different causes that may affect managers' decisions in their careers, especially when these decisions are strongly affected by poor or absent TM policies, processes, and programs. These causes can be related to the level of involvement in TM practices, or the

level of skills used or even the general level of satisfaction proposed in this study. The causes may be related for example with culture and demographics or potentially with the quality of alternatives available.

Still, and as described in the literature review and the results from both the survey and the interviews, a solid definition of both talent and TM remains absent. However, a more accurate definition would help researchers and business professionals better concentrate on topics derived from those definitions such as those that are strongly connected with career planning, salary, personal growth, among others. Nevertheless, focus on determining an easily understood and acceptable definition of talent and talent management in organizational settings will enable space for more clear and deep research in areas related with the development of people in general.

Also, some of the outputs from this study may act as potential triggers for further research. The results pointed to a few interesting aspects related with the involvement of managers in the design and implementation of TM practices. According to what was mentioned in the literature review involvement was referred as a critical piece of the success puzzle for retaining the best people. Considering these three perspectives of causes such as cultural factors and quality of alternatives, definitions of talent and TM, and involvement in design and implementation of TM practices, some recommendations are made for further research.

In this research, oftentimes comparisons were made between North American and European respondents. Some differences were interesting to report such as the importance of education versus professional courses as basis for talent development. However, other questions such as whether talent is in fact innate or learned strongly

relates to the literature review and could benefit from further analysis. This not so solid approach to a clear definition or whether talent is in fact innate might have strong cultural influences. Consequently, the single study of cultures and talent is strongly recommended for the fact that different interpretations may affect possible outcomes in terms of global strategic planning and management for organizations. The cultural impact of TM policies across different countries would therefore be a study with further research extending to other areas of the world.

Other interesting features for further research points to causes. Adding other independent variables such as the quality of alternatives to future studies would be beneficial because many decisions are related not only with how much one is involved in the system or how satisfied one is, but also with the quality of alternatives that the market is ready to offer. One may be unhappy with invested time and effort in a career, but may be unable to exit because of lack of a better alternative available in the market.

Studies with focus on managing talented people and how to retain them clearly exists. However, to hone in on fine points, a more specific recommendation for future research in this particular area would include a broader approach with detail and focus on every person in the organization regardless of their skills level.

Further research to verify the impact of training and professional education on retention levels and levels of behavioral decisions may be very beneficial. This information may offer insight into whether or not specific training will lend toward a tendency for workers to stay or it may show they feel they have reached a peak in their organization suggesting they may leave.

Another important recommendation for future research involves coaching and mentoring which appeared to be the respondents most important aspect of talent development apart from the suggestions given in the survey. The interaction of this process of integrating coaching and mentoring for top managers could be an interesting factor to analyze in future research. Berger & Berger (2011), define coaching as a best in class Organization must have. According to these authors, coaching involves developing capabilities in the range of skills areas ranging from technical skills to managerial skills and interpersonal skills. Coaching helps create trusting relationships and build emotional maturity as well as integrity and empowerment (Berger & Berger, 2011).

More research is recommended regarding the differences between organizations with strong HR departments where planning, implementation and control of all TM policies are centered and managed versus those organizations where TM power and authority is distributed and shared among all departments. Formality can exist in several forms. Formality does not need to be connected to centering authority. In fact, formality can exist in a democratic way where all managers have their own piece of planning, action, and control. Therefore, studying the differences between one model and the other with be critical to understanding different forms of success. Moreover, potentially speaking, an action research project with a few organizations could help find a deeper and better understanding of the real issues that influence one's behavior in formal and informal TM settings.

Finally, a recommendation for further research for continuous exploration of the demographics and the implications of changes in global settings and its impact at local

levels would provide valuable information on this important and ever evolving topic of talent and TM.

To conclude, it is becoming more of a fact that many organizations are recognizing talent management generates great benefits when going formal with their talent management practices (PMI, 2014). This study provided useful information on how managers respond in both formal and informal TM settings, while building and solidifying theory regarding managers' involvement in the design and implementation of TM practices in organizations. Data collected showed it was clear how formality is critical in implementing TM practices. However, it is important to highlight that the Level of Involvement played a major variable in both formal and informal TM settings by first generating higher satisfaction levels among managers in formal environments and then by retaining managers in their organizations in more informal settings. Finally, this study linked employees' behaviors to organizational TM practices proofing it to be a beneficial factor for organizational control as well as an important contributor to empirical literature for this particular academic field of study.

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APPENDIX A

Definition of Terms and Variables

Definition of Terms and Variables

Talent – Ability (both native and acquired), capability, competency, skill, knowledge, performance, development, experience, and commitment, among others, are examples of the complex and ambiguous definitions of talent (please see Chapter II "Talent Defined") Also, "a collection of functional relations distributed across persons and particular contexts through which individuals appear knowledgeably skillful" (Barab & Plucker 2002, p. 166)

Assumption is made that talent exists one way or the other and that all individuals have learned something useful throughout their lives that needs to be applied and recognized in an organizational setting.

Talent Management - The ability to anticipate the need for human capital in order to set out a plan to meet those needs (please see Chapter II "Talent Management Defined")

Exit - Exit means leaving the organization, or search for a different job. Abandonment and resignation

Voice - Voice signifies trying to improve the conditions in the organization, taking the initiative of discussing issues with a supervisor, or taking concrete actions in order to solve organizational problems, including suggesting eventual solutions

Loyalty - Loyalty refers to more passive behaviors such as waiting for conditions to improve, waiting to see what happens, and generally agreeing with superior instructions and policies

Neglect - Acts of Neglect will refer to allowing conditions to deteriorate through reduced interest or effort, or increase of the number of errors at work

Level of Involvement in talent management related issues – Exactly how much is a manager involved in talent management issues? Is he or she informed or participating in TM related issues?

Level of one's Skills used by the organization – The way managers' skills are used and how much are they used by an organization. Is the organization aware of people's skills, and specifically aware of managers'skills?

General level of Satisfaction on how Talent is managed – How satisfied are managers with how talent is managed in their organizations in general?

Note. Definitions do not appear in alphabetical order but by theme and subject.

APPENDIX B

Quantitative Survey

Quantitative Survey

Section 1 - Demographics and Basic Information

1. Name (you may want to remain anonymous) _____

2. Age

18-25   26-35   36-45   46-55

3. Gender

Male   Female

4. Educational Level

No Education   9th Grade   12th Grade   Bachelor   Masters

Doctoral

5. Years working in this organization

0-2   2-4   4-6   6-8   8+

6. Can you identify how you built up your talents? Please allocate a percentage

to each item. Total must be 100%

   a. Innate

   b. Inherited

   c. Professional Courses

   d. Academic Work

   e. Professional Experience

   f. Hobbies

   g. Other _____ (Please specify)

Section 2 - Assessing Degree of Formality of Talent Management

7. Are there any signs of formal policies and practices of talent management in your organization?

No signs at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strong signs of formality

Section 3

8. How often are you involved in talent management related issues in your organization (design, implementation, evaluation, etc.)?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

9. How often are you called to participate in talent management related issues in your organization?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

10. Do you often give suggestions regarding talent management issues?

No 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Yes

11. How is your organization assessing your talent and skills?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very well

12. Do you feel your skills and abilities are being properly used?

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Definitely Yes, all the time

13. How much are your skills and capacities (the things you really know about) used in your organization?

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Always

14. What do you think of the way talent is managed in your organization?

Not well managed 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very well managed

15. The way talent is managed in my organization makes me feel happy

Not at all 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Definitely Yes

16. How often do you feel angry because of the way talent is managed in your

    organization?

Not very often 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very often

Section 4

Very quickly, on a scale from 1 to 7, where 1 is "not at all" and 7 is "absolutely",

please answer the following questions:

Tell us how do you feel about the way talent is managed in your

organization:

17. I think about quitting this company when I think about how talent is managed

    in my organization

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. I may be looking for alternatives to this job because I am not happy with how

    they manage my talent

  1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. I want to give notice that I intend to quit. I am not happy with how this

    company manages talent

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. I want to give suggestions regarding talent management issues in this

    organization

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. I cooperate with my administration in finding solutions for talent management related issues

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. I ask my co-workers for advice about what to do regarding talent management issues

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. I stay loyal to this company when it comes to talent management issues

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. I agree with my administration regarding talent management policies and practices no matter what

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. I patiently wait for talent management problems to disappear

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. I stopped caring about what goes on in my organization regarding talent management policies and practices

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. I tend to let things go to slow death when it comes to talent management issues

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. I show up late or put less effort in my job because I am not very happy on how talent is managed in my organization

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Note. In the end of the survey the respondents were invited to participate on the Interview phase. By, doing that, the survey was no longer anonymous and respondents were aware of that.

APPENDIX C

Interview Guide

Interview Guide

1. How do you define talent?

2. How do you define talent management?

3. How often are you involved in talent related issues in your organization?

4. How are your skills being used in your organization?

5. What do you think of how talent management is managed in your organization?

   Are you happy, satisfied?

6. What reactions, behaviors and attitudes do you engage in when you feel that your

   talent is not being availed? Examples?

7. Are you thinking about living the organization?

   Guideline - No 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Yes

8. Do you often give suggestions or get involved in talent management issues?

   Guideline - No 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Yes

9. Do you feel loyal to the organization?

   Guideline - No 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Yes

10. Do you lose interest in things or tend to practice more errors when you feel

    unhappy about the way your talent is managed?

    Guideline - No 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Yes

Note. After questions 1-10 were answered, the respondents were challenged to situate themselves on a 1-7 Likert scale on 12 sentences – 3 for each dependent variable, using Appendix D as the source.

APPENDIX D

EVLN Checklist of Possible Responses

EVLN Checklist of Possible Responses

Example of possible Exit responses

- I can leave by choice if I feel unheard

- I would rather exit than feel negligent

- When the organization does not work effectively I consider leaving

Example of possible Voice responses

- I always suggest first

- I give several alerts for my peers regarding the way we manage our work

- I tell the board that if they don't say anything, I will implement anyway

Example of possible Loyalty responses

- Even with problems with clients I remain present

- Many times, I was invited to other organizations and declined

- I grew up in this organization and salary wasn't leveled but stayed

Example of possible Neglect responses

- I show up late or deliver late or don't provide all needed information

- When we meet on Mondays the agenda is only about technical problems, and
  sometimes I feel that I am not useful. I am doing nothing here

- I am very passive when it comes to suggesting. I'd rather quit

Note. These questions were also used for cross-validation with responses from the Survey
and the Interview.

Institutional Review Board
Project Action Summary

Action Date: November 14, 2016   *Note: Approval expires one year after this date.*

Type: __New Full Review _X__New Expedited Review ___Continuation Review ___New Exempt Review
____Modification

Action: _X__Approved   ___Approved Pending Modification   ___Not Approved

Project Number: 2016-11-084
Researcher(s): Adriano Manuel Cabral Ferreira Polonia Doc SOLES
Dr. Christopher Newman Fac SOLES
Project Title: Managers' Responses to Informal or Absent Talent Management Practices: An Exploratory Mixed Methods Study

Note: We send IRB correspondence regarding student research to the faculty advisor, who bears the ultimate responsibility for the conduct of the research. We request that the faculty advisor share this correspondence with the student researcher.

Modifications Required or Reasons for Non-Approval

None

The next deadline for submitting project proposals to the Provost's Office for full review is N/A. You may submit a project proposal for expedited review at any time.

_____
Dr. Thomas R. Herrinton
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