



Croatian
International
Relations
Review

—
CIRR

—
XXVIII (91) 2022,
19-38

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DOI 10.2478/
CIRR-2022-0062

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UDC 327 (4-6
EU:73:55)

Talent Management Strategy and Organizational Diversity

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Abstract

Key words:
Diversity, Job
satisfaction,
Organization,
Talent
management.

We investigated how high-potential individuals' perceptions of distributive and procedural fairness are related to their levels of job satisfaction and the amount of effort they put in at work based on their Talent. These people were chosen based on previous data. A questionnaire was sent to 203 individuals working for a single major organisation. These individuals ranged from high potential to mediocre performance. It was shown that workers with high potential and Talent management had much more positive sentiments towards distributive justice. The worker's perception of the fairness of the workplace served as a crucial intermediary in the link between their sense of identity and the degree to which they enjoyed their employment. The findings also showed that people's opinions about the fairness of the procedures utilised to make judgements regarding their employment had a role in determining how hard they were willing to work. The consequences of these discoveries, in both a theoretical and practical sense, are investigated.

Introduction

Talent management is the answer to today's human resources problems and the key to every successful organisation, regardless of whether or not it is an industrial setting (Collings et al., 2009; Van den Brink et al., 2013). In keeping with this view, most studies of talent management's success have concentrated on internal effects, such as the growth of a company (Bethke-Langenegger et al., 2011). Talent management strategies, however, have an effect not just on long-term results, but also on short-term ones, such as how people now feel and perform. Potentially Significant Others (Lepak et al., 1999). Therefore, talent management positively affects the responses of this select set of high potentials, but it may have little or even a negative impact on others who are not included in talent management methods (Huselid et al., 2011), (i.e. non-high potentials). All of these possible negative consequences at the level of individual employees might add up to make talent management ineffective as a whole (Marescaux et al., 2013). Scientists have thus pushed for a closer look at the micro-level implications of talent management (Becker et al., 2009; Gelens et al., 2013).

This study adds to the literature on talent management by investigating the link between an employee's optimism in their own abilities and their productivity on the job. And since talent management strategies may have varying impacts on high-potential and low-potential workers, we'll also investigate the psychological mechanisms at play in the development of these responses. Considering that employees' perceptions of HR practices, rather than the HR practices themselves, determine their reactions, and that actual talent management practices (i.e. whether an employee is labelled as high potential or not) may differ significantly from how employees perceive these

practices (Wright et al., 1995), we will consider both actual and perceived practices (Boxall et al., 2009). To better understand the factors that contribute to the wide range of employee reactions to talent management, we shall use the idea of perceived organizational fairness proposed by (Greenberg, 1990) there are three major improvements provided by us. We begin by arguing that the few empirical studies that have focused on talent management's involvement have overlooked the strategy's micro-level effects. So, our first original contribution is a study of how differently various substances respond to high and low potentials. Second, studies that did look at different reactions often relied on the workers' own estimations of their high potential (Björkman et al., 2013). The technique not only increases the likelihood that the conclusions are influenced by common method variation, but it also uses an insufficient methodology for measuring the consequences of the actual, established distinction between workers. Using historical information, we can more accurately single out workers with exceptional potential. Third, to provide HR experts with useful guidance on how to execute talent management, we need to comprehend the reasons behind the variations in responses from staff members. To discover the reasons behind the workers' different responses, we will conduct an in-depth psychological study.

Literature Review

Despite its rising popularity among HR experts, the term "talent management" is still the topic of heated debate in academic circles (Collings et al., 2009; Dries, 2013). When looking to find common ground across the numerous conceptualizations of talent management reported in the literature, (Iles et al., 2010) identified four distinct viewpoints. The first is an all-inclusive, people-focused stance that rejects the notion that only a select few employees possess any real talent; the second is a selective, people-focused stance that classifies workers according to their contribution to the company; the third is a selective, position-focused stance; and the fourth is a selective, position-focused stance.

In recent years, strategic human resource management (HRM) has shifted toward differentiated people management as opposed to homogeneous rules and practices (Becker et al., 2006). Strategies for talent management that are both inclusive and limited target employees in diverse ways. When it comes to investing in employees, the exclusive strategy takes workforce diversity into consideration and focuses on investing in a limited group of high-potential employees, while the inclusive approach provides individualized solutions for all employees regardless of their skills or needs. The practice of workforce diversification is based on the premise that investing equally in all employees will result in unreasonably high costs for the organization

(Becker, 1998). Therefore, an organization's limited people resources should be prioritized in recruiting, selecting, developing, and retaining individuals with high potentials (Collings et al., 2009; Lepak et al., 1999; Morton, 2005).

This article examines the effects of workforce differentiation on individual employees. Therefore, we focus on the limited approach to talent management that categorizes employees as high potentials (or not) based on their expected value to the organization. Workforce differentiation is the practice of providing greater resources to the activities and employees within those roles that contribute more to the fulfilment of an organization's strategic objectives (Becker et al., 2009). The differentiation of the workforce is rooted in the organization's resource-based philosophy, which maintains that unique, high-value assets are crucial to maintaining success (Barney, 1991; Wright et al., 1995). Therefore, it is believed that a company's productivity will increase if different groups of employees are identified, appreciated, and managed utilizing diverse employment patterns (Lepak et al., 1999).

High Potential Identification and Job Satisfaction

At the institutional level, the advantages of workforce differentiation are generally recognized (Becker et al., 2006). However, genuine research on how workers react to diversity in the workplace is lacking (Becker et al., 2009). Few studies have examined this subject, but those that have shown beneficial outcomes for the workforce section receiving differentiated treatment (i.e. high potentials). (Björkman et al., 2013) compared employees who felt they were classed as high potentials with those who believed they were not and those who were uncertain. Those who saw themselves as high potentials were more committed to skill development and less inclined to quit their professions in the near future. (Marescaux et al., 2013) found that a differentiated workforce might have unforeseen repercussions. Affective commitment was lower among employees treated less favorably compared to those treated equally or better. This is congruent with studies on how employees respond to good and negative performance assessments, feedback, promotions, and job possibilities, all of which have shown a positive association between the employee's response and the extent to which the result favored the employee (Brown et al., 2010; Crawshaw et al., 2012; Schinkel et al., 2004). Social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) suggests that workers participate in bargaining with their employers via a series of exchanges in which the organization's actions are met with the employees' replies. Employees may make sense of these findings by seeing them through this lens. When applied to the field of talent management, this social exchange process suggests that employees will feel obligated to demonstrate positive attitudes and behaviours toward their employer after the company makes an investment in the employment relationship, for instance by

labelling the employee as a high potential (Kuvaas et al., 2010). This line of reasoning is supported by research in the area of psychology known as the "psychological contract," which demonstrates that high-potential workers do feel obligated to enhance their job performance as a consequence of the company's financial investment in them (Höglund, 2012). When employees believe that their employer has breached the terms of the exchange relationship by failing to recognize the immense potential they possess, they may retaliate by displaying negative attitudes and behaviors' while at work (Turnley et al., 2000). As a means of validating this idea, we will conduct research into two outcomes—happiness at work and productivity—that are not obviously connected but are still significant to workers. Work effort, on the other hand, refers to the amount of energy that is expended during a given period while performing a job. As a result, it is much more closely related to observable behavior than work pleasure, which refers to an attitude result that is associated with the satisfaction of an employee's well-being (Hofmans et al., 2014; Naylor et al., 2013; Weiss, 2002). We will test our hypothesis by using the structure of (Blau, 1964), social exchange theory. Our working hypothesis is that high potentials will demonstrate higher levels of job engagement and career satisfaction than low potentials.

Hypothesis 1: High potential workers are more satisfied with their jobs than regular employees.

Hypothesis 2: Employees who have been recognized as having high potential are more likely to report putting in more time at work than those who have not been thus identified."

Perceived Organizational Fairness and Job Satisfaction

Although preliminary evidence suggests that high and non-high potentials respond to (non-identification) in diverse ways, our knowledge of the psychological mechanisms at play in these differences remains scant. Notably, under the social exchange framework, it is not easy to quantify workers' contributions and match them with the proper reciprocations by the organization, since every worker has their own ideas about what constitutes a fair trade (Masterson et al., 2000). Studying employees' points of view on workforce diversity is crucial for understanding how different employees react to workforce heterogeneity (Huselid et al., 2011). According to recent research (Greenberg, 1990), it is widely accepted that workers' perceptions of organizational fairness play a significant role in shaping their responses to workforce differentiation initiatives. Individuals may assess the fairness or justice of their own high potential identification or non-identification by (a) contrasting it with their own assessment of their contributions, and (b) assessing the fairness of the procedures used to discriminate among employees. Both distributive justice and procedural justice are considered in these assessments (Greenberg, 1990). We propose that the connection between an employee's (non-)identification as a high

potential and outcomes like job happiness and effort is significantly influenced by one's beliefs about both forms of justice. Meta-analyses and research on performance assessments have consistently revealed the crucial impact of perceived organizational fairness, and talent management is frequently a part of and draws from the wider performance management system of the firm (Crawshaw et al., 2012; Kuvaas et al., 2010; Thurston Jr et al., 2010). This article will examine the role of perceived distributive justice as a moderator between an employee's (non-)identification as a high potential and their job happiness and effort on the job. The argument then turns to the idea that equitable talent management practices might mitigate the effects of distributional fairness on employee outcomes. To further explain the moderating effect of procedural fairness, we shall draw on referent cognitions theory and the notion of rational self-interest (Figure 1).

Distributional Justice Mediates

To explain employees' individual evaluations of workforce differentiation tactics, we apply the concept of perceived distributive justice, which is the degree to which an employee feels that the resources obtained by the organization are proportional to his or her efforts (Greenberg, 1990). We hypothesize that high potential identification will be associated with more favorable attitudes of distributive justice, based on social exchange theory and prior research demonstrating a positive association between employee performance evaluations and perceptions of distributive justice (Erdogan, 2002). In addition, we believe that even non-high potentials will expect large resources since employees have a tendency to overstate their contributions (Nilsen et al., 1993). Conforming to the premises of the theory of social trade, we predict that these employees will be more inclined to see distributive justice as relatively less favorable because they perceive their efforts are not repaid by the organization.

Hypothesis 3: High potential workers are more likely to have positive views on distributive justice than their non-high potential counterparts.

Therefore, the reactions of the workers depend on how fair they consider the allocation to be (Cropanzano et al., 1991). To strike a fair balance between their efforts and the rewards they get, it is hypothesized that workers vary their contributions, such as effort and job satisfaction, based on their beliefs of distributive justice (i. e. they want the exchange relationship to be fair). Therefore, when workers have lower expectations of success, they may react by working less hard and being less satisfied with their jobs (Cohen-Charash et al., 2001). In line with previous studies, we demonstrate that an individual's sense 'of distributive fairness increases both their job satisfaction and their performance (McFarlin et al., 1992). Consequently, we might consider the following speculations:

*“Hypothesis 4: High-potential workers will have a more favorable perspective of distributive justice, leading to greater job satisfaction.
Hypothesis 5: People who have a more optimistic sense of distributive justice are more inclined to work diligently than those who do not.”*

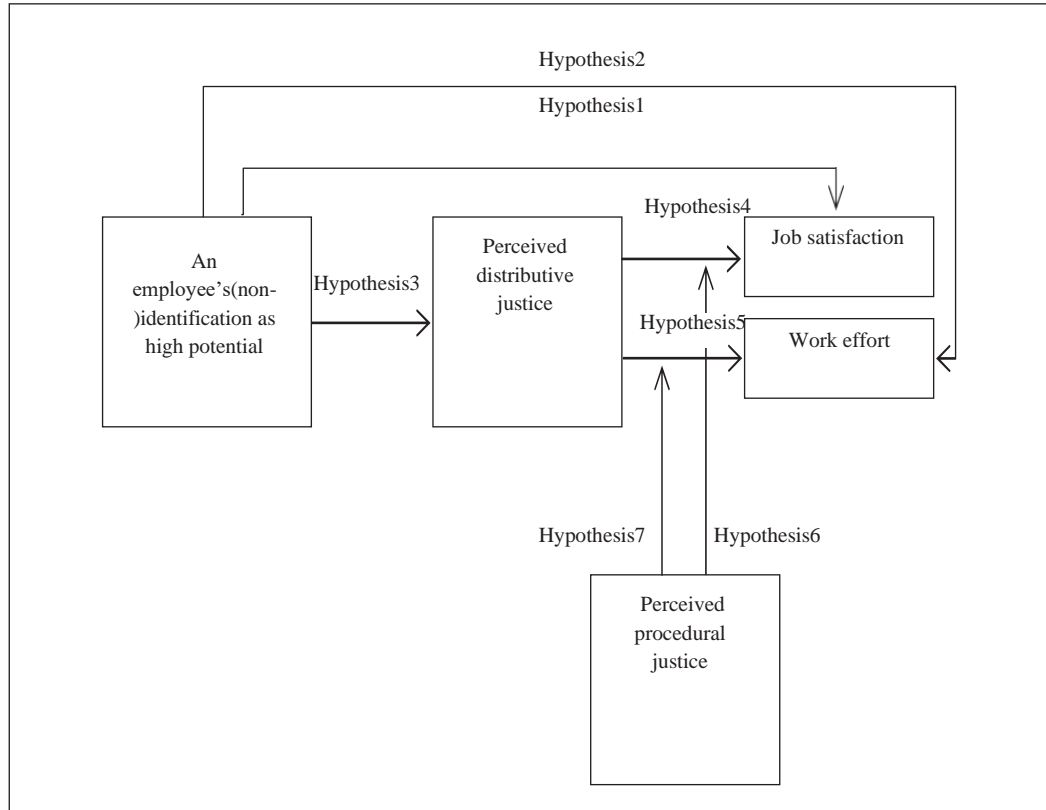


Figure 1: Perceived organizational fairness between high potential status, job happiness, and work effort

The Moderating Influence of the Perception of Procedural Fairness

It is hypothesized that a person's level of job satisfaction and effort are affected not only by the perceived fairness of the allocation method but also by their identity as a high potential (i. e. perceived procedural justice). When even those who are not high potentials see the allocation process as fair, the negative consequences of less favorable distributive fairness on job satisfaction and work effort are mitigated (Brockner et al., 2001; De Cremer et al., 2010). (Brockner et al., 1996) to account for this moderating effect used several ideas, including referent cognitions theory and the self-interest hypothesis. The notion of referent cognitions (Folger, 1986) states that workers have a harder difficulty imagining better outcomes when they believe that processes are fair. Therefore, they are less likely to have an inaccurate conception of distributive justice and act unjustly as a result

(Folger et al., 1983). This has been shown to be the case. The self-interest theory (Thibaut et al., 1975) suggests that workers' primary motivation is to maximize their own benefits. Employees worry about their futures due to the unjust practices volatility and unpredictability. Due to worry, people tend to focus more on the here and now. The impact of unfavorable results is mitigated when processes are consistent (a procedural fairness norm), since this gives workers reason to believe that their situation will improve in the future even if it has not yet. Thus, we have study suppositions:

Hypothesis 6: Perceived distributive justice will have a bigger impact on job satisfaction when perceptions of procedural justice are less favorable than when perceptions of both are good.

Hypothesis 7: When opinions of procedural justice are, less favorable, perceived distributive justice will have a greater impact on labor effort than when views of procedural justice are more favorable.

Research Methods

Observations were conducted at a significant Saudi Arabian financial institution. The organization has a talent management plan because it recognizes a portion of its employees as having excellent potential for development to senior leadership positions. The company's talent management strategy identifies junior high potentials (0.7% of the organization's population) and senior high potentials (the top 1% of the organization's population) as two categories of exceptional performers (0.4 per cent). Junior high potentials show promise but are not yet ready to take leadership positions, while senior high potentials are already being prepared for positions at the very top of the organization. Those who demonstrate leadership potential in middle school are often seen as future CEOs. We focus on the workforce differentiation approaches that have arisen because of this talent management strategy. High potentials participate in a variety of programmes tailored to their needs, such as specialized training (for instance, junior high potentials attend a 5-week seminar abroad in the organization's own academy; senior high potentials pursue a company MBA), individualised mentoring and counselling from talent advisers, access to a variety of networking opportunities, and ongoing assessment via a talent review process (e.g. how did she or he evolve the past year, are there new opportunities for this person, which competences require coaching). Teamwork is required to identify emerging talents.

HR and line managers must first agree on which candidates should be considered for positions with high potential. Second, the organisation selects which applicants will proceed to a departmental-level in-person interview. Thirdly, the management committee selects the final group of high achievers after considering aspects such as the ideal number of high potentials for the

organization's succession. In the selection process, performance, potential, and engagement in the work are the major factors. The performance assessment is based on the supervisor's evaluation. Potential is assessed in a variety of methods, including via assessment centers (high grades on 20 skills, such as entrepreneurship, personal development, and network usage) and the supervisor's judgement. Employees are accountable for demonstrating their commitment by developing a portfolio highlighting their contributions to the organisation.

There is an open debate around the talent management strategy inside the organisation. The HR staff updates the two groups of high potentials on the progress of the programme and explains its structure and processes. Because of routinely attending training sessions and other professional development activities with their co-workers, these people are fully aware of their colleagues' great potential. In addition, HR makes it obvious to high potentials that their position reflects the company's belief in their potential, but also comes with high expectations and requirements in the workplace. Employees who are not regarded to be high potentials are aware of the talent management plan, its two groups, the annual talent assessment, and its objective to train and develop a select number of employees. They are aware that they do not belong to the select group of talented folks. Since all training opportunities within the scope of the talent management programme are announced on the organization's website, along with the information that attendance is by invitation only, even employees who have not been identified as high potentials by the HR representative are said to have an informal idea of who has been identified as such. Consequently, staff keep track of who attends these trainings and other invitation-only events.

Participants

The survey was sent to 87 senior high potentials, 103 junior high potentials, and a matched sample of 300 workers who had not been selected as high potentials. The present employment level of high potentials and low potentials was used to make the pairings. Sixty-eight high-potential high seniors (66% response rate), seventy-two middle schoolers (67% response rate), and seventy-five low-potential middle schoolers (25% response rate) took part in the research. The majority of the 128 high-potential employees, or 20%, worked for potentials outside of Saudi Arabia, whereas all the low-potential employees worked for Saudi Arabia-based potentials. Tabulated in [Table 1](#) below are the demographic details of the three categories.

Procedure and Measures

Both historical data from the HR department of the participating companies and self-reported information were gathered. The HR rep handed out online questionnaires for everyone to fill out to report their own experiences and opinions. Each participant was given complete anonymity and free will.

Table 1: Social Demographics

	Junior high potentials	Senior high potentials	Non high potential
Gender			
Male (%)	49 (70.00)	43 (74.2)	34 (44.67)
Female (%)	21 (30.00)	15 (25.8)	42 (55.26)
Education			
Bachelor's degree (%)	4 (5.8)	3 (5.1)	34 (44.60)
Master's degree (%)	66 (94.2)	55 (94.7)	42 (55.20)
Tenure			
Minimum	3.0	3.0	1.0
Maximum	19.0	22.0	34.0
Mean (SD)	8.52 (3.52)	13.66 (4.52)	14.27 (9.37)
Age			
Minimum	25.0	29.0	20.0
Maximum	37.0	43.0	52.0
Mean (SD)	29.6 (2.93)	36.5 (3.22)	35.95 (8.41)

An employee's (non-)identification as a high potential we utilised historical data to calculate this measure. Each employee's entry was annotated to indicate whether they were regarded a high potential recruit (i.e., senior high potentials and junior high potentials versus non-high potentials). Each

participant in the three groups received a unique electronic link to the survey (but the questionnaire itself was the same for all respondents).

Perceived organisational justice we altered the scale created by (Loi et al., 2009) in order to examine how individuals feel about distributive and procedural fairness. We amended the original items of perceived procedural justice to incorporate references to talent management, and we clarified that statements of perceived distributive justice focused on "results that the person obtained or did not acquire as a result of the talent management programme." By inquiring about variables such as work prospects and educational attainment, we were able to accurately gauge respondents' opinions of the fairness of the distribution. On a 5-point Likert scale, participants rated a collection of questions (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Seven questions (such as "The talent management procedures have been consistently used") examine procedural justice, and three questions (such as "My outcomes reflect the effort I have put into my employment") assess distributive justice. The alpha value for perceived distributive justice measures is 0.95, whereas the alpha coefficient for procedural justice items is 0.77.

Job satisfaction Two questions produced by (Hackman et al., 1976) ($\beta = 0.87$) were used to build a seven-point Likert scale to assess work satisfaction, including "Generally speaking, I am very content with my present employment" (scored 7) and "I am extremely satisfied with my current job" (which received a score of 1).

Work effort Participants were asked to rate their level of effort on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree) for each item on the 10-item Work Effort Scale (De Cooman et al., 2009) ($\alpha = 0.82$). The statement "I genuinely do the best I can to meet the organization's goals" was included as an example.

Control variables Participants were matched based only on job level; age, gender, tenure, education, and country were accounted for in all analyses. A meta-analysis of organizational justice perceptions has shown how these variables may impact employees' views of workplace fairness (Cohen-Charash et al., 2001).

Data Analysis

(Hayes, 2013) procedure tool for computing moderated mediation models inside a linear regression framework in SPSS Statistics 20 was used for the data analysis. We created two dummy variables, one for each year of high school, to separate students into three categories: high potential, low potential, and no potential. To investigate the link between contentment in one's work and output, we conducted trials using individual mediators. After

grand-mean centering both predictor variables, we used the product-of-coefficients method to examine whether there was a mediation effect between people's perceptions of procedural and distributive justice (this is the product of the regression coefficients linking identification as a high potential to distributive justice on one hand, and distributive justice to job satisfaction and work effort on the other hand). We employed bootstrapping (n = 5000 bootstrap samples) to determine the relevance of these product-of-coefficients parameters since they are not regularly distributed (Preacher and Hayes, 2008).

Results

We first conducted a statistical study to ascertain the averages, standard deviations (SDs), and relationships between many independent variables serving as controls. The degrees of these control variables ranged from how hard workers worked to how fairly they thought they were compensated. Furthermore, we discovered that a person's degree of work satisfaction was strongly connected with their opinion of the fairness of procedures (see Table 2). We used a series of ANOVAs to look for differences in mean levels of job satisfaction, work effort, and perceived distributive justice between employees who were regarded to have high potential vs those who were not. The results showed that there were significant differences between the groups when measuring work satisfaction ($F(2, 201) = 4.93; p = 0.007$), labour effort ($F(2, 201) = 3.60; p = 0.028$), and perceived distributive justice ($F(2, 201) = 9.42; p = 0.001$). (Beginners, intermediates, and advanced players are all included.) To shed further insight on the discrepancies, post hoc analysis, commonly known as Fisher's least significant difference (LSD) analyses, were conducted. Thus, the null hypothesis is validated, since both junior and senior high potentials report much greater levels of work satisfaction than non-high potentials. High potentials, both junior ($p = 0.062$) and senior ($p = 0.002$), report considerably greater levels of work satisfaction than non-high potentials, although there is no statistically significant difference between junior and senior high potentials in this regard ($p = 0.2201$). (Note that the difference is marginally significant for the junior high potentials). Work effort ratings were significantly higher for senior high potentials than for junior and non-high potentials ($p = 0.016$ and $p = 0.023$, respectively), but there was no difference between junior and non-high potentials ($p = 0.885$).

The findings, therefore, lent credence to H0 2 among seniors in high school but did not do so among juniors and sophomores. There is no significant difference in perceived distributive fairness between the junior ($p = 0.975$) and senior ($p = 0.001$) high potentials and the non-high potentials. Our findings lend credence to Hypothesis 3. We evaluated a model of regulated mediation. Two key components of this model were (a) the role of perceived distributive

justice as a mediator between high potential self-identification and work satisfaction and (b) the role of perceived procedural fairness as a moderator between perceived distributive justice and job happiness and. There was an examination of the combined impact of both factors. We conducted separate moderated mediation experiments to examine the relationship between job satisfaction and effort on the job, thus we will explain the results for each outcome variable below. The data support H4, which proposes that a sense of distributive fairness mediates the link between high potential status and satisfaction in the workplace.

The direct effect of being a senior high potential on job satisfaction was found to be minimal ($= 0.37$; $p = 0.088$), while the effect of being a junior high potential was found to be insignificant ($= 0.06$; $p = 0.713$) after controlling for the indirect influence brought about by the perception of distributive fairness. There was a substantial association between perceived distributive justice and work satisfaction ($= 0.61$; $p 0.001$), and those with senior and junior high potentials scored considerably higher than those with non-high potentials on this measure. (It's worth noting that the difference is only somewhat significant when compared to the potentials of pupils in junior high.) A significant indirect correlation exists between junior high and senior high potentials [$= 0.15$; 90 per cent CI = (0.020-0.340)] because of the cumulative effect of these two strong associations. Since there was no statistically significant relationship found ($= 0.12$; $p = 0.430$) between the moderating impact of perceived procedural justice on the relationship between perceived distributive justice and job satisfaction, we therefore reject Hypothesis 6. Because the mediation effect (Hypothesis 5) changes with level, the picture for labour effort is more complicated.

We discovered that perceived distributive justice does not mediate the relationship between an employee's self-identification as high potential and work effort when perceived procedural justice is average. However, the moderating effect persists regardless of how well or badly people rate the fairness of the procedures at play. High school seniors with potential scored substantially higher ($= 0.48$; $p = 0.005$) and junior high school students with potential scored significantly higher ($= 0.26$; $p = 0.081$) on their judgments of distributive justice than non-high potentials, consistent with other findings (note that the difference is marginally significant for the junior high potentials). Although there was an interaction between perceived distributive justice and procedural justice ($= 0.16$; $p = 0.013$), this factor alone did not significantly affect work effort ($= 0.01$; $p = 0.873$). This is the 7th theory. As a result, procedural fairness is essential if a feeling of distributive justice is to have any bearing at all. To further grasp this interaction effect, we investigated its statistical significance (Aiken et al., 1991).

When perceived procedural justice is below the mean by 0.73 standard deviations, a negative link between distributive justice and effort is

discovered, whereas a positive correlation is found when perceived procedural justice is above the mean by 1.59 standard deviations. However, a simple slopes plot (with a standard deviation of one as the lowest and +1 as the maximum) reveals that the correlation between procedural fairness and effort is backwards (see [Figure 2](#)). Thus, a feeling of distributive justice moderates the link between an employee's self-identification as a high-potential and their level of effort in the workplace, regardless of the degree to which procedural and distributive fairness are present. This is true independent of the degree to which one believes in distributive fairness.

Table 2: Means, Standard deviations (SD) And correlations for all study variables.

	Junior high potentials Mean (SD)	Senior high potentials Mean (SD)	Non-high potentials Mean (SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6		7	8	9
1. Gender(0=Male;1=Female)	0.31(0.460)	0.25(0.42)	0.51(0.51)	/									
2. Age	29.72(2.93)	36.51(3.32)	35.92(8.41)	-0.02	/								
3. Tenure	8.52(3.52)	13.66(4.52)	14.27(9.37)	-0.13*	0.81**	/							
4. Education(0=Bach.;1=Master)	0.93(0.22)	0.96(0.21)	0.56(0.51)	-0.05	-0.37**	-0.41**	/						
5. Country(0=Belgium;1=Other)	0.03(0.21)	0.27(0.44)	0.00(0.00)	0.02	0.03	-0.12	0.07	/					
6. Perceived distributive justice	3.73(0.81)	3.73(0.81)	3.24(0.77)	-0.08	-0.26**	-0.26**	0.21**	0.10		<i>0.96</i>			
7. Perceived procedural justice	3.25(0.47)	3.28(0.53)	2.87(0.55)	-0.13*	-0.22**	-0.22**	0.24**	0.24**		0.53**	<i>0.76</i>		
8. Jobsatisfaction	5.57(1.16)	5.82(0.81)	5.23(1.21)	-0.05	-0.12	-0.08	0.07	0.10		0.45**	0.35**	<i>0.87</i>	
9. Workeffort	6.08(0.42)	6.24(0.42)	6.05(0.46)	-0.04	0.22**	0.21**	0.02	0.07	-0.02		0.07	0.15*	<i>0.81</i>

Notes: The alpha coefficients are shown in italics and in a diagonal format. As there are just two elements on the job satisfaction scale, we establish a relationship between them. ** $P < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

A person's potential as measured in the eighth grade ($= 0.08$; $p = 0.286$) and the twelfth grade ($= 0.12$; $p = 0.176$) has a direct and fully mediated effect on how hard they work.

Discussion

This research intended to increase our knowledge of the brain processes associating high potential identification with successful work performance. It was discovered that high potentials and high potentials had distinct reactions to workforce differentiation activities, with reactions being impacted by how people saw the practices. Thus, we expanded our knowledge of how labour disparity effects social exchange interactions.

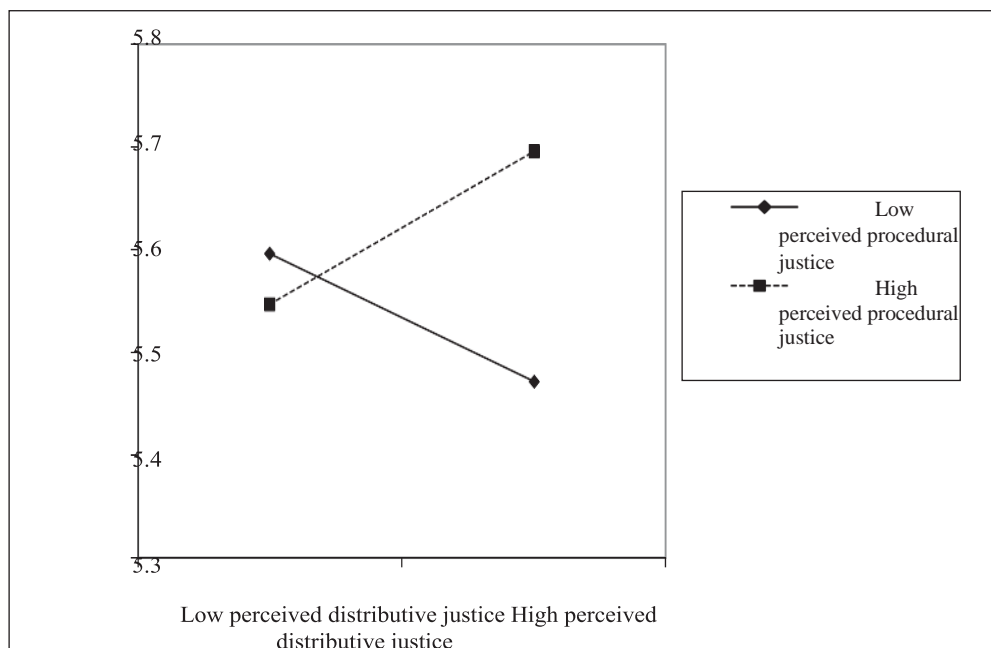


Figure 2: Simple slope plot demonstrating the interaction impact between perceived procedural justice and felt distributive justice on labour effort (effects for 1SD and +1SD are shown).

As previously discussed (Masterson et al., 2000), social interactions are mostly a subjective affair, driven in this instance by ideas of distributive and procedural fairness in the workplace. Unlike when utilising self-reported high potential identification, the possibility of common method bias was reduced by employing archive data as an objective antecedent [i.e. an employee's (non-)identifying as a high potential] of these subjective judgments (Björkman et al., 2013).

An employee's high (low) work effort and (lack of) job satisfaction cannot be linked to the employee's belief that he or she would be in the (non-)high potential group, which is the likely explanation for the correlation between identification and employee outcomes. We found that the link between high-potential identification and both job happiness and effort

was modulated by an individual's sense of distributive fairness. High-potential workers had a more favorable view of distributive justice than their peers did. However, differences between juniors and non-high potentials and seniors and non-high potentials were not constant. In terms of statistical significance, the difference between juniors and non-potentials was much larger than that between seniors and non-potentials. One possible reason for this discrepancy is that students with promise in high school take advantage of more formal and institutionalized potentials of acknowledgment than their junior high school counterparts. Moreover, high-potential employees have access to a wider range of training potentials and higher-quality instruction. This means that the fairness of resource distribution is likely affected by the quantity and quality of resources that follow the high potential categorization. To separate the impacts of identification from those of development, which our current data do not permit us to accomplish, future research may apply experimental experiments. Employees' perceptions of workplace fairness were associated with their level of job satisfaction and their willingness to go the extra mile. Finally, procedural justice's moderating influence on the mediation of distributive justice on job satisfaction remained unchanged, whereas it changed for the mediation of distributive justice on work effort. Those who place a high value on distributive fairness are more invested in their work when they believe their employer's strategies for differentiating the workforce are fair and less invested when they believe they are unfair. According to the two-factor model proposed by (McFarlin et al., 1992), the perception of procedural justice has a greater impact on organizational outcomes (such as work effort) than favorable perceptions of distributive justice do on more individual outcomes (such as job satisfaction), which are closely associated with positive emotions.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests: There is No Conflict of Interest

Acknowledgement

This work was supported through the Ambitious Funding track by the Deanship of Scientific Research, Vice Presidency for Graduate Studies and Scientific Research, King Faisal University, Saudi Arabia [Grant No 2656].

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