

## 12

## CAREERS AND CAREER MANAGEMENT

## CHAPTER OBJECTIVES

- To outline the different meanings of career and career development
- To discuss how careers are changing and the potential implications for organisations and workers
- To outline common career management interventions and outcomes
- To outline how individuals are increasingly being asked to take greater responsibility for career development.

## INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 outlined a number of developments in the economic, social and technological spheres that have impacted upon the ways in which work organisations engage labour. In particular, the chapter outlined the perceived need for organisational and labour flexibility and how this had led to changes both to organisational form and increasing diversity in contractual arrangements with workers. The impact of these developments is manifold but one of the most profoundly affected areas of HRM is career management. Jackson et al. (1996: 1) state that 'careers as lifetime experiences of individuals and as pathways through occupations and organisations are in a profound state of change ... [as a result of] a wide range of revolutionary forces affecting labour markets, employment structures, organisational practice and educational provision'. In particular, organisational restructuring and the pursuit of increased labour flexibility have led to widespread changes to how individuals develop careers and the extent to which firms provide both the infrastructure and support for career development. In addition, many of

the changes to the labour supply discussed in Chapter 4 are altering what organisations can assume employees demand from employment and, subsequently, their expectations in respect of careers. Social trends, such as the rise in dual career couples, increased worker demand for work-life balance and demographic changes are redefining an appropriate career proposition from employers.

This chapter begins by outlining contrasting notions of careers and explores how the traditional notion of career progression is changing. It then explores what the developing context of employment implies for the way in which workers develop careers within and outside of organisations, the implications of these changes for the individual and how HRM can provide support for career development. Finally, the chapter outlines the rationale for **career management interventions** and outcomes.

## THE 'TRADITIONAL' CAREER

The traditional notion of a career is exemplified by the definition put forward by Sparrow and Hiltrop (1994; cited in Counsell, 1997: 34) as 'advancement within a profession or occupation, made possible within an organisation by the provision of a cradle-to-grave employment philosophy'. Similarly, Wilensky (1960: 554) suggested that a 'career is a succession of related jobs arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through which persons move in an ordered (more or less predictable) sequence'. More broadly, Arnold (1997a: 16) suggests that 'a career is the sequence of employment-related positions, roles, activities and experiences encountered by a person'.

Implicit in these definitions are a number of attributes that tend to denote the traditional perspective on careers. In particular, these definitions firmly focus on (paid) work. They also embody the notion of a 'job for life' or, at least, the idea that careers are longitudinal phenomena that take place within a single or limited number of organisations. The emphasis is, therefore, on careers taking place within a bureaucratic context and on continuous vertical advancement through the organisational hierarchy. In this sense, careers tend to be structured around well-trodden paths or ladders that link a sequence of jobs resulting in the achievement of some pre-determined goal or 'career capstone experience' (Leach and Chakiris, 1988: 51). Careers, therefore, display a coherence that can be objectively defined. Importantly, it is the goal orientation that distinguishes a career from a sequence of jobs: 'jobs need not lead anywhere, it is just something a person gets paid for' (Leach and Chakiris, 1988: 50). In other words, jobs are simply the building blocks of careers. The traditional perspective is associated with models of stable, predictable career and life development, such as those presented in Table 12.1 that suggest a largely universal developmental experience which can be broken down into distinct phases.

## REDEFINING THE CAREER

In contrast to the traditional viewpoint, alternative definitions suggest that the notion of career has different meanings for different groups of workers operating in different contexts. Whilst careers might universally denote a relationship between an individual and an organisation or the labour market in some sense, some perspectives on career suggest that rather than being objectively defined (i.e. a specific and pre-determined occupational pathway or a



OLD VS. NEW CAREERS

TABLE 12.1 Models of career/life development

Career stages (Super, 1957)	Phases of adult life development (Levinson, 1978)
Growth: expansion of capabilities and interests (ages 0–14)	–
Exploration: clarify self-identity (ages 15–24)	Early adult world (ages 17–22) Entering adult world (22–28)
Establishment: finding a suitable career (ages 25–44)	Settling down (ages 33–40) Mid-life transition (ages 40–45)
Maintenance: hold position, compete against younger people (ages 45–64)	Entering middle age (age 45–50) Speculatively discuss late adulthood (age 50+)
Decline: decreasing capabilities (age 65+)	

sequence of identifiable job roles) careers are subjectively constructed and shaped by the significance and meaning that the individual attaches to their career experiences.

Schein (1996) refers to a shift from external careers, where the formal stages and roles are defined by organisations and society, to internal careers which involve 'a subjective sense of where one is going in one's work life' (1996: 80). In this sense, many people do not simply act out a prescribed career path but instead construct their career in dynamic negotiation with their social, economic and cultural context. Bird (1994: 326) conceptualises careers not as a sequence of jobs but as 'accumulations of information and knowledge embodied in skills, expertise and relationship networks acquired through an evolving sequence of work experience'. In this sense, careers can therefore be understood as both the connective tissue between jobs and the outputs of these jobs in respect of personal development. This perspective can be developed by acknowledging that careers can also be defined to encompass all aspects of personal and social development inside and outside of paid employment. Consequently, career success and individual self-worth can be thought of in wider terms than simply employment-based achievement – such as the attainment of power, status and remuneration – with non-paid work as a student, parent or community member seen as important, reflecting the importance of 'social good' (Leach and Chakiris, 1988).

## VARIATION IN CAREER FORM

Careers for many have never universally conformed to the 'ideal type' of an organisationally bounded, linear progression through a hierarchy of positions. This is partly because career form is determined not only by the individual and the employing organisation but also by the nature of the work itself, the orientation of different occupational groups and the employment sector in which it takes place. Kanter (1989) suggests three broad career forms:

- 1 *Bureaucratic careers* conform to traditional definitions of career and are characterised by 'the logic of advancement' and involve 'a sequence of positions in a formally defined hierarchy of other positions' (Kanter, 1989: 509). Such careers typically take place within the confines of a single large organisation, although increasingly, organisational careers are not just about

upward progression, but about being able to meet both the individuals' needs for job variety and interest and the organisation's resourcing requirements.

- 2 *Professional careers* reflect a more complex relationship between the individual and the organisation where status is not conferred by hierarchical position but by reputation or standing in a particular field or profession, based on the accumulation of scarce, socially valued knowledge or skill.
- 3 *Entrepreneurial careers* are defined as those 'in which growth occurs through the creation of new value or new organisational capacity ... the key resource is the capacity to create valued outputs' (Kanter, 1989: 515). Career development is, therefore, associated with project working, transient employment relationships and status conferred not by hierarchical progression but by alternative recognition of achievement (such as the ability to contribute to the strategic aims and objectives of the firm). This reflects the 'new' career forms outlined later (Parker and Inkson, 1999).

Whilst this typology is limited and there are likely multiple forms of career (Cohen and El-Sawad, 2006), it is useful in identifying the 'pressure points' where career forms can vary. Specifically, they differ in respect of what constitutes development, how status is conferred or achieved and the nature of the relationship between the individual and the organisation.

## THE 'DEATH' OF THE CAREER?

As a consequence of organisational and economic restructuring, the traditional notion of career is argued to have become outdated (even if such bureaucratic careers are argued only ever to have existed for a minority) (Arnold, 1997a). For an increasing proportion of the workforce, it is suggested, linear conceptions of the career need either to be revised or discarded as the mutual investment by employer and employee in long-term, stable relationships is no longer appropriate in the context of the broader demands for organisational and labour flexibility. The Association of Graduate Recruiters sum up this perspective:

‘In the new world of work, careers are very different. Gone is the job for life with its planned career structure and company training scheme. Gone is the clear functional identity and progressive rise in income and security. Instead there is a world of customers and clients, adding value, lifelong learning, portfolio careers, self-development and an overwhelming need to stay employable. (1995: 4)

Adamson et al. (1998: 251) go as far as to signal the 'death' of the career and the emergence of 'new deals' in employment, suggesting that: 'pervasive definitions of organisational or managerial careers have long encompassed notions of hierarchical progression ... [but] the flattening of organisational hierarchies has reduced or eliminated entire levels of management and, as such, career paths have become increasingly blurred'. They suggest three fundamental changes in organisational career philosophy:

- 1 The employer–employee relationship is not now conceived as long-term, and thus the future-time orientation of careers now seems less appropriate.
- 2 Whilst career progression may indeed still mean moving between positions over time, it no longer necessarily means hierarchical movement.



IS THE  
CAREER  
DEAD?

### BOX 12.1 UNDERSTAND

#### The shape of careers to come?

The following case is based on an interview conducted as part of a study of early graduate careers. The case highlights a number of characteristics of 'new' careers, including intensive periods of learning and development, the requirement for geographic mobility, the potential for high earnings, the importance of professional networks for career development, periods of both direct and self-employment and the development of a more subjective and values-driven interpretation of career success. In talking of her career-to-date, Rebecca summed up the new career dynamic:

My idea of what a successful career might look like has changed significantly. Previously I thought you just stick your head down and keep working and you'll work your way to the top and now I think, is that a measure of success if it doesn't make you happy? I think success would be having control of my own life and being sufficiently successful and financially independent to do that.

Over her early career, Rebecca had shown considerable willingness to be geographically mobile for career success. Within two years of graduation, she was working as a quality control manager for a food manufacturer in north-east England before moving to another part of the UK to take on a more senior position. When interviewed seven years after graduation, Rebecca was working as a technical manager for another food processing company in the south-west,

earning approximately £60,000 per annum. Shortly after this interview, however, Rebecca left this employer to embark on an MBA to facilitate a career change (which required further relocation) after having become dissatisfied with her current job. Upon completion of her studies, Rebecca started working as a consultant project manager for a utilities company on a fixed-term basis, a job for which Rebecca and her partner moved to South Wales. Her partner, who works as a product manager for an international pharmaceutical company, worked from home when not travelling and had kept the same job despite the couple's mobility. After ten years, however, Rebecca expressed a desire to begin to put down roots. Having set herself up as self-employed to pursue consultancy work, often doing work resulting from networking within her MBA cohort, she was earning the equivalent of £85,000 a year. Asked about how she envisaged her career progressing, Rebecca said:

With this job I've taken the view that I'll work for six months and if I want to go travelling for three months I can ... then I'll come back and do another contract. It's a completely different way of life for me. The MBA has opened my eyes to the possibilities. The other point is in order to do the contracts I've set up my own company, which enables me to potentially do other things as well other than whatever specific contract I'm doing. I feel quite liberated, when you work for yourself you don't do things you don't want to do.

Source: Purcell et al., 2006

- 3 From both the organisational and individual perspectives it is no longer apparent how a logical, ordered and sequential career may actually evolve.

As a result in these changes, 'new' careers are marked by 'numerous transitions between jobs, organizations, or fields of professional activity, as well as a lack of institutionalised and ordered career paths and/or career rules' (Strunk et al., 2004: 1), with greater focus on the external labour market as a means for advancement (Herriot et al., 1994). Under this perspective, careers and career

development are better understood as chaotic systems, characterised by complexity and unpredictability, cyclical rather than linear progression, lateral rather than upward movement and periods of re-skilling. Vaughan and Wilson (1994: 45) suggest, therefore, that for some 'the [career] ladder has unexpectedly turned into a hamster wheel'. The key contrasts between the 'old' and 'new' career are outlined in Table 12.2.

## NEW CAREERS AND THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

This less stable, less predictable career is variously labelled as 'boundaryless' (M. B. Arthur, 1994), 'protean' (Hall, 1996), 'free-form' (Leach and Chakiris, 1988), 'entrepreneurial' (Kanter, 1989), 'multi-directional' (Baruch, 2004) or 'post-corporate' (Peiperl and Baruch, 1997) (see Box 12.2 for an overview of these conceptions). Whilst each of these labels refers to subtly different models of the new career, they are underpinned by the assumption that the links between organisations and individuals have become weakened, less structured and more temporary (Brousseau et al., 1996).

TABLE 12.2 The 'old' and 'new' career compared

	'Old' career	'New' career
<b>Form</b>	Structured, linear, continuous, predictable	Unstructured, discontinuity, cyclical, unpredictable
<b>Career success</b>	Objective and externally defined	Subjective
<b>Function</b>	Organisational need	Individual need
<b>Principal concern</b>	Career progression	Personal development, growth and lifelong learning
<b>Measure of Achievement</b>	Hierarchical progression and accumulation of status, power and authority	'Psychological success' (Mirvis and Hall, 1994), 'Self-fulfilment' (Hall, 1996)
<b>Objective</b>	Job security through loyalty	Employment security through employability
<b>Context</b>	Bureaucracy, organisationally-bound	Network, boundaryless
<b>Focus</b>	Work	Work-life balance
<b>Constituencies</b>	Jobs and job titles	Competencies, skills, assignments and projects
<b>Nature of psychological contract</b>	Relational 'Service rewarded with salary increments, security both in employment and retirement and career opportunities' (McGovern et al., 1996: 81)	Transactional 'Exchange [of] performance for continuous learning and marketability' (Sullivan, 1999: 458)
<b>Timeframe</b>	Long-term	Short-term
<b>Control</b>	Organisational	Individual
<b>Orientation</b>	Future	Present

## BOX 12.2 RESEARCH INSIGHT

### Conceptions of the 'new' career

- Boundaryless careers (M. B. Arthur, 1994)

Characterised by three themes that can be contrasted with traditional careers: complex mobility patterns; required strategies and competencies of 'knowing-why' (identity), 'knowing-how' (marketability) and 'know-whom' (networks of influence and information); and a high degree of self-responsibility and self-reliance, including the pursuit of personally 'meaningful values'.

- Protean career (Hall, 1996)

Focused on careers as managed by the individual rather than the organisation, and guided by the search for self-fulfillment. As such careers are proactively self-directed, requiring individuals to be flexible, adaptable and versatile (Hall, 2002). The protean career can be understood as a set of attitudes, orientation or approaches to career that is values-driven, in relation to 'whole life space', rather than about the 'structure' of the career and the degree of mobility required for achievement.

- Multi-directional careers (Baruch, 2004)

Careers that are driven by individual choice and self-determination where career decisions are taken on the basis of personal development and the achievement of subjectively defined 'success'. Such careers 'take into account the full scale of [career] landscapes. You can choose. You can climb the mountain, you can opt for another mountain, take some hills instead, wander along the plains – a variety of options is accepted. You navigate your own career, creating a new path when and where you feel it is right, you select whichever direction you wish to pursue and feel capable in reaching personal development. Moreover, you define your success' (Baruch, 2004: 61).

- Freeform careers (Leach and Chakiris, 1988)

Free-form careers include work for pay (such as permanent or temporary part-time jobs, consulting, entrepreneurial activity) or unpaid work.

- Post-corporate careers (Peiperl and Baruch, 1997)

Model of career that reflects the multiple options and direction of career moves that people can opt for, as opposed to options offered to an employee by their employer. This model stresses the importance of individual career navigation and the demise of clear and stable career systems.

Under this analysis, rather than provide long-term employment, organisations provide opportunities to develop transferable skills to help people become more employable rather than relying on the organisations to provide development and advancement opportunities. Subsequently, McGovern et al. (1996: 81) suggest that a shift towards new deals in employment has meant the abandonment of the 'traditional' psychological contract of a 'long-term moral commitment to serve in organisational interests in exchange for rewards of a prospective kind', at the core of which is the 'understanding that service will be rewarded with salary increments, security both in employment and retirement and career opportunities'. This has been replaced by a new contract where workers 'exchange performance for continuous learning and marketability' (Sullivan, 1999: 458) and, rather than *career* development, the focus of the employment relationship is on *personal* development (Ball and Jordan, 1997).



**Further online reading** This article provides a comprehensive dissection of the boundaryless career concept, both conceptually and operationally, and suggests that it fails to provide a comprehensive account of the complexity of contemporary careers. The article also addresses the lack of empirical evidence in support of the boundaryless career in reality.

suggesting that data on job stability do not support the assumption of the collapse of the traditional career.

Rodrigues, R. A. and Guest, D. (2010) Have careers become boundaryless? *Human Relations*, 63 (8): 1157–75.

## ARE TRADITIONAL CAREERS REALLY DEAD?

The extent of the demise of the 'old' and the proliferation of the 'new' career concept is strongly contested. Whilst careers are becoming less predictable and their boundaries more permeable, the dramatic changes described by some commentators are likely to have been overstated (Kidd, 2002) and Baruch (2006) argues against portraying the current state of careers as 'all change'. Strunk et al. (2004) suggest that although most of these 'new' career concepts appear valid and sound, empirical support for the 'complexity hypothesis' is still rather scarce, with most research based on case studies, interviews and anecdotes which are limited in the extent to which they can support greater incidence of these new careers. Similarly, Inkson et al. (2012: 329) suggest that whilst the 'boundaryless career' is best understood as an 'ideal-type' it is often treated as an 'empirical phenomenon' despite limited evidence to support claims of its increasing pervasiveness. For instance, Pringle and Mallon (2003) suggest that boundaryless career theory is applicable only to a minority of workers, particularly professionals, and both Zaleska and de Menezes (2007) and Donnelly (2008) report continued access to traditional careers across a diverse sample of employers. Inkson et al. (2012) and Lazarova and Taylor (2009) argue that there exists relatively little empirical evidence to support assertions that boundaryless careers now predominate. Rodrigues and Guest (2010) suggest that far from being boundaryless, contemporary careers remain bounded albeit in potentially more complex ways, for example, by occupation, geography, employment contract and family, if not organisation.

**Further online reading** This article takes as a starting point the assumption that notions of boundaryless careers now represent the 'status quo' in analysis of modern careers. The authors then evaluate the contribution of the concept to the study of careers and critique, including the lack of empirical support for the claimed dominance of boundaryless careers, and offer new directions for theory and research.

Inkson, K., Gunz, H., Ganesh, S. and Roper, J. (2012) Boundaryless careers: Bringing back boundaries, *Organization Studies*, 33 (3): 323–40.

Moreover, there is evidence to suggest that traditional career attitudes among workers still prevail, despite the positive rhetoric of the new career of self-determination and freedom. Guest and Conway (2002) found that most employees expect to stay with their employer for the next five years and to be promoted during that time. King (2003: 17) reports in a study of attitudes to careers that recent graduates appear to 'pay lip service to the idea of the new career but nonetheless expect to progress in a more conventional manner' and concerns about their employability have as much to do with progression within their current firm as beyond it. King also reports, however, that the evidence indicates that only a minority of graduates now have access to a traditional career (either in the professions or in a large blue-chip employer), and most will be expected to take responsibility for planning and

managing their careers and focusing on employability as a source of security. King (2004: 9) suggests, therefore, that workers (typically younger and higher-skilled workers) have 'internalised messages about the decline of traditional careers by favouring jobs that offer "employability" rather than career progression'.

Some studies do, however, give credence to certain aspects of the new career dynamic. In a study of US MBA students and graduates, Anakwe et al. (2000) found that the acquisition and utilisation of skills that foster self-management, interpersonal management and environmental learning were likely to enhance career management. Strunk et al. (2004) found that, compared to a graduating cohort from 1970, the careers of a small sample of business studies graduates who started their professional careers in the 1990s were notably more complex. Heckscher (1995) found some change in personal orientation towards careers, reporting that managers increasingly viewed their loyalty as task-focused and temporary, based on professional challenge rather than a long-term commitment to organisations. Similarly, Wilson and Davies (1999) report that managers are adjusting to the changing psychological contract by adopting career strategies that have the purpose of maintaining a particular lifestyle, rather than ensuring the survival of a specific form of career.



**Further online reading** This article outlines a number of strands in career research and in doing so highlights many of the changes and drivers of change associated with contemporary careers.

Arthur, M. B. (2008) Examining contemporary careers: A call for interdisciplinary inquiry, *Human Relations*, 61 (2): 163–86.

## THE INDIVIDUAL AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Drawing upon the perspectives outlined above, career development can be understood as the proactive choices made by people both about the kind of work they do and how they develop skills, knowledge and attributes through a sequence of work and work-related experiences to ensure continued employability.

Individual approaches to and expectations of career development are highly diverse. For example, career priorities and goals are determined by a range of influences including gender, age, family circumstances, previous employment experience, financial commitments and lifestyle choices. Some people may prioritise job security and stability whilst others might focus on achieving high financial reward and status. Some might prioritise doing socially useful work (for example, working in health or social care or for an 'ethical' company). In a survey of graduate careers, Purcell et al. (2006) found that whilst over half of both male and female respondents claimed that interesting and challenging work were the most important characteristics of their jobs, a greater proportion of men reported high financial reward and opportunities to reach managerial level as being the most important aspect. In contrast, women were more likely to value job security, continual skills development and doing socially useful work. Career priorities and goals are shaped by a range of internal and external factors and are likely to be subject to change according to both current circumstance and future life plans. For example, the influence of changing family situation on career is profound for both men and women (Wilton and Purcell, 2010). Employers therefore need to understand that the increasing diversity found in the labour supply is accompanied by greater diversity of career expectations and aspirations.

## The importance of career self-management

Regardless of the extent to which the new career concept is accepted, the implication of labour market change is that careers are becoming more complex and uncertain. As a consequence, workers are required to become more self-reliant in managing their careers, self-reflective about motives and capacities (Kuijpers and Scheerens, 2006), to assume ownership of career development and to acquire and develop a demonstrable set of portable skills and knowledge which fosters adaptability in any environment (Hall, 1996; Harvey et al., 1997; Nabi and Bagley, 1998; Sullivan, 1999; Anakwe et al., 2000; O'Connell et al., 2008). The promotion of lifelong learning and continuing professional development has become of central importance both for organisations to ensure sustained competitive advantage and for individuals to develop the capability to gain and maintain employment and obtain new employment if required. This requires that employees accept individual responsibility for determining their own learning needs and for articulating and satisfying those needs in concert with the performance requirements of the firm. Arnold (1997b: 457) suggests that effective career self-management requires the individual to 'be able to adopt many different perspectives, to deal with contradiction, to accumulate diverse experience, to distinguish between knowing about and knowing how to do something, to tolerate uncertainty and to process information heuristically'. In respect of the boundaryless career, the required strategies and competencies for 'success' are summarised as *knowing-why* (one's sense of personal identity and motives), *knowing-how* (one's human capital and, therefore, marketability) and, *knowing-whom* (one's networks of influence and information) (M. B. Arthur, 1994).

Similarly, for effective career self-management, Stewart and Knowles (1999) emphasise 'the continuous construction and maintenance of a healthy self-concept, congruent with individuals' changing strengths and weaknesses, shifting beliefs and attitudes and future aspirations' (Adamson et al., 1998: 257). This self-concept reflects a person's career anchor: the stabilising and driving force of a person's career which is manifest in the values, motives and needs that a person prioritises above all others. Schein (1990) identifies eight career anchors: security/stability; autonomy/independence; (specific) technical-functional competence; general managerial competence; entrepreneurial creativity; service or dedication to a cause; pure challenge; and lifestyle. Of course, some of these anchors are 'threatened' as a result of career change. For example, careers focused on the possession of technical-functional competence (specific ability or skill) are potentially problematic given the rapid obsolescence of skills and knowledge in the changing world of work, requiring the continual updating of such competence. Schein (1996) argues that those who favour security and stability are facing the most severe problems, whilst those anchored in autonomy are likely to find this new world easier to navigate and cope with.

## The implications of 'new deals' in employment

It is perhaps easy to see how the notion of new careers fits with the grand narrative of the growth of more chaotic economic conditions that require of workers a more dynamic entrepreneurial spirit and a commitment to lifelong learning and self-development. An optimistic perspective suggests that 'organisationally bounded' careers promote an unhealthy reliance on firms and that the new career form has the potential to liberate the individual from such dependency. For example, Mallon and Cohen (2001) found in a study of women's transitions from organisational careers to self-employment that the majority had made this shift as a result

### BOX 12.3 UNDERSTAND

#### Competencies required for effective career self-management

- Optimising the situation
  - creating the circumstances to support career advancement
  - setting broad career objectives
  - anticipating future changes in labour markets, organisations and one's life
  - ensuring the ability to respond to change
  - identifying and utilising opportunities for development
  - developing networks of contacts to provide assistance and guidance when needed.
- Career planning
  - learning how to continually review one's skills and assess future learning requirements.
- Personal development
  - recognising the needs for lifelong learning
  - taking opportunities for development as they arise
  - identifying learning needs and making plans to meet them
  - being self-aware about one's skills and competencies.
- Striking a balance between work and non-work

Source: adapted from B. Ball (1997) Career management competencies: The individual perspective, *Career Development International*, 2: 74–9 © Emerald Group Publishing Limited all rights reserved. Reprinted with permission

of dissatisfaction and disillusionment with their employer. As such, optimists suggest that the ultimate upshot of the economic transformation associated with a knowledge economy will create a win-win situation for employers and employees and an economy increasingly made up of 'free workers' who are 'demanding, mobile and self-reliant, high on human capital and low on loyalty' (Thompson, 2004: 9). As such, the new career currency of adaptability, employability and marketability can be seen to trump traditional labour market disadvantage (such as gender, ethnicity or disability) and lead to the achievement of employment (rather than job) security, the acquisition of satisfying and well-rewarded work and, overall, an equalisation of life chances (Wilton, 2012).

However, as discussed in Chapter 4, a more realistic perspective on the impact of economic and organisational restructuring suggests that whilst it can have positive implications for some workers, for others it is likely to undermine job security and stability through a weakening of employers' commitment to their employees. In contrast to those assessments that stress the unequivocally positive impact of new career forms, the movement to new modes of working can often reflect a trade-off between the benefits of the old and the new. In a study of professionals and managerial workers who had moved from organisational to portfolio working, Cohen and Mallon (1999: 347) reported that this transition was accompanied by a series of 'tangible losses', like salary, pension and access to training opportunities, but also a number of 'abstract gains' such as (work-life) balance, autonomy and integrity. Overall, however, reduced employer responsibility for career management can be seen as part of the transference of the risk (Grote and Raeder, 2009), rather than the real empowerment of workers to take control of their own careers.

Child and McGrath (2001) suggest that one of the great unknowns of changes in organisational form is their effect on the employment relationship and that whilst the possibility for personal empowerment may be enhanced among some talented (and fortunate) individuals the impact is likely to be negative

for others who have to live with perpetual insecurity. Indeed, the employer side of the 'new deal' in employment is likely to vary according to different sections of the workforce reflecting the relative worth of the employee to the firm. Torrington et al. (2008) suggest that three groups of workers are discernible according to the level of support for career development they are likely to receive from employers:

- 1 *Senior managers and 'high potential' staff* – careers at this level are managed by the organisation, not always for life, but with succession planning to fill senior positions.
- 2 *Highly-skilled workers* – attempts are made to attract and retain key workers by offering career development paths.
- 3 *The wider workforce* – more limited development opportunities are evident, often caused by and resulting in uncertainty over career paths; there is an expectation that these workers should look after themselves.

A number of studies have reported considerable rhetoric from employers promoting individual employability and career self-management. However, this is often shown to take place alongside the erosion of job security, substantially altered career structures and little or no practical measures to support and facilitate self-development (McGovern et al., 1998; Wilson and Davies, 1999; Atkinson, 2002; Grimshaw et al., 2002). On this evidence, reduced employer responsibility for career management can be seen as part of the transference onto the employee of the risk associated with restructuring, downsizing and the need for flexibility (Grote and Raeder, 2009), rather than the real empowerment of workers to take control of their own careers. Prevalent short-termism among senior managers in many firms has also led to career management often being viewed as a cost rather than an investment. CIPD (2003b) found that whilst the majority of HR professionals surveyed showed a desire to improve career management for all employees, very few reported a career strategy for these employees (most effort was focused on elite groups) and only a third felt that senior managers were firmly committed to career management activities. Similarly, Baruch and Peiperl (2000) found little recognition of the post-corporate career in a study of UK career management practices or a need to develop practices to manage such careers, despite the trend towards the declining relevance of organisational careers for many workers.

Paradoxically, recent labour market change and economic and organisational restructuring have arguably made career management even more important for employers (Hite and MacDonald, 2008). For example, effective career management represents an important means by which to minimise the loss of valuable skills and knowledge and as an effective means by which to cope with both expected and unexpected change.

## ORGANISATIONS AND CAREER MANAGEMENT

'Career management' is the umbrella term used to refer to management practices, policies and initiatives that are employed either to intervene directly in the career development of employees or support individuals in progressing their own careers. The distinction between direct intervention in the management of careers and the provision of support for self-development is important as, commensurate with the supposed shift from old to new careers, there is also an argument that firms are changing their career proposition away from one of career management to one of career facilitation.

## BOX 12.4 HRM IN PRACTICE

### Career management at Michelin plc

In April 2012 *People Management* magazine (Stevens, 2012) reported on Michelin's 'paternalistic' approach to career management that actively manages the long-term career paths of employees – an approach at odds with much of the rhetoric of the 'new' career and pervasive career self-reliance.

Michelin is a global corporation employing approximately 115,000 employees across a number of business areas, most famously, the manufacturing of tyres. The people management philosophy at Michelin is outlined in the following statement by Jean Michel-Guillon, corporate vice president for personnel:

The personal qualities of every individual interest us because we take a long-term view. We are looking for people with personality and human potential, and rarely for a particular skill to fill a particular post. All employees, regardless of position, know they can count on their career manager to help them to develop themselves and advance in their careers.

This approach to career management is pervasive across its multinational operations. For instance, the North American Michelin website states that:

'At Michelin you'll have the opportunity to let your talents and interests guide your career. Opportunities are not limited by formal education. There are plenty of opportunities to receive professional enrichment, education and training at Michelin.'

Supported by a range of technical and professional training programmes, the company promote a range of HR initiatives to enable employee career development and progression, including a focus on open and transparent internal promotion through middle management, the

appointment of dedicated 'career managers' for those in middle and senior management positions and the active support of line managers for long-term career planning. Career management activities are also clearly embedded within performance management processes. All employees are encouraged to establish clear career objectives, to have regular and ongoing dialogue with their manager about career interests and receive regular feedback on their performance mindful of these interests.

In all, career management at Michelin appears to reflect the 'career partnership' approach advocated by Hirsh and Jackson (2004) with responsibility for personal and career development being shared between the employee, their line manager and corporate career managers. The responsibilities of each which were set out by Michel-Guillon have been quoted in brief below:

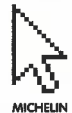
- **The employee:** '*...we like to represent career management as a triangle to underline the complementary roles of the employee, the immediate superior and the career manager.*'
- **Line manager:** '*...to assist team members in performing their current mission by setting targets, providing support in attaining them, assessing performance, designing training itineraries and promoting career development.*'
- **Career manager:** '*The career manager takes a broader, more long-term view and looks at both company needs and the prospects for people development.*'

This approach to career results in low levels of labour turnover and with employees often remaining at the firm for the duration of their careers (Stevens 2012). These practices accord with the principles of a strong internal labour market discussed in Chapter Four. That is, Michelin actively encourages internal promotion, seeks to balance individual and organisational priorities and

interests and enables advancement through the provision of training and development opportunities. Moreover, low levels of labour turnover at the firm would suggest that the Michelin limits new employee entry to particular points in the organisational structure. Overall, Michelin clearly places itself in a strong position to yield the employee

relations benefits of such a labour market: high levels of employee commitment, engagement and performance.

Source: Stevens (2012); [www.michelin.com/corporate/EN/careers/work-at-michelin](http://www.michelin.com/corporate/EN/careers/work-at-michelin); <http://careers.michelin-us.com/you/career-dev/>



Traditionally, career management has fulfilled a number of important functions in work organisations. It has an economic utility as a means of ensuring the optimal deployment of appropriately skilled and motivated labour, ensuring that the most able employees are positioned where they are needed. Career management can promote organisational knowledge-sharing, create greater organisational adaptability and contribute to employee engagement and commitment. Effective career management can also help to reconcile individual and organisational objectives and aspirations, for example by promoting the development of transferable skills and abilities and by supporting employees' fulfilment of their non-work obligations, so ensuring they are productive whilst at work. It also has a socio-cultural utility as a means of transmitting corporate culture through socialisation and promoting shared norms. However, whilst organisations view careers and career management in terms of such organisational advantage, employees view careers through 'the lens of personal advantage, and consider how those careers may provide opportunities to optimize earnings, status, personal development and family life, both immediately and in the long term' (Inkson and King, 2010: 38). Therefore careers, and who takes responsibility for their development, represent one dimension of the 'contested terrain' of the employment relationship (Edwards, 1979, in Inkson and King, 2010).

**Further online reading** This article explores the differing interests in careers and career management held by workers and organisations and how the 'new career studies' provides a fresh perspective where both individual and organisational perspectives are valid. The authors propose that a model based on the psychological contract provides an opportunity to further bring together different perspectives on careers.

Inkson, K. and King, Z. (2010) Contested terrain in careers: A psychological contract model, *Human Relations*, 64 (1): 37–57.

### Models of career management

Hirsh and Jackson (2004) distinguish between three models of organisational career management. The first is *supported self-development*, where employees take primary responsibility for their own career but there is extensive support provided by the employer, mostly in the form of information and advice. Second is *corporate career management*, which reflects a career 'deal' that is more greatly driven by the organisation. Such an approach is

characteristic of development programmes for senior managers, high-flyers or high-potential employees whose career development is more actively planned by the organisation through planned job moves and succession planning (for example, graduate training schemes). Finally, Hirsh and Jackson identify the best practice notion of *career partnership*, where the individual and organisation take equal responsibility for careers in order to meet the needs of both parties. This approach differs from supported self-development in that rather than simply providing employees with guidance, the intentions of both parties are explicitly discussed and agreed. Moreover, the career 'deal' is formally coordinated by some 'agent' of the organisation (one person or group of people) and the organisation shares responsibility for the implementation of the career plan by, for example, supporting access to work experience and job moves.

As suggested previously, however, the approach of many large organisations is likely to be segmented, with only key groups having access to corporately managed careers whilst most employees are expected to manage their own careers with or without organisational support. Subsequently, career interventions need to take greater account of the *processes* involved in career decision-making, rather than just the *outcomes* (Arnold, 1997b). In other words, for career self-development to be effective it must be enabled by the firm. King (2004) suggests that there are a number of underlying principles that characterise effective career management (Box 12.5).

## HRM AND CAREER MANAGEMENT INTERVENTIONS

King (2004: 45) stresses that career management is 'a critical challenge for HR professionals in the twenty-first century ... it is essential for developing and sustaining organisations in the long-term and for giving each individual within the organisation a meaningful focus for the future'. King (2004) suggests that effective career management represents a confluence of the needs of the individual and the organisation, drawing on the past experiences, present priorities and future intentions and projections of both parties.

Career management itself is not necessarily a distinct HRM activity, rather a range of activities involving several core HR processes, which ideally should be integrated with both one another and the wider corporate strategy (Baruch, 2003). However, CIPD (2003b) report that career management activities are seldom integrated into a coherent strategy or clearly linked to business strategy or organisational objectives. They found a tendency to focus on particular aspects of career management rather than provide coverage of all areas, which may detract from the inclusivity and flexibility of career management provision and fail to meet the needs of all employees. Just as the notion of career management can refer to either active corporate involvement in the careers of employees or more 'hands-off' support for self-development, so career management interventions range from simply employee notification of internal job opportunities to highly-structured, prolonged programmes of employee development to facilitate or leading to promotion (such as graduate training schemes).

In the first instance, effective career management should be concerned with defining, and communicating to all employees, career development strategies and processes that satisfy organisational requirements. The main roles of HRM in career management include management of the internal labour market, providing the organisational infrastructure by which the best

equipped individuals are matched with the most appropriate roles, the provision of careers advice and counselling and active involvement in facilitating the provision of development assignments to appropriate employees (such as providing secondments and job shadowing).

Career management is clearly related to a number of other HR processes and practices such as performance management and appraisals – as a principal means by which career intentions and ambitions are discussed between line managers and employees – and training and development – as the means by which individual employability is developed. It is important therefore that career management is not conceived as a stand-alone issue and is integrated with these processes. Moreover, HRM should provide a support function for line managers charged with carrying out performance appraisals and individual goal setting.

As above, career development initiatives can be divided into a number of categories. For instance, CIPD (2003b) divide career management activities into five distinct 'clusters': those concerned with basic career planning and support; those that provide career information and advice; those that create and support a strong internal job market; development assignments and secondments; and, initiatives aimed at specific organisational populations. Figure 12.1 divides career management activities into four broad categories based, firstly, on the extent to which they are aimed at specific groups within an organisation (for instance, managers, graduate recruits or employees of high potential – see Box 12.6) or available to all employees and, secondly, whether they perform a supportive role or are more interventionist and directive (for instance, they aim to prepare individuals for specific roles rather than broad advancement or develop among them specific skills). The notions of inclusive and exclusive talent management also sit within this framework of career management activities understood both in terms of intended recipients and degree of intervention. As outlined in more detail below, 'inclusive' talent management refers to approaches to identifying and developing talent throughout the organisation through a range of formal and informal means. Exclusive talent management focuses development activity very directly on specific individuals and/or groups that are deemed to present core talent (often senior managers or those in possession of valuable skills).

### BOX 12.5 UNDERSTAND

#### Principles of effective career management

- *Consistency* – where all those involved in employee career management (including HR professionals and line managers) present a coherent and consistent picture of the organisation's career strategy.
- *Pro-activity* – career management should be concerned both with maintaining current capabilities and ensuring future flexibility

- by anticipating the future direction of the organisation.
- *Collaboration* – effective career management is based on partnership between the employer and the employee.
- *Dynamism* – career management should be flexible enough to respond to changing organisational and individual circumstances and needs.

Source: King, 2004



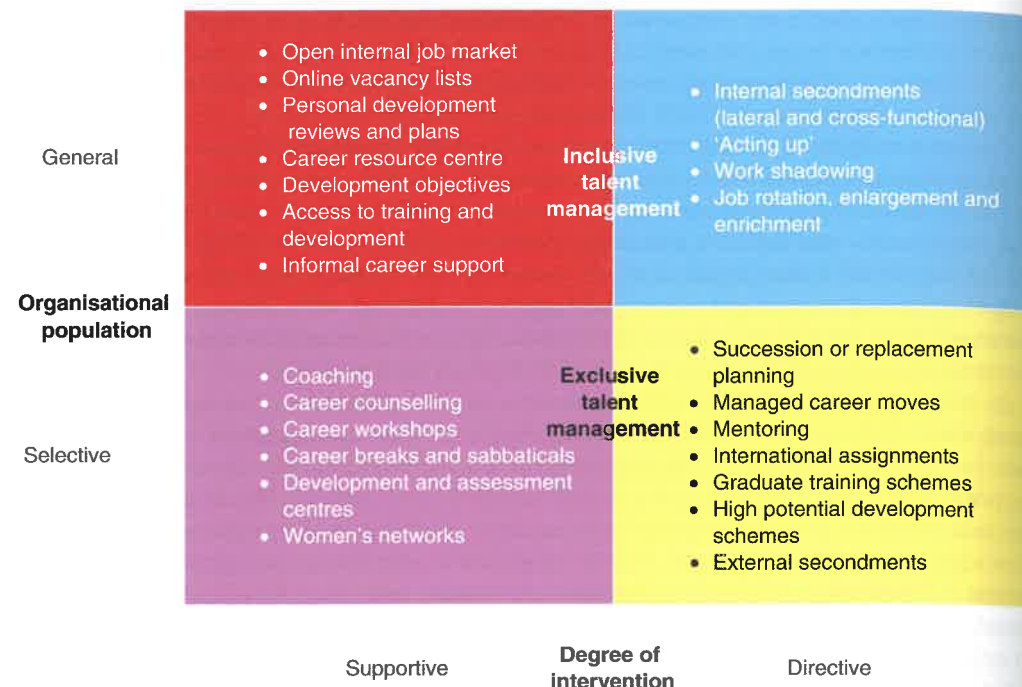


FIGURE 12.1 Career management interventions

Supportive mechanisms often available to all employees in larger organisations typically focus on those that form part of wider performance management processes, such as personal development plans and objectives, those that seek to create strong internal labour markets through, for instance, the promotion of job opportunities to encourage internal applicants and those that provide the infrastructure to support employee self-development, such as guidance, advice and resources to aid career planning and decision-making. The creation of a strong internal labour market through raising awareness among current employees of vacancies and development and promotion opportunities, and encouraging internal applicants, supported by performance management practices which seek to align individuals' development goals with the future business needs of the organisation, both stresses individual self-reliance and encourages proactivity in seeking out opportunities, but also has the effect of widening the talent pool, fostering a culture of openness and overcoming potentially unfair, informal practices for internal promotion. Both King (2004) and Hirsh and Jackson (2004) stress that for internal job markets to operate effectively, especially in flatter organisational structures where the 'learning gap' between hierarchical levels is likely to be significant, firms must ensure that developmental opportunities exist for employees with potential. Of course, these types of mechanism also apply and may be specifically tailored to specific organisational groups, but may be supplemented by those interventions that are more labour- or cost-intensive, such as one-to-one coaching or career counselling. These supportive initiatives for specific groups also include those that seek to correct historic patterns of unequal opportunities for career progression within the firm, such as women-only networks and training interventions.

More directive initiatives that may be widely available to all employees might include internal secondments or developments in job design that either seek to prepare individuals for advancement or lateral job moves or simply offer opportunities to develop and exercise a wider set of skills. Secondments, development

## BOX 12.6 HRM IN PRACTICE

### Career management for specific groups

As firms increasingly look to ensure cost efficiency of organisational investment in career management practice and to ensure the effective targeting of resources, it is likely to be of benefit to modify practice according to distinct employee groups. These groups might include:

- *Employees of specific value or talent* – with a focus on employee retention and motivation, firms are likely to feel compelled to offer formal, structured career management 'with purpose' for employees who already represent a significant source of value to the firm. This purpose is likely to be to demonstrate on-going development and preparation for future advancement.
- *High potential staff* – for employees of high potential who the employer wishes to 'lock in' to the firm (for example, graduate recruits), the focus is likely to be on ensuring the demonstration of organisational commitment to their development by offering a long-term stake in the firm through continuous development.
- *Highly skilled workers* – as above, a critical concern for career management of high-skilled workers is retention and, in following research in the area of knowledge workers, this is likely to be best achieved by responding to individual need in job design, career development and personal fulfilment. An additional concern is managing the 'career value proposition' to ensure the firm is attractive to potential recruits.

- *Under-represented groups* – for groups of employees who are felt to be under-represented, for example, in more senior posts, and where firms wish to increase the diversity of their workforce, organisations can adopt either individual or collective career management initiatives to promote career development among such groups (for instance, women, those from minority ethnic backgrounds or those with disabilities). Collective mechanisms involve developing both formal (such as women-only training courses) and informal (such as the cultivation of organisational networks) to remedy perceived disadvantage. Individual initiatives might include specific targeted mentoring or coaching schemes. Where such initiatives are not in place and an emphasis is placed on career self-management minority groups can be disadvantaged because of their exclusion from existing networks (Hirsh and Jackson, 2004).
- *Non-core/contingent workers* – as internal labour markets become more atomised, firms might seek to develop means by which they might intervene with employees who are considered non-standard in respect of employment contract. For instance, firms might seek means by which to identify temporary or indirectly employed staff with value-adding potential and offer means by which to bring these 'peripheral' workers into the organisational 'core'. Again, this might be done on an individual or a collective basis and might involve incorporating such workers into the internal labour market or offering specific advice and support.

assignments and work-shadowing can expose workers to new challenges, prepare them for promotion, increase job satisfaction through greater job variety, help employees to develop valuable skills and promote knowledge-sharing and greater understanding of the work of others in the organisation. More interventionist and directive initiatives for specific organisational populations are those that seek to prepare these groups or individuals within them for specific roles or particular types of work (such as overseas assignments). Graduate development programmes are one such example of career management interventions that seek to develop recruits of high potential and prepare them for future progression in the firm (see Box 12.7). Often characteristic of large organisations,

succession or replacement planning focuses on providing long-term development plans for individuals identified as possible successors for senior managerial posts. This requires the identification of high potential individuals early in their careers and providing opportunities and experience that prepare them for specific 'once in a generation' appointments and to mitigate the impact of the loss of employees holding key positions in the firm.

## TALENT MANAGEMENT

The increasing importance of knowledge to firm performance and the high mobility of talented people have resulted in many firms adopting initiatives for 'talent management' (IDS, 2008a). Talent management represents 'a comprehensive and integrated set of activities to ensure that the organisation attracts, retains, motivates and develops the talented people it needs now and in the future' (Baron and Armstrong, 2007: 101). Influenced by the resource-based view of the firm outlined in Chapter 3 and the importance of internal resources,

### BOX 12.7 HRM IN PRACTICE

#### Graduate training programmes

- Jaguar Land Rover

The Jaguar Land Rover two-year graduate programme offers a 'personal development plan that will be specifically tailored to you, your role and the things you want to achieve' and 'give you the right blend of technical expertise and carefully planned personal development from the start'. In all graduate pathways – from engineering and design to finance, IT or purchasing – employees are supported to achieve professional qualifications with the relevant professional body (where appropriate). (<http://www.jaguarlandrovercareers.com/jlr-roles/future-talent/graduate/>, accessed on 5 October 2015.)

- Deloitte

Whatever business area graduate recruits work in (from audit, consulting, corporate finance to risk consulting), they 'will spend around 3 years working towards a professional qualification, and will gain a mixture of client exposure, challenging projects, and extensive training that will develop you into a fully qualified professional'. Deloitte stress the importance of both ongoing support for employee development ('using

everything from coaching and mentoring through to e-learning and performance management') and on-going learning (through 'regular feedback, structured mentoring and a whole host of courses, e-learning and workshops that will enable you to accelerate your all-round performance'). (<http://www2.deloitte.com/uk/en/misc/litetopicpage.MF-UK-Tags.graduate-scheme.html>, accessed on 5 October 2015.)

- HP

HP stress that their graduate schemes 'put you in control of your career' where the recruit is 'the driving force of your development', as well as a focus on both 'soft' and technical skills, with 'a heavy emphasis on "on the job" learning, as well as formal instruction'. As such the firm encourages recruits to make the most of the 'hands-on experience you'll get on job rotations and cross-functional team project' supported by the provision of 'coaching, mentoring and face-to-face, virtual and interactive training programmes' and 'attendance at conferences, seminars, and training at accredited institutions that would be beneficial for [the] role'. (<http://www8.hp.com/uk/en/campaign/graduate/graduate-programmes.html>, accessed on 5 October 2015.)

such as its human capital, to competitive advantage (Sheehan, 2012), the term 'talent management' is used to describe a combination of succession planning and high potential development activities, whilst the term 'talent pipeline' is used to convey the need for talented people at different career stages, often starting with graduate recruitment (Hirsh and Jackson, 2004). The terms on which an individual is granted access to a 'talent pool' or 'pipeline' can differ from organisation to organisation (see Box 12.8). Therefore, whilst, talent management can be 'exclusive', that is, narrowly focused on key senior or strategically important positions and individuals within a firm (to create a single pool of talent), often talent management can be more 'inclusive' and concerned with creating a pipeline or pool of talented people at all levels of a firm through ensuring that workforce development is accessible to all those of potential, regardless of level or role, creating multiple talent pools. Table 12.3 outlines the advantages and disadvantages of each approach.

King (2004) suggests that the existence of highly managed 'fast-track' or 'high-flier' programmes alongside an explicit organisational message to all other employees of self-development might have de-motivating and alienating effects on the majority of the workforce. Subsequently, many organisations adopt hybrid approaches to talent management that bring together aspects of both inclusive and exclusive forms (Tansley et al., 2007).

TABLE 12.3 *Inclusive and exclusive approaches to talent management*

Inclusive approach	
Pros	Cons
Wider employee engagement if entire organisation has access to a talent pool	Learning and development and other resources are spread too thinly
Supports succession planning for all key roles, not just senior management	Increases competition for progression which requires managing
Encourages the development of a more diverse workforce	Individuals with skills core to the business may receive less investment, to the detriment of organisational performance
More opportunity to benefit from all talent in the workforce	
Exclusive approach	
Pros	Cons
Provides an identifiable, strategic resource for succession planning if aimed at future leaders	High potential for reduced engagement and increased turnover among excluded staff
Targets financial and non-financial resources	Less scope to increase diversity
More opportunity to offer individualised development programmes	Reduced development opportunities and resources for those not on talent programme
Easier to track and evaluate benefits and return on investment	If focused on one occupational group or grade, other types of talent may be overlooked



## BOX 12.8 RESEARCH INSIGHT

### Who gets to be 'talent'?

Central to developing and implementing effective talent management practices is adequately defining what constitutes 'talent' in order that it be identified and nurtured. The CIPD (2006d) define talent as 'those individuals who can make a difference to organisational performance, either through their immediate contribution or in the longer term by demonstrating the highest level of potential'. It is important to recognise, however, that, to be effective, a working definition of 'talent' needs to be operational at an organisational level and be able to clearly and objectively identify a specific group of workers so as to target investment on individuals within that group. Tansley (2011) suggests that within organisations talent

can be individually specific, refer to behaviours, skills or knowledge and/or be focused on high performance or high potential. Consequently, the CIPD suggest that talent has been variously defined within organisations as:

- the top-performing 1 per cent of executives
- the top 10 per cent of high performers, whatever their role or level
- executives with potential for board-level appointments together with high-potential individuals who are identified as future leaders
- graduate trainees with potential for top leadership
- each and every employee – a 'total talent pool'.

### Features of effective talent management

Hay Group (2007) stress the importance of adopting a demand perspective on the issue of talent management by stressing the importance of understanding the dynamic internal and external context in which talent is to be deployed in order to ensure a ready supply of individuals with the right skills and attributes to meet these needs now and in the future. As such, the 'management of talent is the fulfilment process to close the gap between demand and supply – ensuring the right number of people of the right quality are ready when the organisation needs them now and in the future' (Hay Group, 2007: 4). As such, a critical aspect of talent management is the reflection of corporate strategy in a firm's talent strategy, albeit in such a way as to be reflexive to changes in strategic objectives and the firm's strategic direction. This process of talent planning then requires firms to define the qualitative and quantitative demand for and supply of talent in order to forecast talent requirements based on the collection of qualitative and quantitative HR information, including the firm's current internal labour supply, anticipated demand and if necessary how and from where required talent can be attracted. Effective talent management inevitably involves a long-term perspective on individual and workforce development and, consequently, needs to be dynamic, flexible and sustainable.

At an operational level, effective talent management requires the communication of a common, organisational understanding of talent, the multiple routes by which talent is identified and selected and transparent processes for doing so. However, in line with this long-term approach, a critical aspect of talent management is the management of expectations regarding the implications of being identified as having potential and the tracking of individual performance and progress alongside the provision of opportunities for development. Therefore, talent management connects a number of areas of HRM, including resourcing, performance management, reward and training, all of which need to be horizontally integrated in order to ensure they are mutually supportive. Cunningham (2007) suggests that

the talent management process can take the approach of aligning people with roles (treating roles as fixed and developing people to fit these jobs) or aligning roles with people (creating and adapting roles to satisfy the aspirations of the most talented).

### Attracting, developing and rewarding talent

Given that even in 'loose' labour market conditions, required talent is likely to be in short supply, firms need to consider how required labour can be sourced externally. As in the discussion of career management, positioning oneself as an employer of choice and presenting to potential employees both a strong brand and employee value proposition (EVP) that is clearly communicated are critical. Once within the firm, critical to the management of talent is ensuring that promises made in the recruitment process are delivered upon and expectations of employment and the talent management process – both for new and existing employees – are fulfilled in order to create a strong psychological contract based on trust and fairness and a coherence between brand identity and employee perception.

Consistent with much of the discussion of HRD interventions thus far in this book, the development of talent requires a clear focus and intent and the careful selection of appropriate mechanisms for learning. The appropriateness of interventions is clearly related to the specific nature of the talent pool and may require a mix of interventions. For instance, structured, individualised and formal development processes, involving some form of external input, might be appropriate for select groups of managers, but are likely to be inappropriate and not cost-effective for the wider workforce in inclusive approaches to talent management. The creation of a coaching culture and forms of on-the-job development are more likely to be appropriate for this wider group.

A critical element in retaining talent is reward and ensuring that organisational reward strategy is both connected to business objectives and enables individual reward packages to meet needs and elicit desired employee behaviours. For instance, for those employees that are high performers *now* and who are making a significant current contribution to organisational performance, offering high pay and clear future opportunities for progression is likely to be unavoidable in order to avoid their loss through clearly communicating their value to the firm. For those employees of future high potential, intrinsic reward – such as job satisfaction – and interesting and challenging work, alongside longer-term incentives and bonuses, might well encourage their on-going contribution and retention over the long term.

**Further online reading** This short article, written from a practical perspective, explores the imperatives for firms to actively develop systems of talent management and the contextual conditions that are driving this 'new significance'. In doing so, it sets out some general principles and dimensions of talent management that firms must consider.

Leisy, B. and Pyron, D. (2009) Talent management takes on new urgency, *Compensation & Benefits Review*, 41 (4): 58–63.

## TALENT MANAGEMENT IN PRACTICE

The CIPD (2012e) suggest that, of those UK employers surveyed, three-fifths of organisations report undertaking talent management activities, most often focused on high-potential employees and senior managers.



## BOX 12.9 RESEARCH INSIGHT

### Creating a 'talent wave'

As discussed elsewhere in this chapter, the notions of talent 'pipelines' and 'pools' are common terms used in reference to organisational approaches to talent management. Clutterbuck (2012: 26) suggests, however, that the former are associated with 'narrow, inflexible paths that can easily get blocked' and the latter suggest 'shallowness and stagnation'. He argues, therefore, that the notion of a 'talent wave' might be a more appropriate concept to adopt for talent management to be successful, given the dynamic relationship between an organisation and its employees. Clutterbuck argues that often talent management adopts a linear, mechanistic approach to filling key roles and that such an approach often fails to recognise some of the best talent and replicates the past, promoting the wrong people based on box-ticking criteria and a backwards-looking perspective on what talent looks like: 'The more HR tries to make talented people fit into standardised talent management and succession planning processes, the more likely it is to fail' (2012: 28).

He argues, therefore, that an approach to talent management based on organisations as complex, adaptive – and, therefore, unpredictable – systems is required, reflecting three 'rules' of how such systems work:

- 1 *Emergent* – the aim of talent management should not be to 'fit employees into a grand plan' but to 'channel their energies and ambitions' and encourage the development of deep

capabilities. In creating such an environment organisations should trust it to 'deliver the right person at the right time, most of the time'.

- 2 *Co-evolutionary* – 'When talented people adjust their ambitions and develop new skills in line with their observations of opportunities, they stimulate change, for the business as well as themselves (if they are allowed to!)' (2012: 28–9).
- 3 *Self-organising* – genuinely talented people find their own ways to respond to opportunities, requiring only information and support to do so. Talent is often invested in networks, not individuals.

Ultimately, Clutterbuck argues that an organisation creates an environment that produces a sufficiently wide and varied talent wave and 'enough motivated, competent and creative people to move into roles when needed' (2012: 29) to fulfil its talent needs now and in the future. He argues that to create such a wave requires alternative ways of creating an alignment between organisation and employee aspirations, allowing employees greater latitude in transforming roles, emphasising opportunities for a much wider range of people, having more honest conversations about career intentions and using social networks to encourage employees to take the initiative and stimulate change. In short, organisations should place less emphasis on simplistic models and frameworks that aim to select and predict leadership talent and a greater focus on the planning of developmental resources and opportunities.

- Only half of organisations with talent management activities rate them as effective and only a very small minority (3 per cent) rate them as very effective.
- Coaching is most commonly rated as one of the most effective talent management activities (49 per cent).
- In-house development programmes, high-potential development schemes, 360-degree feedback and internal secondments are among the most effective methods for a quarter of organisations.

CIPD (2009h) suggest that the war for talent focuses on periods of growth during which required talent is in shorter supply. However, periods of economic downturn present an alternative set of challenges for firms that render talent

management no less important, not least in making it critical that firms retain their focus on required talent in order to ensure they remain well placed in the eventual upturn in market conditions. CIPD (2009h), however, report a variety of responses from employers in the current period of limited economic growth. Among what they characterize as 'negative' responses, firms reported cutting learning and development budgets, a re-examination of systems amid pressure to get more 'value' from budgets by 'doing things differently' and less use of external providers and recruiters. More 'positive' responses include a shift in focus to retention, maintenance of investment in view of a longer-term perspective and more creativity in targeting and developing talent.

As discussed in Chapter 7, the evaluation of HRD activities is an important, yet often neglected, aspect of HRD in practice. The effectiveness of both career and talent management rests on a number of key 'success criteria': they are appropriate to the organisational, and workforce, context; they are dynamic and responsive to change; they are sufficiently flexible to accommodate workforce diversity; there exists a mutuality and consensus on their operation and rationale; and there exists a clear connection between individual and organisational need, available resources and wider internal and external context. The CIPD (2012e) report that the most common ways to evaluate talent management activities are through: feedback from employees involved in talent management initiatives (41 per cent of organisations) or from line managers (40 per cent); retention of those identified as 'high potential' (35 per cent); and anecdotal observation of change (35 per cent). Only just over a quarter of organisations (28 per cent) employed a formal annual evaluation process for talent management at an organisational level.

**Further online reading** Stressing the increasing importance of global talent management, this article outlines the challenges of managing talent in MNCs and presents a series of key roles for HRD to play in overcoming these challenges as well as a framework for global TM, from an HRD perspective.

Kim, S. and McLean, G. (2012) Global talent management: Necessity, challenges and the roles of HRD, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 14 (4): 566–85.

### Evaluating career management interventions

One specific problem in promoting the benefits of long-term strategic career management is in evaluating and demonstrating its effectiveness, partly because different stakeholders are likely to have different perspectives on its relative 'success'. For example, the individual employee might measure career success according to a subjective assessment of their achievements based on relative reward, hierarchical position or afforded lifestyle. Senior managers are likely to draw on a range of indicators, such as the retention of key staff, strong flow of internal candidates for vacancies or the perceived impact on firm performance. HR professionals might evaluate effectiveness according to the internal consistency with wider HR systems and practices.

Moreover, the evaluation of career management interventions is difficult because of problems in isolating the impact of specific activities on both individual progression and on the achievement of organisational objectives. Regardless of these problems, however, the monitoring and evaluation of career management activities is important to ensure that they are meeting the needs of all groups who could potentially benefit, whilst bearing in mind the need to develop provision to meet changes in organisational context.

### BOX 12.10 GLOBAL INSIGHT

#### The challenges of global talent management

Continued economic globalisation requires managers to adopt a global outlook and to utilise appropriate frameworks and methodologies to effectively manage and develop globally dispersed talent (Collings et al., 2009). Scullion et al. (2010) suggest that global talent management includes organisational activities to acquire, develop and retain talent for organisational strategies on a global scale, taking account of cultural contexts.

Kim and Mclean (2012) argue that global talent management is necessary for three principal reasons: firms are increasingly either operating across borders, or intend to do so; there exists a global deficiency of talent as a result of demographic changes; and, connectedly, there remains intense competition for talent on a global scale. They also note three specific challenges that can occur in developing global talent: overcoming ethnocentrism and a desire for the standardisation of talent management practice; difficulties associated with the impact on workers of global mobility and the management of expatriates; and barriers and a lack of integration between headquarters and subsidiaries.

In order to overcome these challenges, Kim and McLean offer a number of roles for HRM, not least to ensure that employee development is given as much focus within talent management as attraction and retention. They suggest four key roles:

- 1 *Balancing centralised and decentralised strategies* – ensuring the firm benefits both from the positive impact of shared values, systems and resources across the organisation and the benefits to be gained from localised approaches to recruitment, development and retention.
- 2 *Developing global competencies* – the identification and development of a global mindset among global talent, including, for example, cultural self-awareness, a global perspective and tolerance for ambiguity and difference.
- 3 *Creating structured global talent development* – connected to organisational strategies and objectives, and mindful of external and internal factors and resources, the development of global approaches to leadership development, succession planning and expatriate and cross-cultural training.
- 4 *Conducting global teambuilding* – the provision of organisational activities, as well as systems and cultures, to enhance the effectiveness of geographically dispersed work teams to minimise interpersonal conflict and misunderstanding. Such activities might include diversity training, coaching and mentoring programmes and means by which work goals, roles and responsibilities are clarified.

### ORGANISATIONAL CHANGE AND CAREER MANAGEMENT

There are significant implications of the 'new' career, not least the impact of the shifting psychological contract on employee motivation, commitment and cynicism in the context of increased job insecurity (Thite, 2001). Whilst employees are being asked to expend ever-greater effort in their work, organisations are often in no position to offer the opportunities that have been available in the past as reward for their exertion (Whymark and Ellis, 1999). Subsequently, the revised career 'offer' of some employers would appear to constitute a significant breach of the psychological contract, made worse by a widespread failure to develop an adequate career management strategy (Atkinson, 2002).

### BOX 12.11 ETHICAL INSIGHT

#### Employer responsibility, careers and career management

King (2004) stresses that, in the context of increased organisational flexibility, businesses need to consider career management not only for their core employees but also for non-core workers. Among the reasons for doing so is an ethical imperative: 'Many people, and especially the lower skilled, are forced into contingent work through circumstance. Often they can't upgrade their skills because they can only find work on the basis of their existing, proven skills. The employer, perhaps, has as much responsibility for these stakeholders as it does to its core employees' (King, 2004: 39). Subsequently, ensuring equity of access to development opportunities and, therefore, enabling individuals to develop their employability should represent a key dimension of an ethical approach to HRM. For low-skilled workers, such opportunities represent their means both to improve their employment prospects and, subsequently, the opportunity for full participation in society (Lowry, 2009). However, segmented strategies for career management whereby individuals have variable access to organisationally managed careers, and exclusive approaches to talent management can significantly curtail the ability of some

workers to progress their careers, both within and beyond an individual employer. Therefore, the ethical question for managers is how best to balance the financial and competitive needs of the firm to deploy scarce resources effectively in the development of staff, and the potentially competing needs of individuals for opportunities for personal and career development. Adopting a stakeholder approach to business ethics, it is clear that career development, insofar as it can contribute to a fairer society by ensuring equality of access to all levels of an organisation, is an important dimension of a firm's responsibilities to both its workforce and the wider community in which it operates.

An additional ethical aspect of career management is the role that it can play in encouraging ethical behaviour among employees. Boo and Koh (2001) suggest that a key determinant of the effectiveness of a firm's code of ethics in promoting acceptable behaviour is the association between such behaviour and career success in the organisation (alongside senior manager support for ethical behaviour and code enforcement). Therefore, if firms make it explicit that ethical behaviour (or simply an avoidance of unethical behaviour) is a consideration in promotion decisions this is likely to have a wider impact on the behaviour of the organisation at large.

The restructuring of internal labour markets can also result in unforeseen problems. For example, organisational 'delaying' can result in a 'promotion gap' and skills shortages that affect a firm's ability to fill positions internally. For example, by removing a layer of middle management the gulf between junior and senior management might be too significant to breach without extensive training.

Despite much of the rhetoric of widespread change to careers, however, evidence indicates that many organisations have not reduced their career management solely to an 'employability' proposition or 'unsupported career development' (Hirsh and Jackson, 2004), nor have they completely disposed of the traditional tools of career management, such as succession planning or internal promotion (King, 2004). Traditional approaches to career management are likely still to be viewed as important because employees continue to value managed career development initiatives and employment security. It follows then that organisations are unlikely to have divested themselves of all responsibility for training and development, especially for new employees. CIPD (2003b) report a clear consensus among employers that whilst individual employees are expected to take responsibility for their own career development, this should be within a supporting framework of advice, guidance and

information provided by the employer. This recognises that even if employees are expected to take predominant responsibility for their own careers, employers must provide them with necessary information and access to development opportunities.

## IMPLICATIONS FOR RECRUITMENT AND RETENTION

In the current career climate, one particular issue for HRM is to develop new approaches and strategies for recruitment and retention, bearing in mind that opportunities for career development represent a major tool for attracting, motivating and retaining good quality employees. Herriot et al. (1994) suggest that if organisations are to attract and retain employees they will have to (re-)establish a positive psychological contract, which may prove difficult if they are perceived to have broken such contracts in the past through restructuring and rationalisation.

As planning horizons have shortened as a result of economic uncertainty and the future needs of organisations have become less clear, employers are finding it more difficult to articulate an appropriate definition of an organisational career because traditional definitions, emphasising hierarchical progression, no longer provide 'the explanatory vocabulary to understand the apparently changing reality of managerial careers in the post-bureaucratic organisation' (Adams et al., 1998: 252). They suggest that recruitment literature increasingly refers not to 'world class careers' for graduates but, 'a world class start to a career; talking not of opportunities for advancement and/or progression but of opportunities to improve marketability and employability' (1998: 255). Hirsh and Jackson (2004) suggest that organisations are very nervous of raising expectations around promotion because they also feel uncertain about what the future holds. The result is that many large organisations give their staff no clear or positive message about careers. Purcell et al. (2002: 2) suggest, therefore, that leading practice organisations 'manage the expectations of candidates and recruits, external and internal, so that there is a very clear understanding of the nature of the work, the culture of the organisation and the career development opportunities available'.

Subsequently, organisations must be clear both as to what is expected of their recruits and what entrants can expect of a career, however short-lived, within that organisation. For example, if they are no longer able to guarantee long-term careers, they should offer conditions under which individuals may develop their human capital. Employers must clearly articulate what types of career are available in the organisation, what support the employer can offer in helping employees achieve career ambitions and the specific roles of line managers, HR professionals, senior managers and the employees themselves. Garavan and Morley (1997), in a study of the socialisation of new graduate recruits, found that employee frustration and dissatisfaction arose when there was misunderstanding about the psychological contract and a misconception of their role or prospects in the organisation. It is therefore critical that employers take account of the individual perspective in forming and delivering career management activities and ensure that they adhere to the values of fairness, objectivity and transparency.

## CAREER MANAGEMENT AND DIVERSITY

Earlier in this chapter it was suggested that the increasing heterogeneity of the labour force was likely to be reflected in increased diversity of career expectations and aspirations and employers should be wary of making assumptions or generalisations about worker needs and attitudes. 'One-size-fits-all' approaches to career management are unlikely to be appropriate in most organisations as,

regardless of their position or the social group to which they belong, individuals have diverse orientations to work and careers. Flexible practices are therefore needed to ensure that both employee and employer needs are met. For example, the labour force is increasingly made up of older workers and those with dependent children or caring responsibilities and it is important that employers acknowledge both their specific (individual) and general (group) needs and aspirations in career management practices. Such acknowledgement might be reflected in employers offering flexible working patterns and better work-life balance alongside more flexible career options and the abandonment of assumptions about ambition and the speed at which progression should be achieved.

Career management interventions should also be made accessible to all groups, especially those who are under-represented in the organisation. An emphasis on individual self-determination in career development is problematic in that it fails to adequately acknowledge the historical and structural disadvantage experienced by particular social groups (for example, women and minority ethnic

### BOX 12.12 GLOBAL INSIGHT

#### Career development across borders

National culture affects careers and career development in a number of ways. Schneider and Barsoux (2008) suggest that both preferred paths for advancement and the traits and behaviour required for promotion are culturally determined. In particular, what it takes to get ahead varies according to assumptions regarding 'being versus doing' (who you are versus what you do).

For example, Derr and Laurent (1989) suggest that American managers perceive drive and ability to be the most important determinants of career success, reflecting a pragmatic, individualistic, achievement-oriented and instrumental worldview. However, this is not universally the case. It is accepted in many countries that personal connections and the school attended are important. In France, for instance, educational background is perceived as enough to be labelled 'high potential'. Similarly, the competencies perceived as most important in developing managerial careers vary. In Germany, technical competence and expertise or achievement are paramount. In contrast, in the UK, interpersonal and communication skills are considered most important to the managerial role.

Favoured career paths also differ across cultures; for example, the preference for developing careers within a single function, company or industry. In different countries, the possibility and

potential leverage of switching in and out of companies or industries varies as this is tied to cultural assumptions of individual versus group loyalty, doing versus being, and the extent to which uncertainty is tolerated. For example, in Japan, where there is a greater emphasis on job security, career development often consists of job rotation to develop company-specific knowledge. As such, mid-career moves are less common than in the West. Similarly, career mobility is not particularly valued within German companies, although this reflects the importance placed on developing company-specific know-how rather than loyalty. In Britain, France and the USA career mobility across industries and companies is acceptable and often considered desirable. These different patterns of career development reflect the strength of internal labour markets within firms, whether managers are likely to be developed internally or recruited externally and the stage at which those with high potential are identified (at entry or later). Furthermore, they reflect the value placed on different types of work experiences acquired within or outside the company or industry (specialist versus generalist) and the criteria for selection and promotion (Evans et al., 1989, in Barsoux and Schneider, 2008). In cross-cultural management, MNCs need to ensure that the perceptions of what it takes to reach the top, and the patterns of career development, do not exclude people with different skills, abilities and perspectives.

workers). In the absence of proactive employer policies to support under-represented groups in career development, particularly those who have typically followed non-standard careers, it is likely that this disadvantage will be sustained. Brousseau et al. (1996) advocate the adoption of a pluralistic approach to career management – a combination of structured approaches to career development and opportunities for diverse career types and experiences – that embraces different definitions of career success to better support the diverse needs of employees and to reward the development of a wide range of competencies and skills.



MANAGEMENT  
OF GRADUATE  
CAREERS

### SUMMARY POINTS

- Much contemporary discussion of careers focuses on the extent to which the 'traditional' career, based on loyalty and relative security, has been replaced by 'new deals' in employment, based on short-term commitment and the development of employability.
- Most empirical studies indicate that careers in the traditional sense are not 'dead' but that the context in which they are experienced and their stability have undergone considerable change over recent years. Consequently, workers increasingly experience careers in a fragmented, insecure and uncertain manner.
- Even for employees of large organisations where corporately managed careers have traditionally been most prevalent, greater onus is being placed on career self-management, whether supported by the organisation or otherwise.
- The changing nature of careers has led to a shift from a 'relational' to a 'transactional' psychological contract for many workers.
- Three broad approaches to career management are identified – supported self-development, corporate career management and career partnership – representing differences in the balance of responsibility between employer and employee for career development.
- Organisations typically differentiate between employee 'groups' in the extent and type of career management provision, but research suggests that most employers have not reduced their career management solely to an 'employability' proposition or unsupported career development.
- The growing diversity of the labour supply presents a set of challenges for employers in managing a more diverse set of employee expectations, needs and desires. This also presents an opportunity for employers to develop more innovative career management initiatives.

### SELF-TEST QUESTIONS

- 1 How have changes to the external environment of work organisations, and their subsequent impact on organisational structure, acted to shape the notion of careers?
- 2 What are the key dimensions along which we can contrast traditional and new careers?
- 3 To what extent can it be argued that the move towards 'boundaryless' careers is positive for employees? What are the associated negative implications of such change?
- 4 What are implications of the changing career 'offering' for the psychological contract?
- 5 What does the empirical research evidence suggest about the proliferation of the new career concept in work organisations?

- 6 What are the organisational benefits associated with a strategic approach to career management?
- 7 What are the key mechanisms through which work organisations can assist in the career self-management of its employees?
- 8 What are the implications of increased labour market diversity on the way in which organisations support career management?
- 9 How do national cultural differences shape attitudes and approaches to career development?

### TEST YOURSELF

Want to know more about this chapter? Review what you have been learning by visiting:

<https://edge.sagepub.com/wilton3e>

- Print out or download the chapter summaries for quick revision
- Test yourself with multiple-choice questions
- Revise key terms with interactive flashcards

### CASE STUDY

#### Building a talent strategy at Matsson Finance

Matsson Finance is a market-leading company providing wealth management and financial protection services, operating in more than 40 countries but with major operations across Europe, North America and Asia-Pacific. Worldwide, it has over 50 million customers, both individuals and businesses, and approximately 95,000 employees worldwide working across three of its operating divisions: MF Life and Insurance, MF Investment and MF Healthcare.

In the UK, Matsson is involved in insurance, investment, pensions, healthcare, protection and life cover, employing approximately 8,000 staff in five locations across the country. Its website makes the claim that: 'As the trusted provider of financial services to two million customers in the UK, we seek to employ the best people to ensure both outstanding service and excellent value'. However, whilst Matsson is typically viewed as an 'employer of choice', senior management has in the past two years become concerned that in certain aspects of its HRM practice, particularly employee development and talent management, the company has lost ground to its competitors.

In particular, the firm identified a significant problem in retaining its highest potential staff across its six operating sites. In order to support the firm's aim of achieving more sustainable competitive advantage

through the quality and capability of its people, the firm recognises the need to attract, develop and retain talent throughout the organisation. Subsequently, the firm has recently begun to develop and implement a more strategic approach to talent management that brings together a number of disparate policies and practices already in existence to produce a coherent approach to developing promotable talent and to ensure a pipeline to service most senior positions. To achieve this more strategic approach, Matsson has established a Talent Development Team to support the achievement of competitive advantage through the 'creation and deployment of a continuous pipeline of exceptional business and technical leaders'.

Among the first tasks of this team and central to the firm's talent strategy is the organisation's ability to successfully identify both immediately promotable talent and future leaders, stressing, therefore, the importance of appropriately defining its 'talent pools' to recognise both realised ability and potential. To this end, the company decided to categorise talent in the company in three ways:

- 1 *Talent* – defined as those throughout the firm who have performance ratings of effective, excellent or outstanding and representing 90 per cent of employees at Matsson UK. These ratings are determined by line managers during annual performance appraisals based on the achievement of individual objectives and the extent to which they display the behaviours



TEST  
YOURSELF

informed by the firm's core values. The company has yet to put in place structures and practices to further develop such staff but their potential is noted and filed for future reference.

- 2 *Promotable talent* – those employees with the potential to progress to the next career level in the relatively near future, representing approximately 40 per cent of all employees. Individuals are assigned to this group at the request of their line managers based on three key criteria: ability, drive and engagement. The highest-flyers from this group are identified as 'being of future leadership potential'. The company has been surprised at how relatively few staff have been put forward by their managers and take this to be a sign of an absence of such talent. As a result, the company has begun a headhunting exercise to recruit high-potential staff from outside the firm at more senior levels.
- 3 *Future leaders* – 1–3 per cent of employees with the potential to be a business or technical leader or technical specialist. Such candidates are simply put forward by their line manager as someone of significant potential.

Despite recognition of the importance of talent at all levels in the company, priority has been given to nurturing and developing those staff who fall within the 'future leader' group. Senior management have diverted significant investment to the HR department to develop a bespoke, stand-alone and intensive programme of leadership development for the 'chosen few' (as they have become known in the firm), including paid tuition and time off to study for an MBA at a top UK business school, regular off-site teambuilding activities and fact-finding missions to Matsson sites all over the world. This investment

### USEFUL READING

#### Journal articles

Baruch, Y. (2006) Career development in organizations and beyond: Balancing traditional and contemporary viewpoints, *Human Resource Management Review*, 16: 125–38.

This article presents a balanced perspective on career management, suggesting that whilst much

constitutes the major part of the fund available for talent development but senior management take the view that 'if you get the top right, the rest will fall into place'. In other words, if the workforce sees the internal promotion of a select few staff into very senior positions then others will be motivated to pursue such opportunities.

The aim of the future leadership programme is to assess each individual against the leadership behaviours and competencies identified at the most senior level of the firm, in order to map them against future roles. Before the end of the programme, individuals have to produce a portfolio that includes what they have learned about themselves, what they have done as a result of this learning and why they should be considered for specific roles in the organisation. The information then leads into succession planning activities where individuals are earmarked for particular posts in the future and are intensively schooled in the technical aspects of those posts.

#### Questions

- 1 How would you characterise the approach that Matsson Finance has adopted towards its talent management?
- 2 What examples of potentially good practice can you identify in Matsson's approach to talent management?
- 3 What are the potential pitfalls associated with the policies and practices that Matsson has currently adopted?
- 4 What are the potential problems of adopting a very structured off-the-job programme of leadership development as the means by which to develop the leadership capabilities of a more junior member of staff?

has changed in the context of careers, both within and outside of organisations, the basics in career development theory and practice continue to be valid.

Tansley, C. (2011) What do we mean by the term 'talent' in talent management? *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 43 (5): 266–74.

Drawing on a review of the literature and interviews with professionals associated with talent management, this short article provides a useful summary of

the multiple ways in which talent has been defined for the purposes of talent management.

### FURTHER ONLINE READING

The following articles can be accessed for free on the book's companion website <https://edge.sagepub.com/wilton3e>:

Arthur, M. B. (2008) Examining contemporary careers: A call for interdisciplinary inquiry, *Human Relations*, 61 (2): 163–86.

Inkson, K. and King, Z. (2010) Contested terrain in careers: A psychological contract model, *Human Relations*, 64 (1): 37–57.

Inkson, K., Gunz, H., Ganesh, S. and Roper, J. (2012) Boundaryless careers: Bringing back boundaries, *Organization Studies*, 33 (3): 323–40.

Kim, S. and McLean, G. (2012) Global talent management: Necessity, challenges and the roles of HRD, *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 14 (4): 566–85.

Leisy, B. and Pyron, D. (2009) Talent management takes on new urgency, *Compensation & Benefits Review*, 41 (4): 58–6.

Rodrigues, R. A. and Guest, D. (2010) Have careers become boundaryless? *Human Relations*, 63 (8): 1157–75.

Want to know more about this chapter? Visit the companion website at: <https://edge.sagepub.com/wilton3e> to access practice questions, videos and selected journal articles to further enhance your study.