

Employee self-efficacy and strategic human resources management

Auto efficacité des employés et gestion stratégique des ressources humaines

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Abstract

Research into strategic human resource management has been in progress for some thirty years. Several approaches have been developed, including universalist, contingency and configurational approaches. Recently, there has also been an evolution in SHRM towards taking into account the psychological capital of employees. However, the literature on this subject has only touched on it briefly. As a result, there are many unexplained factors. This article provides a structured literature review on strategic human resources management with a focus on psychological capital, particularly self-efficacy, as a lever for organizational performance. It develops an explanatory conceptual framework linking HR development practices (training, mentoring, coaching) to the different dimensions of self-efficacy (cognitive, motivational, emotional, selection processes), leading to research proposals and an integrative conceptual model.

Keywords: SHRM; HRD practices; self-efficacy; performance

Résumé

Déjà une trentaine d'années que la recherche en gestion stratégique des ressources humaines fait ses pas. Plusieurs approches ont été développées ; notamment les approches universalistes, de contingence et configurationnelle. Récemment, on note également une évolution de la GSRH vers la prise en compte du capital psychologique des employés. Toutefois les écrits qui y sont consacrés ne l'ont abordé que sommairement. Bon nombre d'inexpliqués sont donc décelables. Le présent article propose une revue de littérature structurée sur la gestion stratégique des ressources humaines en mettant l'accent sur le capital psychologique, en particulier l'auto-efficacité, comme levier de performance organisationnelle. Il développe un cadre conceptuel explicatif liant les pratiques de développement RH (formation, mentoring, coaching) aux différentes dimensions de l'auto-efficacité (processus cognitifs, motivationnels, émotionnels, de sélection), débouchant sur des propositions de recherche et un modèle conceptuel intégrateur.

Mots clés : GSRH ; pratiques DRH ; auto-efficacité ; performance

Introduction

The business context has undergone profound changes as a result of globalization, evolving from a stable environment to one of great instability, making it difficult to achieve performance objectives. To counter this, strategic human resources management has been one of the options considered. It suggests integrating HRM with the organization's main strategic challenges (Guérin & Wils, 2002) .

In its evolution, strategic human resource management research has been marked by a succession of approaches: universalist, contingency and configurational. The universalist approach stipulates that there are best HR practices or high-performance practices implying a direct relationship between so-called best practices and performance (Delery & Doty, 1996; Gagnon & Arcand, 2011; Youndt, et al., 1996) . The contingency approach is an alternative to the universalist perspective (Gannon, et al., 2015) . It states that a company's strategic options and other contingency factors increase or decrease the effect of human resource practices on company performance (Delery & Doty, 1996; Youndt et al., 1996) . The configurational approach refutes the idea of best practices and the effectiveness of individual practices, stating that performance is the result of congruence or fit between various HRM practices (Arthur, 1994) . It is a holistic and incremental decision-making process (Bayad, et al., 2004; Delery & Doty, 1996) that aims to interrelate HRM practices with each other and with strategy, thus forming a coherence (*fit*) (Barrette & Carrière, 2003; Delery, 1998; Delery & Doty, 1996; MacDuffie, 1995) internal and external.

More recently (Gupta, 2014) , there has been a shift in HRM towards taking into account employees' psychological capital. Most of the writings devoted to this are by Gupta (2013) and Gupta (2014) . Indeed, in his reflections, Gupta (2013) and Gupta (2014) attempt to introduce the concept of psychological capital into the universalist approach to explaining employees' creative performance. Thus, he highlights the relationship between universal HRM practices, employees' psychological capital and creative performance. However, he provides only a summary explanation of this link and limits himself to individual performance. So, how could taking psychological capital into account in strategic human resources management influence company performance?

Thus, based on documentary research and data processing that enabled us to retain 78 writings, we first presented a structured literature review and then carried out a discussion that led to the development of research proposals and an integrative conceptual model.

1. Research methodology

This literature review considers the fields of strategic human resource management, human resource development, psychological capital, self-efficacy and performance. These fields were not chosen at random. At one point in our doctoral studies, we were led to conduct research into strategic human resource management. This research enabled us to discover new avenues that had not been taken into account in our doctoral work. Once we had completed our doctorate, we decided to investigate these avenues further: 1) taking psychological capital into account in the strategic management of human resources; 2) the role of psychological capital in the development of human resources with a view to increasing employee self-efficacy; and 3) the role of psychological capital in the transition from individual performance (self-efficacy) to organizational performance. From these three lines of inquiry emerge the various fields listed above. These different avenues have led us to consider the possibility of developing, based on the literature, an explanatory framework for increasing organizational performance by taking psychological capital into account in strategic human resources management.

We then proceeded to a review of the literature, taking into account the different fields. A piece of writing is selected according to the importance its author(s) attach to one and/or other of the fields. We were therefore obliged to include a few theses and books. From an initial mobilization of 103 documents (2 books, 3 theses and 98 articles), we retained 78 (2 books, 2 theses and 74 articles). Of the 78 documents, 23 focus on HR development, 16 on HRBM, 16 on performance, 11 on psychological capital and 12 on self-efficacy. The theoretical review covers the period from 1961 to 2016; this is because it takes into account relatively old fields of research. For example, the year 1961 can be justified by the age of the concept of HR development, and 2016 by the fact that most recent research in the various fields covered by the review does not really add any exploitable knowledge.

To carry out this review, we mainly used the google scholar search engine and the databases of the Université du Québec à Trois-Rivières digital library. Data collection consisted in retaining the essentials of each document considered. In the case of articles, the essential data were taken from the abstract and conclusion. In theses and books, we identified the areas of interest from the titles and subtitles in the tables of contents. Data processing consisted in summarizing all the areas of interest for all the documents, and then synthesizing them. This synthesis was used to present the content of the various fields or concepts in the results

section. Data analysis consisted in identifying links between the various fields or concepts, formulating research proposals and developing a conceptual model.

2. Result

2.1. Psychological capital

The first ideas leading to the theory of psychological capital were those of Diener & Seligman (2002) and emerged from the positive psychology movement; although earlier work in economics and sociology briefly mentioned the term "psychological capital" (Luthans, et al., 2004) . Indeed, Diener & Seligman (2002) have noted that psychology, as perceived after the Second World War, is used as an instrument primarily to treat human pathologies in total ignorance of the benefits it could bring to human self-discovery and individual fulfillment. Thus, the positive psychology movement, as indicated by these authors, is also interested in building the best qualities of human life through the discovery and development of self potential.

While Diener & Seligman (2002) have worked to lay the foundations for new avenues in psychology for human life in general, Luthans et al. (2004) have contributed to its consideration in resource management through reflections on the role of psychology in human resource development. Indeed, the growing recognition of human resources as a competitive advantage has led to the development of the notions of human capital and, more recently, social capital (Luthans et al., 2004) . This leads Luthans et al. (2004) to wonder why so much attention is paid to the human being in terms of "what he knows (human capital)" and "who he knows (social capital)", in total ignorance of "who he is". This curiosity on the part of researchers to know "who he is" justifies the emergence of the theory of psychological capital. Psychological capital is therefore seen as a positive psychological factor that can be measured and developed, going beyond human and social capital to gain competitive advantage through the development of who you are. It consists : self-efficacy, hope, optimism and resilience (Lorenz, et al., 2016; Luthans et al., 2004) .

2.2. Self efficacy

In keeping with the social-cognitive perspective (Deschênes, et al., 2008; Rondier, 2004; Safourcade & Alava, 2009; Vieira & Coimbra, 2008) , the founding works of self-efficacy theories are those of Bandura. According to socio-cognitive theory, psychological functioning and development must be understood by taking into account three interactive factors: behavior, environment and the individual (Rondier, 2004; Safourcade & Alava, 2009) . From

this theory, Bandura derived the notion of beliefs, which play an important role in defining the concept of self-efficacy (Rondier, 2004; Vieira & Coimbra, 2008) . Thus, self-efficacy refers to individuals' beliefs about their ability to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources and behaviors needed to exert control over life events (Wood & Bandura, 1989) as mentioned Heutte (2011) . The feeling of self-efficacy helps determine choices of activity and environment, the subject's investment in the pursuit of the goals he or she has set and the persistence of his or her effort (Rondier, 2004) . When the individual feels highly effective, he behaves confidently, keeps his attention focused on the task, reacts positively to obstacles encountered by seeing them as challenges and looking for ways to overcome them (Loué, 2012), shows himself to be invulnerable, reinforces self-control, respects the interests of others. Self-efficient people are not those who believe they can do everything, but rather those who know how to determine the objectives they could achieve in a logic of full employment of their potential. Thus, depending on the case, the individual may believe that he or she is capable of achieving a given level of performance through a particular activity (Meyer & Verlhac, 2004)

To increase an individual's self-efficacy, four sources are indicated: active mastery experience, vicarious or indirect experience, verbal persuasion, physiological and emotional dispositions (Deschênes et al., 2008; Rondier, 2004) . As Rondier (2004) explains, active mastery experience is one of the most influential sources indicating that the more successful an individual is at experimenting with a given behavior, the more likely he or she is to believe in his or her personal ability to perform the requested behavior. Vicarious or indirect experience is social learning through observation. Verbal persuasion means that, through suggestions, warnings, advice and questioning, participants can be led to believe that they possess the potential to successfully perform the behavior that once embarrassed them. Physiological and emotional dispositions indicate that when a person associates an aversive emotional state such as anxiety with poor performance of the requested behavior, this can lead them to doubt their personal competence to perform the behavior and thus lead to failure.

In short, self-efficacy is a dimension of psychological capital that can be built through experience, verbal persuasion and emotional control. As mentioned by Deaudelin, et al. (2002) , self-efficacy can be developed through the practice of training, which provides information on the resources and requirements of a task, and ongoing feedback. In other words, the development of self-efficacy requires the development of human resources.

2.3. Human resources development practices

Human resources development is the process of strengthening human expertise through the training and development of personnel, in order to enhance organizational performance (Swanson & Holton, 2001) . Although it has only recently been introduced into organizations, human resources development goes back centuries. As far back as 100 BC. - 300 A.D., the first HR development practices manifested themselves in Greek education, which focused entirely on human dimensions such as the nature of life, man and the supernatural. From 300 to 1300 A.D., in Greco-Roman societies, we could already observe learning processes from mother to child and from master to apprentice. These were the beginnings of the mentoring and coaching practices that are still used today in organizations. The period between 1400 and 1800 A.D., under the impetus of Martin Luther (1483-1546), John Locke (1632 - 1704) and Jean-Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778), saw the real development of technical training, a human resources development practice adopted in organizations today. So, with reference to history, we can already identify three HR development practices in the context of this research: training, mentoring and coaching.

2.3.1 Training

Training is a process of learning or acquiring the knowledge needed to develop and strengthen an individual's capabilities. It is recognized that investment in human resources training and development has a significant effect on improving employee performance and increasing organizational efficiency (G. Arcand, 2006; M. Arcand, 2001) . Training also increases employee employability and flexibility (M. Arcand, 2001) . This justifies the great interest shown by organizations in this practice. A pre-survey carried out by M. Arcand (2001) on a sample of 46 companies confirmed the presence of training practices in a large number of organizations.

2.3.2 Mentoring

For decades, the practice of mentoring has been seen as a means of support between two people who are willing and available to each other (Brunet, 2009) . It is a support provided to an employee for his/her personal development and the development of his/her professional skills (Bernatchez, et al., 2010) . Mentoring is implemented through a dyadic relationship between mentor and protégé. The mentor must be a godfather or an esteemed, cultured figure who, through his or her role as advisor and educator, guides and develops a younger, less experienced person (the mentee) (Brunet, 2009; Ehrich, et al., 2004)

In strategic human resources management, mentoring is a powerful human resources development tool (Nkomo & Thwala, 2016) promoting the strengthening of personal and professional talent (Ehrich, et al., 2003; Nkomo & Thwala, 2016) . The practice of mentoring also looks to build the identity and self-esteem of the mentee (Nkomo & Thwala, 2016) . As such, it is beneficial for both individuals involved in the mentoring relationship. For mentoring to play its role effectively, mentor and mentee must be linked by a willingness to learn, a willingness to share, respect and openness (Brunet, 2009) . The mentor must also demonstrate potential as a good teacher, volunteer commitment and involvement (Bernatchez, et al., 2010) . The practice of mentoring plays a considerable role in the success of companies because, through it, the company can increase the qualification of employees and thus reduce the turnover rate of qualified personnel not only through the transfer of experience but also through the positive emotions that can arise as a result of the mentoring relationship (Nkomo & Thwala, 2016) . Moreover, as mentioned by Nkomo & Thwala (2016) , the findings of a recent longitudinal study point to an increase in organizational retention due to the positive influence of emotions born of the mentoring relationship on the level of organizational commitment.

However, mentoring should not be confused with training. While training is often used to transmit knowledge to a group of individuals, mentoring is adopted to share knowledge through one-to-one relationships (Bernatchez, et al., 2010) . Similarly, while the acquisition of knowledge through training practice can include book-based learning processes, mentoring practice relies essentially on the direct transfer of knowledge based on the mentor's experience. Mentoring can also focus on knowledge transfer programs from retired people or those tending towards retirement to new recruits (Nkomo & Thwala, 2016) . While the essential aim of training practice is the transmission of knowledge, mentoring, on the other hand, prioritizes, as a complement to the transfer of knowledge, preparing the individual for difficult missions or facing complex situations (Marcinkus Murphy, 2012) . Furthermore, mentoring refers more to "accelerated" support programs aimed at young people whom the organization identifies as potential key players in its future development (Nkomo & Thwala, 2016) .

2.3.3 Coaching

Originally used in sports, coaching was a technique applied to players of tennis, golf, ice skating, skiing, motor racing or team games to enhance individual or team performance

(Evered & Selman, 1989) . It retains the same meaning in a business context, with the notable difference that it fails to take into account the specific environmental and psychodynamic characteristics of the organizational context (Krazmien & Berger, 1997) . Thus, managerial coaching can be seen as sports coaching readjusted.

In the organizational environment, coaching is seen as a human resources development practice providing employees with the tools, knowledge and opportunities they need to develop themselves and become more effective (Bartlett, 2007) . It aims to motivate employees to improve their performance at work, and to clarify performance standards through a continuous process of performance assessment and feedback, as described by Krazmien and Berger (1997) . Although coaching incorporates staff appraisal, it should not be confused with either the latter, or with employee career guidance, which are part of the human resources manager's remit (Orth, Wilkinson & Benfari, 1987) . Whereas appraisal and career guidance are one-off practices, coaching is an ongoing process whereby employees learn to identify opportunities to improve their performance (Orth et al., 1987) . In short, it is an accepted means of improving performance (Evered & Selman, 1989) in a context of complexity.

It is implemented by establishing a relationship between coach and employee. Thus, clarification of performance standards must take place within this relationship through constructive, rather than imposed, discussions, leading to the definition of mutually accepted objectives with which everyone identifies (Atkiss & Read, 1961) . The relationship thus takes on a central role in the implementation and effectiveness of coaching. Indeed, coaching is essentially driven by the reciprocal commitment of coach and employee in a dyad (Evered & Selman, 1989) . Of course, the quality of the dyadic relationship is essential to the success of coaching, but the coach must also have a certain quality. Ely, et al. (2010) , who have looked into this question, identify a number of criteria that must be used as a filter when selecting coaches. They draw attention to the fact that the choice of coach must take into account the coach's level of competence in analysis and planning, innovation, organization, communication and feedback, motivation and encouragement, resourcefulness, resistance to opposition, goal orientation, accountability, integrity, empathy, compassion, kindness, interpersonal skills, flexibility, trust in collaboration and commitment.

2.4. Performance

Performance, generally speaking, can be assessed in terms of the value created (Auger & Reynaud, 2014) . It is used in several other fields; thus multidimensional (Mbengue & Ouakouak, 2012) and is commonly used in the business world (Sogbossi, 2010) . Difficult to tame, it acquires meaning according to the context to which it is applied (Pesqueux, 2004) . In business, it is often perceived in terms of effectiveness, or even efficiency (Sogbossi, 2010) and used under the name of "corporate performance". Even in this context, its meaning can change depending on the department to which it is applied or the goal pursued. A distinction can be made between economic, financial and commercial performance (Nwamen, 2006) , strategic, social and organizational performance (Sogbossi, 2010) , etc. Despite the confusion that surrounds the identification and definition of the different types of performance, we will attempt the summary presentation necessary for the understanding of the present research.

2.4.1 Economic and financial performance

Assessing economic and financial performance has long been the standard practice for evaluating the health of a company (Sogbossi, 2010) . While financial performance is assessed in terms of the net financial surplus generated during operations, economic performance is identified with net wealth creation, assessed by reference to the various resources (financial, material, human, etc.) used during production (Gauzente & Lorino, 2001) . Economic performance is assessed in terms of the added value generated by the company's various activities. However, it should be pointed out that, although both types of performance are easy to evaluate and interpret (Sogbossi, 2010) , the various changes in the business environment mean that the information they reflect can no longer be trusted alone. As a result, other types of performance will be considered.

2.4.2 Social performance

The emergence of the notion of social performance is justified in particular by the drift observed on the part of microfinance institutions, which were moving away from their social objectives in favour of concerns increasingly geared towards their profitability (Urgeghe, 2010) . Thus, beyond microfinance institutions, social performance is becoming a tool to help assess the degree to which companies in general integrate social objectives into their day-to-day financial calculation behavior. It is increasingly associated with the notion of social responsibility, giving priority to the quality of internal relations between employees and those with customers and the various stakeholders interacting with the organization (Lapenu, et al.,

2004) . Organizations giving high priority to social responsibility can then achieve better social performance (Cheung, et al., 2013) . Social performance can be assessed by the importance attached to environmental preservation, labor relations and stakeholder management (Ho, et al., 2012) and measured by combining economic, social and environmental parameters relating to business transactions (Boulouta, 2013) . Although it requires a significant level of investment, it can still enable the company to improve its results and maintain better relations with the various stakeholders (Porter & Van der Linde, 1995) .

2.4.3 Strategic and organizational performance

The disastrous consequences of the economic crisis of overproduction in 1929 led to the emergence of a new way of operating in organizations. Contrary to traditional practices, it is now advisable to reflect on the feasibility of an action before undertaking it. In the short term, for example, a company needs to carry out a market analysis in order to better adapt its offer to demand. Similarly, in the long term, a company needs to define its overall direction, to avoid sailing at a loss. This process is called strategic thinking. From the notion of strategy has emerged that of strategic performance. Strategic performance or long-term performance, as described by Sogbossi (2010) is based on indicators of excellence. Thus, its achievement requires a well thought-out strategy, business growth, long-term organizational commitment, a dynamic corporate culture, the potential to create value for customers, and mastery of the environment (Barrette & Bérard, 2000) .

Organizational performance focuses on the effectiveness of the organization. It concerns the ways in which the company is organized, and the ways and means it adopts to achieve its objectives (Sogbossi, 2010) . Organizational performance takes into account the organization itself, the strategy and the organizational agents (Pesqueux, 2004) . It therefore relates to effectiveness in achieving the company's overall vision.

2.4.4 Sales performance

Also referred to as marketing performance, sales performance is difficult to separate from other types of performance (Sogbossi, 2010) . It can be defined as the ability to achieve objectives or expected results in terms of product or service quality, delivery times for urgent orders, cost and price levels, market share, shortages and sales (Magnan and Onge, 1994) . It can be assessed from the point of view of the customer, the competitor or the organization itself (Morgan, et al., 2002) . As mentioned by Morgan et al. (2002) , sales performance, from the customer's point of view, can be assessed in terms of brand awareness, perceived quality,

and the behavior of customers and prospects in the target market. From the competitor's point of view, market share is a key indicator. From the point of view of the organization itself, it can be assessed by the level of sales or turnover

Company performance can then be viewed from economic, financial, social, commercial, strategic or organizational angles.

3. Discussion and proposals

Since self-efficacy is a component of psychological capital, let's start with the literature on the link between HR development practices, psychological capital and performance. Generally speaking, it has been revealed that individuals with high levels of psychological capital are more successful than those with low levels, as they can draw on more resources to pursue goals (Lorenz et al., 2016) . In this way, they improve their individual performance. In the specific context of the organization, several research studies confirm the ability of a leader with a high level of psychological capital to drive, by contagion effect, all employees in the same direction and lead the whole organization towards better performance (Avey, et al., 2011; Clapp-Smith, et al., 2009; Luthans, et al., 2005; Luthans, et al., 2008; Walumbwa, et al., 2010) . Thus, beyond the individual performance of employees, psychological capital is able to increase the performance of the organization. It is even reported to be sufficiently durable (Caza, et al., 2010; Dello Russo & Stoykova, 2015) to influence long-term behavior and performance, while adjusting to change (Luthans et al., 2008; Luthans, et al., 2007) . While a high level of psychological capital is needed to induce performance in today's business environment, researchers have already looked at how to develop it. For example, Dello Russo and Stoykova (2015) and Lorenz et al. (2016) have indicated that psychological capital can be developed through training practice. It should also be noted that the practice of mentoring provides support for the strengthening of psychological capital through psychosocial support based on encouragement and advice (Ehrich, 1999) . Similarly Gupta (2014) and Gupta (2013) have identified a list of high-performance human resource management practices that can influence employees' psychological capital. These practices include coaching and mentoring, empowerment, selective staffing, conflict resolution mechanisms, information sharing, socialization of newcomers, competency development practices, merit-based promotions, social missions and flexible work models. Thus, the following research proposal can be formulated.

Proposition1: HR development practices strengthen employees' psychological capital. This improves company performance.

Let's now look at the link between HR development practices, self-efficacy and company performance. Self-efficacy can be developed through training (Deaudelin et al., 2002) . Similarly Rondier (2004) identifies four sources of self-efficacy: active mastery experience, vicarious or indirect experience, verbal persuasion and physiological and emotional states. By virtue of their role, mentoring and coaching practices can help with verbal persuasion, experience transfer and emotional mastery. So, even if the literature doesn't provide any specifics, we can assume a link between mentoring and coaching practices and employee self-efficacy. Similarly, given that several studies are formal about the positive effect of psychological capital on organizational performance (Avey et al., 2011; Clapp-Smith et al., 2009; Luthans et al., 2005; Luthans et al., 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2010) , and that self-efficacy is a component of psychological capital, we can assume a link between employee self-efficacy and corporate performance. Thus, we wish to formulate the following proposition.

Proposition2: HR development practices enhance employee self-efficacy, which in turn improves company performance.

The development of self-efficacy is made up of four processes: cognitive, motivational, emotional and selection (Bandura & Lecomte, 2007; Bandura & Wessels, 1994; Deschênes et al., 2008; Giroux & Lachance, 2008) .

The cognitive process serves as a guide for action, enabling the mind to establish the probability of outcomes and to put in place the means to control these outcomes (Deschênes et al., 2008) . In fact, the knowledge and experience accumulated by the individual establishes a mental construct which he uses every time he has to interpret information relating to his actions (Bandura, 1977) . Thus, the degree to which an individual believes he can progress despite difficulties depends on his mental representation. He draws from his knowledge and experience the elements needed to anticipate future actions, adjust and self-correct present actions in order to make further progress towards the goal (Bandura, 1977, 1993) . Thus, the more the individual's mental construct confers a strong belief in his or her ability to succeed, the more he or she is able to visualize success scenarios that support performance improvement (Bandura, 1993; Bandura & Wessels, 1994) . The cognitive process enables the individual not only to draw on his knowledge and experience, but also to ensure better observation of the effects of his actions in order to use the responses received to construct and

project appropriate behavior and behavioral control in relation to threats in the environment (Bandura, 1977) . Thus, as described above, training, mentoring and coaching practices can influence the cognitive process that will guide the employee towards goal achievement. We can then formulate the following proposition.

Proposition3: HR development practices develop the employee's cognitive process. This improves company performance.

The motivational process enables the individual to give direction to his or her actions and to motivate him or herself to persist in the effort until the performance obtained corresponds to that desired (Bandura & Lecomte, 2007) . Like the cognitive component, the motivational process is linked to the individual's beliefs. The more the individual believes in his or her ability to set and achieve goals, the more successful he or she will be in drawing on the resources necessary for motivation (Bandura & Wessels, 1994) . The individual's experience and knowledge thus play a central role. The provision of adequate tools also has a significant impact on the motivational process (Oudmine & Ajerame, 2025). Indeed, motivation is generated by the individual's confidence in his or her ability to construct appropriate behavior and anticipate future results (Bandura, 1977) . Training, mentoring and coaching practices can then help the individual to build the necessary capacities.

Proposition4: HR development practices strengthen the employee's motivational process. This increases company performance.

The emotional process ensures personal control of thought, action and emotion (Bandura & Lecomte, 2007) . In fact, as with the previous processes, the more convinced an individual is of his ability to cope with the various threats to his performance, the more he is able to discredit the sources of these threats. This helps him to better manage the negative emotions that can alter his thinking (Bandura, 1993) . Thus, the individual's degree of belief influences his vulnerability to difficult, threatening or stressful situations (Bandura & Wessels, 1994) . Training, mentoring and coaching practices can play an accompanying role in difficult situations, and can therefore be useful in the employee's emotional process.

Proposition5 : HR development practices strengthen employees' emotional processes. This improves company performance.

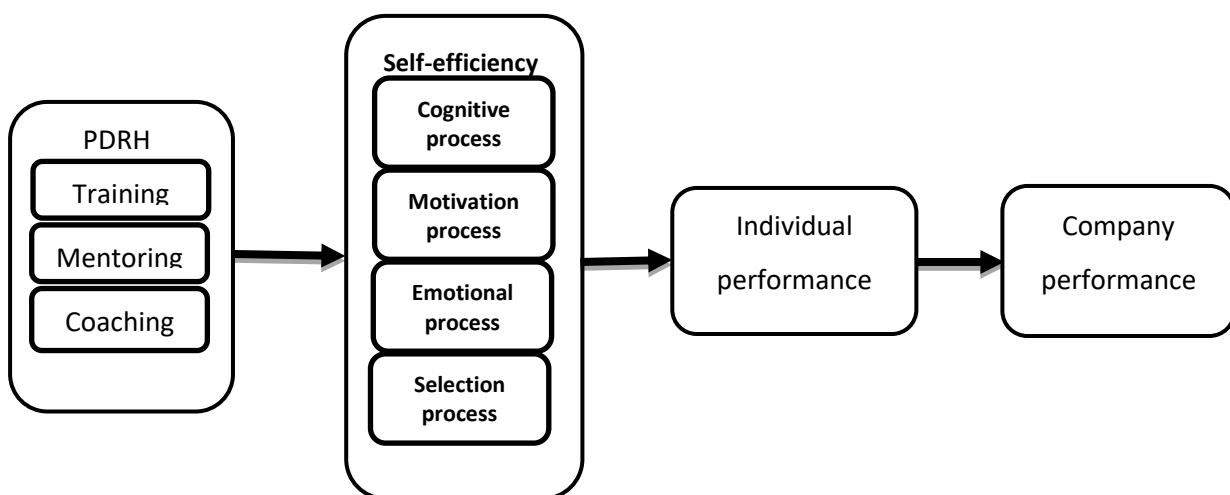
The selection process enables the individual to take into account other processes to determine an environment that is conducive to achieving goals, and to exercise greater self-control (Deschênes et al., 2008) . Thus, this process enables the individual to take account of his or her knowledge and experience to determine the environment, domain or activity for which he

or she believes he or she will produce the best performance. Indeed, in the selection process, self-efficient individuals avoid activities and environments that they perceive as mismatched or superior to their potentiality, and readily engage in stimulating situations and activities that are tailored to them (Bandura & Wessels, 1994) .

Proposition6 : *The selection process improves the distribution of work. This increases the company's performance.*

These various proposals have led to the following conceptual model.

Conceptual model



PDRH = Human Resources Development Practice

Conclusion

Strategic human resource management has undergone significant evolution, from a universalist approach to a contextual perspective. Despite these developments, there are still some unexplained issues. In the universalist perspective, without an in-depth explanation, Gupta (2013) and Gupta (2014) revealed the importance of taking psychological capital into account in strategic human resource management. However, it is limited to the influence of psychological capital on individual performance. It does not, therefore, deal with corporate performance as stipulated by strategic human resources management. The aim of this research is therefore to take stock of the literature on this issue and to develop a theoretical framework that clarifies the various unexplained issues.

At the end of the theoretical review, 78 documents were selected. The majority were articles. A few books and theses were also identified. In line with the problematic, the documents

identified relate to strategic human resource management, human resource development, psychological capital, self-efficacy and performance. Following discussion of the various links, the research proposals reveal the existence of relationships between human resource development practices (training, mentoring and coaching), components of self-efficacy, individual performance and corporate performance.

As a limitation, the theoretical review was unable to explain the link between individual and corporate performance. An empirical study is therefore needed to 1) further clarify the various relationships, 2) see the possibility of the emergence of new relationships and 3) validate the various research proposals.

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