



New perspectives on human resource management in a global context



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ABSTRACT

In the past three decades or so, globalization/regionalization, migration and reverse migration (also referred to as “brain circulation”), the ascendancy of emerging markets, the demand for people with a global mindset, and the worldwide war for talent have brought about fundamental changes to the nature, magnitude, and *raison d’être* for human resource management (HRM) in a global context. These changes require us to adopt new lenses to fully understand the dynamics that impact international human resource management (IHRM) policies and practices. This paper presents new perspectives on IHRM as they relate to research on multicultural teams under the three dimensions of diversity (separation, variety, and disparity) posited by Harrison and Klein (2007), and brain circulation in the context of movement of peoples across countries. These perspectives go toward the traditional approach of studying expatriates, whether company-sponsored or self-initiated assignments. The paper discusses how these new perspectives can set the agenda for future research on IHRM.

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1. Introduction

Since the publication of my 1981 article, “Selection and training of personnel for overseas assignments”, in the *Columbia Journal of World Business* (now known as the *Journal of World Business*, *JWB* in short), most countries around the world have embarked on the inexorable path toward globalization or regionalization.¹ A major consequence of globalization is global mobility where the movement of people across international boundaries, whether temporary or permanent, has become a common phenomenon.

To commemorate the 50th anniversary of the *JWB*, this paper will first present a brief overview of how HRM in the context of global mobility has changed since 1981, albeit some aspects have evolved more slowly than others. The paper will then examine the changes and challenges in the international human resource management context, particularly in light of the global war for talent and brain circulation, that render the need for fresh perspectives to better understand the evolving phenomenon of HRM policies and practices. Finally, the paper will elaborate on

these new perspectives in terms of their implications for research and practice.

2. Overview – From MNC-sponsored expatriation to global war for talent

My 1981 paper (Tung, 1981) is generally recognized as the first systematic attempt to understand the reasons for expatriate failure among U.S. multinationals (Dowling, Festing, & Engle, 2013). My study of U.S. multinationals was followed by a succession of studies on European, Japanese and Australian multinationals to compare and contrast selection policies and training programs from major source countries of expatriation (Tung, 1982, 1984). Through a critical analysis of studies published on the subject, Harzing (1995) traced how my 1981 publication has inspired many subsequent studies of expatriate failure and ways for remedying the situation. These subsequent studies (see, for example, Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Torbiorn, 1982), in turn, spawned an exponential growth in interest on different aspects of expatriate assignments – selection, training, compensation, performance appraisal, etc. – to catapult the subject to become one of the most widely researched topics in the field of international human resource management.

In the three decades since my 1981 article, we have learned a lot about the experience of expatriates from countries, both developed and emerging markets, including but not limited to the following: The reduced incidence of American expatriate failure abroad

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¹ Some researchers, such as the late Alan Rugman, have asserted that regionalization is a more accurate characterization of developments in most parts of the world. In this paper, I will not go into the debate of globalization versus regionalization. Rather, the assertion here is that most countries in the world are engaged with other countries, whether on a regional or global basis.

where Tung (1998) attributed this decline to their transformation from “neophytes” to “cosmopolitans”; the challenges they continue to encounter (McNulty, 2012; Ren, Yunlu, Shaffer, & Fodchuk, 2015; Takeuchi, Wang, & Marinova, 2005; Takeuchi, 2010); correlates of adjustment (Caligiuri, 2000; Earley & Ang, 2003); the emergence of self-initiated and short-term assignments as distinguished from those that are company/MNC sponsored (Andersen, Bergdolt, Margenfeld, & Dickmann, 2014; Biemann & Andersen, 2010; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014; Collings, Scullion, & Morley, 2007; Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002; Suutari & Brewster, 2000); the deployment and experience of women in international assignments (Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Tung, 2004); the interactions between host country nationals and expatriates (Levy et al., 2014; Mahajan & Toh, 2014; Takeuchi, 2010; Toh & DeNisi, 2007); repatriation (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001); and reasons for the continued use of expatriates despite their higher costs and localization requirements by host governments (Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Harzing, 2001; Reiche, Kraimer, & Harzing, 2011; Tarique & Schuler, 2010). The Caligiuri and Bonache paper in this SI traces the evolution of the “strategic deployment of expatriates” over time, including changes in types of overseas assignments and profile of expatriates that contribute to a blurring of the lines between expatriates and global professionals, a point that will be addressed further in this paper.

This fascination with the topic of expatriate assignments can be attributed, in part at least, to the inexorable path toward globalization or regionalization that I alluded to earlier. In addition, there is growing recognition among practitioners, policy makers and researchers that human capital is pivotal to a firm/nation's international competitiveness. In my 1984 book, *Key to Japan's Economic Growth: Human Power*, I hypothesized that human capital is pivotal to the then Japanese economic miracle. Similarly, human power is the driving force behind South Korea's remarkable transformation from the devastation after the Korean War (1950–1953) to its current status as the 15th largest economy in the world, on the basis of nominal GDP. Nonaka (1991, p. 98) has distinguished between two types of knowledge: explicit and tacit. Explicit knowledge is “formal and systematic ... and can be easily communicated and shared, in product specifications or a scientific formula or a computer program”. Tacit knowledge, on the other hand, resides in people, results from experience, and represents “informal, hard-to-pin-down skills captured in the term ‘know-how’” (Nonaka, 1991, p. 98). In the pre-global mobility era, with the exception of emigration primarily from developing to industrialized countries in search of better living conditions and career opportunities, human talent (particularly those from industrialized countries) typically remains in a given country. With the increasing willingness of people, including those from industrialized countries, to relocate abroad, whether on a temporary or permanent basis, there is a growing war for talent, a term coined by McKinsey (Chambers, Foulon, Handfield-Jones, Hankin, & Michaels, 1998).

The looming war for talent has received attention at all levels – it was the focus of the 2006 World Economic Forum held at Davos, Switzerland. The governments of fast-growing emerging markets, such as China and India, have developed initiatives and policies to attract talent from around the world, particularly among members of their respective diasporas who have attained professional/career success in their adoptive countries to return to their countries of origin (Cooke, Saini, & Wang, 2014; Tung & Larazova, 2006). Companies have to contend with this challenge by devising ways and means to attract talent, and more importantly, to retain them.

Talent poaching and acqui-hiring [i.e., “acquisition of small companies to gain access to their employees” (Chatterji & Patro, 2014, p. 395)] have become commonplace among businesses. An outstanding example of the challenges and opportunities

associated with the war for talent is that of Dr. Kai-Fu Lee, a Taiwan-born, U.S.-educated speech recognition expert who first worked for Microsoft. When Google hired him from Microsoft, a bitter legal battle ensued over what intrinsic knowledge Dr. Lee could use at Google. Shortly after the legal dust had settled between the two technical giants, Dr. Lee left to start up his own China-based company, Innovation Works (Tung, 2014a).

In 2014, the *JWB* devoted an entire Special Issue on talent management (Ariss, Cascio, & Paauwe, 2014). Cascio & Boudreau's essay content analyzed publications in *JWB* over a 50-year timeframe and noted the surge in research on talent management after 2009. Given the broader focus of talent management, similar to Khilji, Tarique, and Schuler (2015), Cascio & Boudreau called for a multidisciplinary approach (i.e., beyond HR per se) to better understand the phenomenon. Khilji et al. (2015) emphasized the need to adopt a macro perspective that includes an examination of government policies, diasporas and brain circulation. These issues are addressed further in this paper.

In a 2013 annual survey of CEOs from around the world, Pricewaterhouse Coopers (*Dealing with disruption*, 2013) on what worries them most, 58% of the respondents expressed concerns about talent deficit. Similarly, in a 2013 survey by Ernst & Young and Oxford Analytica (*Business Pulse*, 2013) of companies across industries in 21 countries, the respondents identified the shortage of talent as among the top ten risks confronting their organizations. Collectively, these findings highlight the significance and magnitude of the problem.

2.1. War for talent

The reasons for the escalating war on talent are several-fold, including the overall aging of the workforce, the ascendancy of emerging markets accompanied by a substantial upgrading in the educational levels and technical skills of their indigenous populations, and the general reduction in immigration and emigration to the barriers of movement of people across countries. Johnston (1991) has attributed these three factors to the emerging phenomenon of “global workforce 2000”: one, an aging workforce in the industrialized West; two, the rising educational levels and technical skills in emerging markets; and, three, the lowering of immigration and emigration barriers to people flow. Each of the first two factors is discussed below:

2.1.1. Overall aging of the workforce

Statistics by the UN Population Division (2009) and Hayutin (2007) revealed that most developed countries and many emerging markets have to contend with the graying of their population. For example, approximately 20–35 percent of the populations in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Europe, Japan and the Republic of Korea will be 65 and over by 2030. Europe and Japan have the oldest population while Africa has the youngest. Fertility is already below-replacement rate (i.e., under 2.1 births per woman) in most advanced economies. East Asia (including China, the most populous nation in the world), Canada, Europe, Russia, Australia, and New Zealand have fertility rates of 1.2–2. A notable exception among the BRIC countries is India which enjoys a demographic dividend, namely one third of its population is 15 years of age or younger (Tung, 2009). Chand and Tung (2014) have discussed the impact of aging on businesses around the world.

2.1.2. Ascendancy of emerging markets

O'Neill (2001) of Goldman Sachs coined the term BRIC to refer to the rise of Brazil, Russia, India and China. Goldman Sachs subsequently projected that by 2050, the combined economies of the BRIC countries will surpass that of the G6 countries (Wilson & Purushothaman, 2003). According to statistics compiled by TD

Economics (Kelly, 2006), between 2003 and 2004, the share of world growth by emerging economies overtook that of the industrialized countries. The 2008–2009 Global Financial Crisis has exacerbated this gap. In fact, according to a recent International Monetary Fund report, China has overtaken the U.S. as the largest economy in year end 2014 (Gorman, 2014) ahead of the 2041 timeline suggested by Wilson and Purushothaman (2003), although the former's per capita GDP is only one-quarter of the latter's.

The rise of emerging markets has been fueled, in part, by foreign investment (FDI) into these countries thereby generating a huge demand for talent to staff these operations. This rapid economic growth, in turn, has contributed to the rise of emerging market multinationals (EMMNCs) that have embarked on their own outward foreign investment (OFDI), such as Lenovo's acquisition of IBM's PC division and the Tata Group's purchase of Jaguar Automotive, Land Rover and Tetley Teas. In 2012, while China continued to be the largest recipient (not cumulative though) of FDI in the world, it also became the largest investor among emerging markets (OECD FDI in figures, 2013). China's OFDI aspirations have shown no signs of abating – that country has embarked on a “go global” policy which objective is to create 30 to 50 world-class companies in the not too distant future (China Goes Global, 2005). A sizable portion of China's OFDI is in Asia-Pacific, a point that will be discussed later in the paper. OFDI from India, by comparison, is much smaller but growing.

Human talent deficit in emerging markets. To successfully run these foreign operations, there is a commensurate demand for human talent by these EMMNCs (Tarique & Schuler, 2010; Khilji et al., 2015), a topic that will be explored later in the paper. The governments and firms in emerging markets have quickly realized that a quick way of developing human talent is to attract members of their diaspora to return home – coincidentally, China and India boast two of the largest diasporas in the world (Chand & Tung, 2011a; Tung & Chung, 2010). China and India are also two major source countries of foreign students in engineering, computer science and business in the U.S. and other industrialized countries.

China has embarked on a national medium- and long-term talent development plan (2010–2020), a multi-pronged approach that seeks to, one, transform that country's population dividend (most populous nation in the world but aging rapidly) to “*rencai* (talent) dividend”; and, two, shift the focus from low-cost manufacturing (i.e., “Made in China”) to high-value added goods and services (i.e., “Created in China”) (Wang, 2010). In the short-term, the success of China's talent development plan lies in its ability to attract overseas Chinese to return. According to statistics compiled by the U.S. National Science Foundation, 92 percent of Chinese nationals who were awarded doctorates in science and technology in 2002 still lived/worked in the U.S. in 2007 (Wang, 2010). In the case of India, the country has accorded “non-resident Indian” and “person of Indian origin” status to ethnic Indians abroad to strengthen ties between India and its overseas diaspora.

Dual beach-heads of business. Based on her studies of IT start-ups in Silicon Valley, Saxenian (2000), Saxenian (2002), Saxenian (2005) found that in the late 1990s almost one-third of these firms were founded by immigrants from China and India; this figure surged to 52% by 2005. Furthermore, she found that economic growth in China and India has fueled the reverse migration of high-tech immigrants to their respective countries of origin (COOs) and has contributed to what she has dubbed as “brain circulation” (as opposed to the traditional terms of brain drain and brain gain). To take advantage of developments in both the Silicon Valley and their COO, many of these high-tech immigrants have established “dual beach-heads of business” in both their COO and country of residence (COR). The subject of brain circulation will be discussed further in this paper.

Aside from returnees, in light of the growing strength of the emerging markets and the lackluster economic growth in many industrialized countries, non-ethnic Chinese graduates from the U.S. and elsewhere are attracted to move to Shanghai and Beijing, albeit on a temporary basis, to gain global experience and, at the same time, wait for better job opportunities back home (Seligson, 2009; Cerdin & Selmer, 2014). In 2013, Obama launched a “100,000 Strong Foundation” initiative that sought to encourage 100,000 students from the US to study in China by 2014 (Jones, 2013). This and similar initiatives in other industrialized countries have spurred a growing presence of non-Asians in Asian universities, a phenomenon unheard of or unimaginable a decade ago.

2.2. Global orientation

There is general consensus among practitioners, policy makers and academics that for organizations and nations to be competitive, the development of a global orientation at the individual-, organizational- and national-level is imperative (*Exploring dual perspectives on the top 10 risks and opportunities in 2013 and beyond*, 2013; *Fit for the future: Capitalizing on global trends*, 2014). Indeed, an underlying theme of the foregoing discussion on war for talent is the demand for people with a global mindset. The Bird & Mendenhall paper presents a “quasi-historical” overview of the global leadership literature that connects research on expatriation, selection, adjustment and transformation, on the one hand, with that on intercultural communication, global management and comparative leadership, on the other.

Based on a comprehensive survey of the literature on global leadership/orientation Tung (2014b) has identified the requisites to and ways for developing a global mindset. These mechanisms include the use of area studies, sensitivity training, and international assignments whether company-sponsored or self-initiated (Biemann & Andersen, 2010).

2.2.1. International assignments to develop a global mindset

International assignments represent an effective mechanism for nurturing a global mindset and have accounted for the willingness of those with high potentials to live and work abroad even if their present employer does not adequately reward them for their efforts and sacrifices (Cerdin & Brewster, 2014; Collings and Mellahi, 2009). In my 1998 study of American expatriates abroad, I hypothesized that a primary reason why many respondents in my sample continued to value an international assignment even if they were dissatisfied with their company's expatriation and repatriation programs stems from the growing boundaryless nature of careers (Tung, 1998), a concept that is consistent with the phenomenon that we now know as the “war for talent”.

3. New perspectives

The global war for talent discussed in the preceding sections has both theoretical and practical implications, including the need to develop new perspectives in understanding and studying the emerging and evolving trends in HRM in a global context, the focus of this paper. These include: One, multicultural teams are here to stay and the dynamics associated with such multicultural teams; and, two, brain circulation and their implications for IHRM. Each of these perspectives is presented below.

3.1. Multicultural teams are here to stay

Traditionally, studies of multicultural teams (MCT) have been couched in a cross-national context, also referred to as cross-national diversity. The emphasis there has been on the interactions

of expatriates with host country nationals. Tung (1993) alluded to the parallels yet differences between cross-national and intra-national diversity. Intra-national diversity refers to the growing multi-ethnic composition of employees within a given geographic location. MCTs refer to both cross-national and intra-national diversity. As noted earlier, MCTs in the cross-national context has received much attention given the traditional research focus on expatriation. Rapid advances in technology have made possible another form of MCT, namely virtual global teams. Zander, Mockaitis, and Butler (2012, p. 592) described such teams as “characterized by national, cultural and linguistic heterogeneity and operate in a globally dispersed virtual environment”. In light of the growing boundaryless nature of careers, the need to develop a global orientation, the war for talent, the overall reduction in immigration and emigration barriers to the movement of people (Johnston, 1991), and the overall aging of the workforce in many countries, the incidence, intensity and magnitude of interactions among peoples from different backgrounds in the work setting, whether face-to-face or virtual, and both across and within countries will grow exponentially in the years ahead.

To date, much of the research on MCT has been grounded in the concepts of cultural distance (Kogut & Singh, 1988; Shenkar, 2001; Zander & Zander, 2010) based largely on cultural dimensions advanced by Hofstede (1980) or the GLOBE project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) in the context of cross-national diversity; and social identity and categorization (Ibarra, 1992; Tajfel, 1982) in the context of intra-national diversity. At the risk of over-generalization, most of the research were conducted either (a) in the context of white vis-a-vis non-white populations (either African-Americans or immigrants) in the U.S./industrialized countries (Cox & Blake, 1991; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Ely, 2004; Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998; Hinds & Mortensen, 2005); (b) the interface between expatriates, typically Caucasians from industrialized countries, and host country nationals in emerging/developing markets (Beamish, 1985, 2013; Prasad, 1981). More recently, in light of the growing use of global virtual teams, attention has focused on understanding the requisites for global team leaders, the contribution of biculturals and multiculturals, and how to leverage the diversity associated with such teams (Zander et al., 2012).

While these studies have advanced our understanding of MCTs, the findings are far from consistent including the revelations that differences can engender both positive and negative outcomes depending upon the nature of the task undertaken and that context matters (Joshi & Roh, 2007). Harrison and Klein (2007) have attributed these inconsistent findings to the lack of clarity in conceptualization of the diversity construct and its measurement. To develop a better appreciation of the relationship between diversity and organizational outcome, Harrison and Klein (2007) have proposed the study of diversity under three separate dimensions: separation, variety and disparity. These three dimensions can be fruitfully applied to the development of new perspectives in understanding the dynamics of MCT in line with the new global realities.

3.1.1. Separation

In the context of international business/management, separation refers to geographic and/or cultural distance between the COO of members in a MCT. In the past, the assumption was often made that the larger the cultural distance among members of a team, whether cross-national or intra-national, the more dysfunctional the outcomes. However, as Stahl and Tung (2015) have shown, based on their analysis of 24 years of publication in the *Journal of International Business Studies*, cultural distance does not necessarily yield negative organizational consequences. In fact, diversity can contribute to positive outcomes (Zander et al., 2012).

Another common assumption about cultural distance and geographic dispersions is spatial homogeneity of behavior/values/attitudes of people within a given country or geographic region (Tung & Verbeke, 2010). This is evidenced in the pervasive tendency in both theory and practice to cluster countries on the basis of common philosophical traditions and or geographic proximity, such as the Confucian and Anglo-Saxon clusters. Nisbitt (2003), for example, has ascribed variations between Asians and Westerners to differences in human cognition. This tendency to culturally cluster countries in a region has led to characterizations of the nature that “East Asians” or “South Asians” or “Southeast Asians” are such and such.

There is, of course, wide variation in countries within Asia and the West. Even within a given country, such as China, there can be significant differences (see, for example, Ahlstrom, Levitas, Hitt, Dacin, & Zhu, 2014; Tung, Worm, & Fang, 2008). This tendency to lump countries may have contributed, in part at least, to the common practice in multinationals to assign expatriates from one country in a region to work in a culturally proximal economy based on the assumption that an expatriate who has succeeded in one country in the region will, by definition, be suited for an assignment to another country within the same region. The same logic has also contributed to the practice among many multinationals to assign ethnic Chinese, be they from the U.S., Hong Kong or Taiwan, to manage their operations in China. Experience shows that these practices can yield sub-optimal outcomes; this will be discussed in a later section.

Homophily. The practice identified in the preceding paragraph, namely to assign an ethnic Chinese, for example, from Hong Kong or Taiwan to head a multinational's Chinese operations is based on the popular principle of homophily that essentially asserts that people, in general, prefer those who are similar to themselves (Ibarra, 1992; Lazarsfeld & Merton, 1954). Homophily can explain, one, why American expatriates may experience fewer problems of adjustments in culturally similar countries, such as Canada and the United Kingdom, in comparison with relocations to culturally distant countries, such as Japan (Tung, 1998); two, in terms of assessment of expatriates' performance abroad, their superiors have been advised to factor in the difference between the cultures of the home and host countries, referred to as the level of cultural novelty (Selmer, 2008); and, three, why researchers such as Smith and Bond (1993, p. 205) have suggested that it is best “to select persons whose cultural background is maximally similar to that of the new host culture”.

Inverse resonance. Carr, Rugimbana, Walkom, and Bolitho (2001), based on their study of university students in Tanzania, have found that the opposite of homophily may operate. They found that the respondents were positive, negative and neutral toward those who were identical, similar, and dissimilar to themselves, respectively. They used the principle of “inverse resonance” (from the field of applied mechanics) to explain for these differences. The principle of inverse resonance, as applied to interpersonal relations between host nationals and expatriates, is based on Festinger's (1954) theory of social comparison, Tajfel's (1978) findings with regard to differentiation between social groups, and Moghaddam and Stringer's (1988) research on bias. According to the principle of inverse resonance, “(j)ust as individuals often compare themselves against others who are similar, so too groups will tend to evaluate themselves against outgroups which they regard as similar . . . , in the process possibly becoming discriminatory . . .” (Carr et al., 2001, p. 445). Essentially, the principle of “inverse resonance” roughly translates into the two popular sayings of “attraction of opposites” and “familiarity breeds contempt”.

While the studies on “inverse resonance” to date, at least to my knowledge, has been done on Africa, I suspect that this principle

will most likely hold true in Asia as well. Historical tensions have tempered the relationships among countries that share similar cultural values – the news is replete with tensions between Japan and China, Japan and Korea, China and Vietnam, China and India, India and Pakistan, and so on. Even in Hong Kong which has reverted back to Chinese rule in 1997 and where over 90 population of its population is ethnic Chinese, tensions between Hong Kongers and Mainlanders (as the two groups are respectively referred to in the local press) persist – in fact, the Hong Kong reference to Mainlanders as “locusts” became the subject of a heated debate as to whether this constitutes hate crime (Young, 2014). Typically “hate” crimes are targeted at members of a different race or ethnic group. Where “hate” crimes are targeted at people of the same ethnic background, it becomes “internalized racism”. In their study of ex-host country nationals (or returnees) from Eastern and Central Europe, Tung and Larazova (2006) found evidence, albeit less intense, that host country nationals may be more questioning of the competencies of their compatriots who have spent time abroad.

These findings are consistent with Manolova, Eunnii, and Gyoshev (2008) study that some immigrant entrepreneurs deliberately refuse to invest in their COO either because, one, they feel they have more inside knowledge of the barriers associated with their home country; or, two, they possess outdated information about their COO since they emigrated a long time ago. This notion is contradictory to the finding of “immigrant effect” (Tung & Chung, 2010) where immigrant entrepreneurs or diaspora members seek business opportunities in their COO and are ready to commit more resources in these ventures.

3.1.2. Variety

In the international business/management context, variety refers to the “differences in kind, source, or category” (Harrison & Klein, 2007, p. 1203), such as gender, race, language, religious traditions and other distinctions that separate “us” from “them”.

Gender. Research shows that women are still under-represented in expatriate assignments – from the 3 percent reported by Adler (1984) to the present levels of 20 percent (Tung, 1998; Global Relocation Trends, 2014). These trends are also consistent with the persistent under-representation of women in corporate boards – 35 percent in Norway to 19 percent in the U.S. (2014 Catalyst Census, 2015) – and do not reflect the reality that currently roughly one-half of the students in MBA programs are women. Adler (1984) and subsequent research (Stroh, Varma, & Valy-Durbin, 2000) have essentially dispelled the three myths commonly associated with the under-utilization of women in international assignments, including their reluctance to work abroad; their managers’ unwillingness to send them abroad; and local nationals in other countries do not want to work with women. Several studies (Caligiuri & Tung, 1999; Taylor & Napier, 1996; Stroh et al., 2000; Vance & Paik, 2001) have shown that women are eager to undertake international assignments, including relocating to hardship locations except where they are not allowed to perform their duties, because of opportunities for career development. In a paired comparison of 80 male versus female expatriates – while controlling for countries of assignment, years of experience, and industry – women performed as well as men (Tung, 2004). In fact, women were found to be more able to deal with the stress and strains associated with isolation encountered in living/working abroad and had better boundary-spanning and conflicting mediating skills than their male counterparts, thus leading Tung (2004) to posit that females may be the “model global manager”.

Woolley, Chabris, Pentland, Hashmi, and Malone (2010) have used the notion of “collective intelligence” to explain why the presence of women (and for that matter, MCT members) “is one of the key factors that influences the group’s collective ‘intelligence’

or in other words the ability of the group to make successful decisions” (Dawson, Kersley, & Natella, 2014, p. 4). In fact, a principal finding of Credit Suisse’s study of 3000 global organizations revealed that companies with “greater board gender diversity display excess stock market returns adjusted for sector bias” (Dawson et al., 2014, p. 5). Similarly, Joshi and Lahiri (2014, p. 1) found that “a little language friction may prompt partners to rethink solutions, thereby enhancing collaboration, but excessive friction may impede collaboration”.

Race and gender. While there is an emerging body of research pertaining to race and leadership (Caruso, Mead, & Balcetis, 2009; Livingston & Pearce, 2008; Rosette, Leonardelli, & Phillips, 2008), with some minor exceptions (Livingston, Rosette, & Washington, 2012; Toh & Leonardelli, 2012) little is known about how the interaction of race and gender can affect people’s perception of a candidate’s suitability for executive positions. Two exploratory studies (Tung, 2008b; Tung & Haq, 2012) showed that despite the finding that both Chinese and Indian respondents placed more emphasis on meritocracy over gender (i.e., being female) and race (i.e., being black), nevertheless, they still expressed reservations about how an African-American woman executive would fare in China and India, respectively. In the case of Korean executives, the finding of the interaction between race and gender is more complex – in the case of an African-American female who is the most technically qualified candidate for the position, she was deemed inappropriate for the job under consideration; however, when the woman with the same qualifications was portrayed as a White female, she was considered suitable for the position (Tung, 2008b). These findings of Asian attitude toward blacks or African-Americans are consistent with the data obtained in the Race Implicit Association Test (see McConnell & Leibold, 2001; Xu, Nosek, & Greenwald, 2014). Collectively, these findings suggest the need to develop a more nuanced understanding of the interaction between race and gender.

Internalized racism. In the two exploratory studies identified above (Tung, 2008b; Tung & Haq, 2012), and in line with the preceding discussion of possible “internalized racism”, Tung (2008b) found that Chinese practitioners were, in general, less positive to foreign-born and raised Chinese vis-à-vis Chinese who were born and raised in China even though they went abroad to study. In contrast, the Korean executives were more favorably disposed to Koreans who were born and raised abroad. The findings in the Chinese sample are consistent with the inverse resonance hypothesis discussed earlier.

With global migration, reverse migration, and the growing incidence of biracial marriages,² the population of people who are bi- or multicultural vis-à-vis those who are mono-cultural (i.e., familiar with cultural values and norms of only one country) is on the rise. According to a 2012 Pew Research survey, 15 percent of all marriages in the U.S. in 2010 were inter-racial. The study also found that most Americans (83%) were not opposed to biracial marriages (Taylor et al., 2012). In light of, one, the increased recognition that possession of a global mindset is an important requisite to success in the Twenty-first century, and, two, studies show that biculturals are more likely to possess such competencies, including bridging cultural faultlines, (Barner-Rasmussen, Ehrnrooth, Koveshnikov, & Mäkelä, 2014; Hinds, Neeley, & Cramton, 2014; Zander et al., 2012), they serve to explain why biculturals are favored in advancement to senior management positions (Gillespie, McBride, & Riddle, 2010; Tung, 2014b).

Self-identity. Racial and ethnic differences aside, there is the issue of self-identity. Due, in part at least, to changes made in the

² While not all children of biracial marriages/unions are bicultural, the fact that they are raised by parents from two different cultural heritages does make them more sensitive to the differences in values/attitudes and behaviors of two cultures.

2010 vis-à-vis 2000 U.S. census on the question pertaining to race, an estimated 1.2 million of the 35 million Americans who previously identified themselves as “Hispanic, Latino or Spanish origin” in the 2000 census have re-categorized themselves as “white” in the 2010 census (Cohn, 2014). In the 2010 census, perhaps the most famous biracial person in the world, Barack Obama declared himself as “Black, African American, or Negro” as opposed to checking one or more of the following options that he could identify with: “some other race”, or write-in a response (Roberts & Baker, 2010). More recently, Rachel Dolezal, a former executive of the Spokane, Washington chapter of NAACP (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People), a woman who is not genetically black, identifies herself as an African American (Blow, 2015). Collectively, the aforementioned examples highlight the need to better understand that self-identification may be more salient than objective reality in influencing a person’s behaviors, attitudes and values.

Religious affiliation. The religious affiliation of a person can definitely affect others’ perception of them, as evidenced by the common practice of profiling people on the basis of their faith in light of recent terrorist activities. To my knowledge, the issue of how religious affiliation can affect a person’s suitability for relocation to another country has not yet been systematically studied although countries can deny entry to nationals of select economies (as determined by citizenship or passport they hold), whether for work or pleasure.

3.1.3. Disparity

In the context of international business/management, Harrison and Klein’s (2007) third dimension, disparity refers to differences in levels of economic or technological development between members from the host and home countries, in the case of cross-national diversity, or COO of MCT members, in the case of intra-national diversity and global virtual teams.

Economic/technological development. There is evidence to show that the nature and quality of interactions in MCT can be affected by the levels of economic and technological development of the COO of its members. In my study of Italian MNCs (Tung, 1988), some Italian expatriates welcomed assignments to the U.S. as “stepping into the light”, whereas an assignment to a less developed country was construed as a scaling back in their quality of lifestyle. Similarly, Mamman (1995) found that host country nationals in sub-Saharan African harbored negative stereotypes about expatriates from other developing countries while they were favorably disposed to those from industrialized countries. Augoustinos and Walker (1995) and Mizuno and Yamaguchi (1997) reported similar findings in their studies of host country nationals in Asia and attributed this to “internalized inferiority” where the legacy of colonialism and the pervasiveness of Hollywood pop culture have led locals to assume the West, particularly the U.S., as superior. Similarly, Kim and Tung (2013) found that while Korean companies were, in general, gung-ho on their expansion into India because of the potential opportunities in that country, most Korean expatriates to India left their families at home while the converse was true for assignments to the U.S./Canada and other developed countries.

Inability to attract and retain talent. Another global mobility/human resource issue arising from disparity pertains to the EMMNCs’ ability to attract and retain qualified local nationals to work for their foreign subsidiaries in the industrialized countries, such as the U.S. and Canada. In a 2005 survey by IBM’s Institute for Business Value and Fudan University, shortage of human talent emerged as a major concern among Chinese multinationals (Beebe, Hew, Feng, & Shi, 2006). In terms of retention, consider the case of TCL’s, a Chinese firm, merger with France’s Alcatel. The merger was announced with much fanfare in 2004, only to be dissolved nine

months later when all of Alcatel’s senior management left, followed by a mass exodus of other Alcatel employees. Many Alcatel employees left because they could not cope with TCL’s “militarized management” vis-à-vis the “human-oriented management” approach practiced by Alcatel (Lau & Guerrero, 2005).

The inability of Chinese MNCs to attract highly-qualified Chinese and non-Chinese to work for them was evidenced in Tung’s (2007) survey of university students in Canada. These students were enrolled in business administration, engineering and computer science – disciplines needed by Chinese MNCs. While the majority of Chinese students would like to return to China to capitalize on the rapid growth and developments at home, most of them preferred to either start up their own businesses or work for foreign-invested enterprises. In the case of non-Chinese students, while many were willing to entertain the idea of working for Chinese subsidiaries in North America, the vast majority did not want to work for Chinese firms in China. The primary reason for this was their inability to distinguish between Chinese MNCs and the Chinese government. My findings of Canadian students were replicated in Tung, Worm, and Petersen (2008) study of Chinese and Danish university students in Denmark. The findings of my studies are, by and large, consistent with the results obtained in an online survey of 3097 Chinese students in 49 countries around the world conducted by World HR Lab in 2004. An overwhelming majority (88 percent) of the respondents in that survey planned to return to China in the future, although 53 percent of them wanted to work overseas for several years before going home. Only 3 percent chose to work for Chinese state-owned enterprises (SOEs); women respondents were particularly averse to working for SOEs. The reasons for preferring foreign-invested firms included higher salaries, better work environment, and greater opportunities for training and development (World HR Lab Survey, 2004).

Collectively, these findings suggest that disparity in levels of economic/technological development can affect the job choice of high-demand talent. That is, local nationals in developing/emerging markets are attracted to working for foreign-invested firms in their countries while host country nationals from industrialized countries may be averse to working for EMMNCs. Leung and Morris (2014, p. 18) have attributed this finding to “the status of China as a developing country with few leading firms”. As such, “Western employees may view their Chinese bosses as high in position power, but low in expert power ... (which) may handicap their legitimacy as effective leaders”.

Even in the case of Japanese and Korean MNCs, both industrialized countries, they continue to face many challenges in their operations abroad (Clarke & Lipp, 1998), including alleged preference to locate in communities with high concentrations of Asians and avoiding areas with large concentrations of African-Americans (Cole & Deskins, 1988).

3.2. Brain circulation

The dual phenomena of boundaryless careers (DeFilippi & Arthur, 1996; Tung, 1998) and brain circulation (Saxenian, 2000) have rendered, in part at least, the traditional concepts of brain drain and brain gain obsolete as migrations may no longer be considered as a permanent state (Carr, Inkson, & Thorn, 2005). Earlier on, reference was also made to Saxenian’s (2000) finding of the establishment of dual beach-heads of business by high-tech immigrants in Silicon Valley. In fact, dual residence on both shores of the Pacific has given rise to the phenomenon of “astronauts” and “parachute children” (Tung, 2008a). This phenomenon is evidenced in a survey of 2000 high net worth individuals by Barclays Bank (i.e., people whose net worth exceeded USD1.5 million) from 17 countries around the world. The survey found that, one, 57 and 20 percent of the respondents have resided in “one” and “three or

more” countries, respectively; two, international career aspirations, capitalizing on investment opportunities wherever they could be found, and seeking better education for their children are all important drivers for these high net worth individuals to become “global citizens”; and, three, most respondents plan to retire in their COO for “emotional and psychological” reasons (*The Rise of the Global Citizen?* 2014).

Ex host country nationals (EHCNs). In light of the rising incidence of “astronauts” and “global citizens”, when conducting global mobility studies, should these individuals be considered as expatriates or host country nationals? Arbitrary assignment of them to either one of these categories on the basis of ethnicity or nationality (as determined by citizenship or COR) has important implications, both theoretical and practical. From the theoretical perspective, since most studies use country as a proxy for culture, intra-national diversity stemming from the presence of “astronauts”/global citizens could only mask differences in the processes and values under investigation (see Caprar, 2011; Tung & Verbeke, 2010). From the practical perspective, given the increasing use of EHCNs in international assignments, guided in large part by the “homophily” assumption presented earlier, a fundamental question pertains to who are expatriates and who are host country nationals.

The categorization of such people as expatriates or host country nationals have important implications in terms of training for cross-cultural encounters, compensation, and performance appraisal. This does not mean that EHCNs do not experience difficulties and challenges in operating in their COO. However, the issues of acculturation, and topics of investigation in traditional international human resource management – such as staffing and selection, training, development, performance appraisal, compensation and repatriation – have to be re-interpreted as they take on a different meaning in the context of human capital circulation. Repatriation, for example, “the bane of international assignments to date, may be rendered non-existent in the case of EHCNs and brain circulation” (Tung, 2008a, p. 471).

This challenge of how to treat sub-cultural groups, such as “astronauts” has led me to coin the term Ex-Host Country Nationals (EHCNs) to refer to people who share the same ethnic background as those in the target country of operation (Tung, 2006). Using the case of the Chinese, for example, EHCNs can broadly be categorized into three groups: ethnic Chinese (a) who were born and raised abroad; (b) born in China and raised/educated abroad and who have spent *most* of their life abroad; and (c) born and raised in China and who have spent *some time* abroad for educational and work reasons. Data collected on EHCNs from China and Central and East Europe (Tung, 2006; Tung & Larazova, 2006) suggest that EHCNs are indeed a unique group. Furthermore, not all EHCNs are equal because there are substantial differences among the EHCNs in categories (a) (b) and (c).

Bicultural identity. Furthermore, even within a given category, there can be differences. The bicultural identity integration (BII) index developed by Benet-Martinez and Haritatos (2005, p. 1015) has been used to assess the extent to “which a bicultural individual perceives his/her two cultural identities as ‘compatible’ (high BII) versus ‘oppositional’ (low BII)”. In the area of headquarters-subsidiary relationships, expatriates have often been used by headquarters (HQ) to maintain adequate control over its subsidiaries (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; Harzing, 2001). This perspective is based on the assumption that expatriates align themselves more closely with HQ’s objectives and values. The growing use of EHCNs in international assignments and the rising incidence of brain circulation challenge us to re-examine the social control and agency perspectives, important reasons in the deployment of expatriates. In other words, can we assume that EHCNs or those with boundaryless careers have the best interests of

headquarters at heart or their own self-interests? This goes beyond the issue of “divided loyalty” that has been researched in the past.

Immigrant effect. Earlier on, it was noted that the ‘immigrant effect’ could contribute to the use of a higher resource commitment mode, such as wholly-owned subsidiaries or international joint ventures, in foreign market entry into the COO of these immigrants (Tung & Chung, 2010). In a comparative study of Indo-Canadians vis-à-vis Indo-Americans (i.e., ethnic Indians living in the U.S.), Chand and Tung (2011b) found that, in general, Indo-Canadians have a higher BII as compared to their American counterparts. However, BII was inversely related to initiating trade with the COO. In other words, those with low BII (as in the case of Indo-Americans) were more likely to initiate trade with their COO. These exploratory studies suggest that we can gain a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between BII and trade facilitation through further research.

In addition, since not all EHCNs are the same, it raises the specter of internal racism raised earlier. The Chinese government, for example, continues to see EHCNs in category (c) as Chinese. EHCNs in the latter category are referred to as “returnees” (*haigui*) whereas those in (a) and (b) are *huaqiao* (or overseas Chinese). While “returnees” (i.e., EHCNs in category c) may be more favorably perceived by local nationals in (Tung, 2008b), the punishment meted out to them could be more severe in the event of wrongdoing. Consider the case of Stern Hu, an executive with Australian multinational, Rio Tinto, who received a 10-year prison sentence for accepting bribes over a million dollars. A question can be raised as to whether this tough sentencing would be made if Stern Hu were a white Australian or if he was a *huaqiao* or overseas Chinese? Stern Hu falls into “c” category of EHNC (*haigui*) as he was born in Tianjin, China and graduated from Peking University before he took up Australian citizenship in 1994.

4. Conclusions and discussion

Writing this paper has provided me with an opportunity to retrospect on how far the topic of IHRM has evolved in the course of the past three decades – from a study of the challenges encountered by U.S. expatriates and their performance abroad to a more comprehensive understanding of expatriates from other countries (albeit primarily from industrialized nations), whether company-sponsored or self-initiated. At the same time, working on this paper has helped me organize my thoughts on issues that remain unanswered but which merit research attention.

In this paper, I have identified the seismic shifts that have taken place since the publication of my 1981 piece – globalization/regionalization, the war for talent and brain circulation, the rise of emerging markets and the increasing roles they play in the global economy, and the espousal of boundaryless careers by many high-demand talent. Collectively, these developments mean that multicultural teams will be the norm rather than the exception and intra-national diversity within a given country can often be as significant as those across countries.

Throughout the paper, I have discussed how the colossal shifts necessitate that we fundamentally rethink many of the conventional wisdom pertaining to theory and practice in the area of IHRM. Consider the case of adopting a region-centric approach to HRM policies and practices. This approach is popular among many multinationals because of the purported advantages of cost effectiveness and greater fit based on the assumption that it is easier for peoples from culturally similar countries to work with each other. If the phenomenon of “inverse resonance” (or internalized racism) discussed in this paper were to hold in multicultural teams and can affect leader-member relationships among peoples within a given geographic region, it calls into question the concept of homophily that has guided much of our

research on cross-national and intra-national interactions. In addition, it calls for a greater need to undertake research on other varieties of diversity, and the interaction effect between race and gender, in terms of how they affect selectors' perception of fit/suitability. Religious traditions of members, in terms of how they affect interactions in the team and leader–membership relations, were not included in this paper but definitely merit research attention. In addition, the paper has alluded to how biculturalism, multiculturalism, and self-identity can be significant in terms of understanding group behavior and organizational outcomes. In short, our research needs to capture more of the complexities of these variables and their interactions to reflect reality.

Similarly, the phenomenon of brain circulation has challenged us to fundamentally rethink our definitions of who are expatriates (whether company-sponsored or self-initiated) and who are locals. This categorization has tremendous implications for selection criteria, training, performance appraisal, and compensation. Furthermore, the growing trend toward boundaryless careers has meant that the concepts of organizational control, organizational commitment and repatriation have to be re-examined. The Caligiuri & Bonache paper highlights the magnitude of this issue – according to the 2013 statistics by the UN Population Division, an estimated 232 million people live outside of their COO, albeit not all 232 million people subscribe to boundaryless careers. With boundaryless careers, the issue of talent management, the focus of Cascio & Boudreau's paper, becomes even more salient. Researchers and practitioners alike should focus on the best ways to attract, motivate and retain the “star players” alluded to in the Cascio & Boudreau essay. In other words, we have to revise the parameters and the ways in which we have conducted research on IHRM; otherwise, we risk examination of phenomena that have changed considerably in light of these new realities.

Aside from the need to better understand the antecedents, dynamics and processes associated with talent management to attract, motivate and retain “star players”, the growing trend toward boundaryless careers highlights the need to recognize how HRM policies and practices have to be re-examined in the changing context of “non-organizational” employees that Cascio & Boudreau alluded to. The *Economist* has dubbed this phenomenon as “UberJobs” and “McJobs” where people, akin to freelancers, who are not employees of a specific organization “sell” their services “in a series of short-term assignments arranged by smartphone app” (“McJobs and UberJobs”, 2015). Boundaryless careers in the global context share certain characteristics with the Uberjob economy in that labor laws in most industrialized countries are rooted in traditional employment practices that were developed in the context of the late U.S. President Franklin Roosevelt's Fair Labor Standards Act. These standards were subsequently emulated in other countries. Traditional employment practices are framed in an organizational context where people are full-time employees of a specific organization until they leave, either voluntarily or involuntarily. Citing Manyika, Lund, Robinson, Valentino, and Dobbs (2015), Cascio & Boudreau estimated that in the future, over 40 percent of the workforce will fall into the non-organizational employee category. These developments necessitate that researchers, practitioners and policy makers examine how traditional employment practices and concepts – such as performance appraisal, turnover, absenteeism, organizational commitment, leadership, and so on – have to be revised or risk irrelevance in light of these new realities.

Given the growing presence of MCTs and the burgeoning phenomenon of brain circulation, it is equally fallacious to assume that culture is more or less stable over time. The growing incidence of EHCNs and “astronauts” will hasten the rate and magnitude of cultural change. As Tung and Verbeke (2010, p. 1266) noted, “... it may be more difficult to gauge the impact of these demographic

variables and their interaction effects than taking the country scores from Hofstede or the GLOBE index on a given country” as there is no readily available intra-national diversity index that researchers can resort to.

In this paper, I have proposed the use of Harrison and Klein's (2007) typology of diversity as a schema to facilitate the conduct of research on multicultural teams in both the cross- and intra-national contexts. This can also help address Caligiuri & Bonache's emphasis on the need to take context into consideration to better understand global mobility. In so doing, we can perhaps reconcile some of the inconsistent findings between diversity and organizational performance that have plagued the field to date. Furthermore, it can help reframe the types of research questions that merit attention under the rubric of “modern approach to global mobility” (1990s and beyond) summarized as Table 1 in Caligiuri & Bonache's essay. In particular, the fine-tuning of research on Host Country Nationals (HCNs), including EHCNs, can address Caligiuri & Bonache's allusion to the fallacy of treating local nationals as a “homogenous unit”, a point that echoes my assertion of the need to differentiate three categories of EHCNs presented earlier in this paper.

Furthermore, the rise of emerging markets that I have highlighted in this paper has also been reflected in the Cascio & Boudreau and Bird & Mendenhall papers. The former talks about the “waning of U.S. dominance” and the latter stresses the need that U.S. management practices may no longer represent the “pinnacle” to be emulated by other countries. Future research should focus on bi-directional learning in IHRM rather than the traditional focus of knowledge transfer from industrialized to developing countries.

In conclusion, I hope the perspectives I have presented in this paper have shed useful insights on how the war for talent and brain circulation have challenged us to fundamentally rethink the parameters and the ways in which we have conducted research on IHRM, culture and international management; and, more importantly, open the path to new and exciting topics that can more accurately reflect the realities of the world that we live in.

I will close on a personal note – writing this paper has given me with an opportunity to introspect on my evolution as an avid student of cross-cultural interactions that arise from global mobility. My quest to better understand the interactions between expatriates and locals has not diminished over the decades because as the landscape changes, I see new horizons that challenge me to rethink the concepts and issues that surround the phenomenon. In this regard, I am reminded of the poem, “Ulysses”, written by British Poet Laureate, Alfred Lord Tennyson, that I first read as a child and which continues to inspire me. Ulysses, a character from the Greek Odyssey, spent most of his adult life traversing the high seas in search of new adventures and knowledge. Tennyson wrote how Ulysses was “always roaming with a hungry heart” as:

... all experience is an arch wherethro'
Gleams that untravel'd world, whose margin fades
For ever and forever when I move.
How dull it is to pause, to make an end,
To rust unburnish'd, not to shine in use!

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