GLOBAL TALENT MANAGEMENT OF SKILLED MIGRANTS: CURRENT AND FUTURE RESEARCH

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GLOBAL TALENT MANAGEMENT OF SKILLED MIGRANTS: CURRENT AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Research on both global talent management (GTM) (Al Ariss, Cascio & Paauwe, 2014; Vaiman, Scullion & Collings, 2012) and skilled migrants (SM) (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013) has been escalating in management literature. However the two fields have generally been studied separately, leading to a lack of research on SMs as part of the global pool of human resources or "talent" (Crowley-Henry & Al Alriss, 2016). Yet, the topic of SMs is easily related to that of GTM given the valuable and sought after skillsets and competencies that SMs bring to their employer organizations, making them valuable human resources.

The contributions of SMs to the human capital and economies of both host and home countries are well recognized (OECD, 2017). With the ever more extensive internationalization of business, there is an increasing demand for mobile and skilled workers. Kerr, Kerr, Özden, and Parsons (2016) maintain that the most successful individuals and employers will be those that are best able to navigate the current global labor markets and sidestep government-imposed limitations on high-skilled immigration, implying the critical importance of SMs to the successful functioning of the organization, and thus their management as valuable human resources.

However, research findings predominantly report on the underemployment and underutilization of SMs' human capital by their employer organizations (Almeida, Fernando, Hannif & Dharmage, 2015; Batalova, Fix & Bachmeier, 2016). SMs are not yet recognized as "talents" in TM organizational processes (Crowley-Henry, O'Connor & Al Ariss, 2016).

In this chapter, we focus on the under-recognized and under-researched connection between SMs and GTM. Our objectives are 1) to review selected literature on SMs in the management literature; 2) to examine the links between SMs and GTM through two theoretical approaches that have been used in both lines of research, 3) to propose specific HRM practices that could facilitate a more strategic utilization of the SM pool in GTM, and 4) to propose a research agenda for future avenues of research on GTM of SMs.

Definitions: GTM and SMs

Global talent Management. Talent has been defined as "the human capital in an organization that is both valuable and unique" (De Vos & Dries, 2013: 1818). The human capital pool represents the sum of employee skills within an organization at any point in time. The most commonly accepted definition of *strategic TM* is that proposed by Collings and Mellahi: "activities and processes that involve the systematic identification of key positions that differentially contribute to the organization's sustainable competitive advantage, the development of a talent pool of high-potential and high-performing incumbents to fill these roles, and the development of a differentiated human resource architecture to facilitate filling these positions with competent incumbents and to ensure their continued commitment to the organization" (2009: 304). With the increasing internationalization of businesses, the term *global talent management* (GTM) has emerged and encompasses organizational initiatives that contribute to attracting, selecting, developing, and keeping the best employees in the most important roles worldwide (Vaiman et al., 2012).

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Skilled migrant. The United Nations (UN, 2013) and the International Labor Organization (ILO, 2014) define a **migrant** as a person who is foreign-born or a foreign citizen. In the OECD reports, "Low-skill migrants" are considered to have completed primary education, if they have at least six years of primary schooling; "Intermediate skill-level migrants" have between three and six years of secondary education; and "highly skilled migrants" have at least four years of tertiary education, i.e. a University degree. The main advantage of these definitions is that each category of the classification has the same meaning for all countries (Dumont, Spielvogel & Widmaier, 2010).

In the academic literature, **a skilled migrant** (SM) is defined as an individual who holds at least a bachelor's degree or equivalent, and who has moved to work and live abroad on a permanent basis (Cerdin, Diné & Brewster, 2014). According to this definition, SMs are clearly different than corporate expatriates who are sponsored by their employers to work and live in another country for a defined period of time (McNulty & Brewster, 2017). SMs are also different than self-initiated expatriates (SIE), and there are at least three differences between them. The first one is related to their main motivations to move. While SIE move internationally for experiential, adventure, or career related reasons (Al Ariss, 2010; Tharenou & Caulfield, 2010), SMs also move for economic, social, environmental and political reasons associated with pull factors of a desirable host country and push factors of a home country in disarray (Mahroum, 2000). The second difference is related to their indented duration of stay. The SIE usually plan to stay in the host country for a temporary duration of stay, but SMs usually move for a non-temporary basis. It is an important difference, because intending to stay on the long term is likely to give SM a stronger commitment to overcoming the challenges and succeed in reestablishing their life in the host country. The third difference is related to the number of persons on the move. The decision to move can involve more people than just the migrant him/her self, as the SMs usually bring their families with them (Hooper & Salant, 2018; Yeoh & Willis, 2005). For these reasons, SMs are a distinct category of international employees than both corporate and SIE, despite possessing similar levels of valuable skills and qualifications, and contributing to the talent pools of companies experiencing skills shortages.

Skilled migration in numbers. In the past decade, the number of SMs in OECD countries has increased by 70% (OECD, 2014). In 2017, there were 258 millions international migrants worldwide, representing 3.4 % of the world's population in 2015 (UN DESA, 2017). In 2015, 64.7% of international migrants worldwide resided in the G20, and half of the migrant population in the G20 resides in four countries: the United States, Germany, the Russian Federation and Saudi Arabia. (OECD, 2017). In 2015, more than 25% of international migrants in the G20 were SMs, and 20% of these SMs came from India, China or the Philippines (OECD, 2017). In general, the highest rates of SMs migration are observed for the smallest and/or poorest countries. In Barbados, Guyana, Haiti, Trinidad and Tobago, Belize, Mauritius and Tonga, emigration rates for the tertiary educated individuals are above 50%, which means there are more tertiary educated citizens of those countries living abroad than in the country itself. On the other hand, several countries have very low highly skilled emigration rates, most of them being very populated and/or high income countries, like the United States, Japan, Saudi Arabia and China (OECD, 2017).

Global migrant stocks, including among the high-skilled, are more or less gender-balanced (OECD, 2017). In 2010/11, 52% of all highly educated migrants in the G20 were women. In

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2010/11, nearly 16.6 million highly educated women and 15.4 million highly educated men migrated in the G20. The feminization of SMs is a growing phenomenon in most countries, but is especially prevalent in a number of key origin countries. For example, in 2010/11, female migrants represented 64% of all SMs in the Philippines, and more than 61% of SMs from Russia, Japan and Brazil (OECD, 2017).

1. SKILLED MIGRANTS IN THE MANAGEMENT LITERATURE

In the management literature, SMs have been studied at three levels.

At the Micro-Individual Level

At the micro-individual level, studies focus on the individual factors that affect the work and life experiences of SMs. These studies examine the SMs' individual context and personal history to better understand their work and life experiences.

Research topics include the different categories of SMs, their career orientations, their motivations to migrate, the form of human capital they possess (Al Ariss & Syed, 2011), the language deficits affecting their labor market experiences (Syed & Murray, 2009), their strategies to relocate from home to host countries and to advance their careers in the host countries (Al Ariss & Syed, 2011; Almeida, Fernando & Sheridan, 2012; Evans & Kelley, 1991).

For example, Tharmaseelan, Inkson & Carr (2010), studying migrants, including SMs, from Sri Lanka to New Zealand, examined how individual characteristics (human capital and motivation to migrate) and post-migration behavior (social integration and career self-management) predicted migrant's post-migration career success. They found that in general, migrant's occupational status declined markedly after their migration. However, migrant's human capital, social integration and career self-management substantially contributed to explaining objective career success. Motivation to migrate had no influence.

Limited research has examined the socialization strategies of SMs (Malik, Cooper-Thomas & Zikic, 2014). Rajendran, Farquharson & Hewege (2017) examined how SMs integrated into their Australian workplaces. Beneficial individual integration strategies included deciding to make it work; actively seeking information and support; working hard to be valued as workers; and socializing with co-workers in formal and in formal ways.

A few studies took a gendered perspective on SMs and examined the experiences, challenges, and career strategies of high-skilled female migrants (Myers & Pringle, 2005; van den Bergh & Du Plessis, 2012). Donato et al. (2006) highlights the hardships high-skilled female migrants face in finding employment, compared to their high-skilled male counterparts.

SMs, because of their high level of career agency, individualism, proactivity, and non-conformity, may be less likely to commit to and stay for the long term with the host organizations, and present specific HRM challenges, requiring the organizations to develop HRM strategies that correspond to their unique characteristics (Doherty, 2013).

At the Meso-Organizational Level

At the meso-organizational level, studies focused on organizational characteristics and practices that have an impact of SMs' employment and management. Organizations play an

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important role in managing and optimizing the talents of their migrant workforce (e.g., Foley & Kerr, 2013).

A stream of research showed that SMs face discrimination in many forms: the most documented forms are skills underutilization, low earnings, prejudice, stereotypes (Almeida et al., 2012), restrictions on physical mobility, poor work conditions, and abuse by employers (Rodriguez & Mearns, 2012). In 2014, nearly 2 millions SMs in the United States, around 25% of the SMs, were either unemployed, unable to find work, or working in low-skilled jobs including as dishwashers, security guards, or taxi drivers (Batalova, et al., 2016; Zong & Batalova, 2016). This skills underutilization of SMs is often referred to as "brain waste". Employment discrimination toward migrant minorities does not impact all migrant minorities equally. Some ethnic minorities are more likely to be subject to negative stereotypes or receive negative employment outcomes than others (e.g., Dietz, Baltes & Rudolph, 2010; Turchick Hakak & Al Ariss, 2013). For example, in the USA, Asians and Whites SMs suffered significantly less from skills underutilization than their Hispanic or Black counterparts (Batalova et al., 2016).

Another stream of research examined the management and HRM practices that impact SMs' employment. Almeida et al. (2012) examined the hiring process of SMs in Australia. They found that organizational characteristics such as organizational type, client ethnicity and management style have an impact on the employers' level of tolerance, comfort levels and stereotypes in relation to SMs, job specifications' design, competency frameworks and selection methods, all of which can subsequently result in either the selection or rejection of SMs in the hiring process. Almeida, Waxin & Paradies (2018) found that recruiters with lower levels of cultural capital (i.e. knowledge and experience about diverse cultures) were less likely to think that SMs with different communication styles, international education and experiences, and appearances (attire and religious affiliation) would fit in their company. They showed that recruiters' cultural capital was influenced by their individual exposure to diversity, and also by their organizations' culture, values and type. The authors stressed the importance of developing the recruiters' cultural capital, so that they do not discriminate against well-qualified SMs during the hiring process.

Some research focused on organizational socialization practices. Rajendran, et al. (2017) examined the formal and informal practices that foster the migrants and SMs' integration into their Australian workplaces. Beneficial formal organizational integration strategies included establishing a formal induction programme (introducing organizational norms regarding workplace interaction to all new employees), establishing a diversity committee, and key skills development. Useful informal integration practices included the concept of mutual help (i.e. a cohesive small group, mentoring each other), an empathetic supervisor, and mentoring through networking. Malik & Manroop (2016) proposed that organizational customized socialization (instead of individualized or collective) tactics would facilitate the SMs' socialization process by increasing their social integration and role performance, the factors which would ultimately facilitate their workplace adjustment.

There is a lack of research on HRM practices and diversity management practices that could facilitate the employment of SMs, and a better utilization of their valuable skills and experience (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

At the Macro-Contextual Level

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At the macro-contextual level, studies examined the role of the states and organizations in regulating labor migration and shaping the experiences of migrants in their home and host countries. Quantitative studies examined issues such as national and regional legislation, migrant employment policies, anti-discrimination policies, migrants' education and skills recognition policies, country of origin and destinations, economic benefits of migration for labor markets, brain drain, brain gain, migrants' educational and professional attainments, unemployment, and self-employment (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013).

Brain drain designates the migration of a significant proportion of skilled individuals from their home country (Bushnell & Choy, 2001). Research on brain drain generally asserts that the long-term expatriation of skilled individuals results in a loss of human capital for the countries of origin. Ultimately, these countries, having invested in the education and qualification of their citizens, are unable to reap the rewards of their skills and employment (Santos & Postel-Vinay, 2003).

Studies on *brain gain*, on the other hand, note the economic advantages that migrants bring about for their host countries (Bardak, 2005; Santos & Postel-Vinay, 2003). SMs represent an important human capital contribution in national labor markets, bringing with them higher productivity, entrepreneurial assets, and trading opportunities (OECD, 2017). SMs add to the talent pool in their host countries and are often employed in higher income professional or managerial positions that cannot easily be filled with locals (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015). For example, in 2014, in the USA, SMs represented 32 percent of computer programmers, close to 30 percent of health-care support professionals, and nearly 26 percent of physicians (Zong & Batalova, 2016).

SMs also bring economic advantages to their home countries. For example, migrants who return often advantageously bring with them the know-how and skills acquired during their experience overseas. Such movements allow the emergence, development, and utilization of networks and exchanges between host and home countries at both cultural and economic levels (Bardak, 2005). Beine, Docquier & Rapoport (2008) found that the proportion of skilled workers in developing countries increases as a result of skilled emigration, since skilled migration tends to entail a cultivation of education in the source countries.

Moreover, remittance flows constitutes a significant source of financial income for numerous SMs home countries around the world. Migrant remittances are beneficial for both recipient countries, augmenting their foreign exchange reserves, and recipient households, increasing their income. Remittances boost output growth, if invested, and generate multiplier effects, if consumed. Some of the main sending and receiving countries of migrant remittances around the world are included in the G20 (OEDC, 2017).

However, the magnitude of SMs' contributions to the host country depends on the recognition and use of their skills in the labour market and more broadly on their labour market integration, and there cannot be a positive impact of migration on origin countries unless immigrants are safe and making a decent living in their host countries (OECD, 2017).

2. EXAMPLES OF THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS USED IN CURRENT RESEARCH TO LINK GTM AND SM

The dominant organizational approaches to TM are founded upon the perspective put forth by the human capital theory (HCT) (Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss 2016). While HCT considers the level of education and qualifications, it does not extend to less tangible facets of capitals such as cultural knowledge and social network. In this regard, Bourdieu's theory of capital (BTC) could

be of relevance, because it allows to situate SMs' different forms of capital in their national and organizational contexts. Both approaches are discussed in this section.

Review of Human Capital Theory with Regard to Skilled Migrants

The HCT has, for a long time, had an influential role in shaping our understanding of GTM and HRM issues both at the meso- and macro-levels. It is therefore important to understand its assumptions with regard to research on SM.

The term, *human capital,* refers to the accumulation of skills and qualifications, educational and professional, in a given individual (Becker, 1993; Kulvisaechana, 2006). HCT was initially expounded in the 1960s by Gary Becker and Theodore Schultz (Becker, 1975; Schultz, 1963). HCT is based upon two fundamental assumptions.

The first assumption is that an individual's status in the labor market is governed by his/her human capital (merit). The details of one's education and professional experience, both principal sources of human capital, are critical factors in positioning an individual in the labor market (Lin & Huang, 2006). The individuals with high level of human capital will necessarily earn high incomes, enjoy bounteous professional prospects (Mejia & St-Pierre, 2008) and enjoy the luxury of choice as to which career path to follow (Becker, 1993; Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2009). The theory furthermore states that all individual action is motivated by a rational calculation of gain, and that all social activities and behavior are understood and rationalized in economic terms.

The second assumption is that human capital is credited with enhancing an organization's productivity and financial competitiveness: the individuals bring economic advantages to their employer companies and indeed to their countries (Birasnav & Rangnekar, 2009). Increased productivity and financial return is the ultimate focus of HCT (Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Lin & Huang, 2006).

The effect HCT has exerted on social sciences literature about skilled migration is evident. At the macro-level, HCT-based studies have tended to focus on issues such as brain drain, brain gain, and migrants' remittance (Baruch, Budhwar & Khatri, 2007). At the meso-organizational level, HCT-based studies tended to assume that those in possession and making use of their human capital will contribute to the increased productivity and competitive advantage of their organization (Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Lin & Huang, 2006). For example, Royal and O'Donnell's (2008) evaluation of data from the Merrill Lynch Investment Bank in Sydney and Hong Kong suggests that investors could deduce expectations of financial performances by assessing the human capital within an organization.

Literature on talent waste, unemployment and underemployment has, however, largely challenged these assumptions (Lee, 2005). For instance, while countries like Canada have strict qualification requirements regarding the entry of their SMs, the career outcome for those newcomers is often subject to unemployment and under-employment experiences (Turchick Hakak & Al Ariss, 2013).

Furthermore, HCT-based studies have overlooked micro-level issues, such as the individual career paths of SMs, and meso-level issues, such as organizations perceiving SMs as key talents. The HCT theory, for instance, would provide no explanation behind an individual choosing a particular course of study that guarantees no financial rewards down the line. Any motivating factor that is not economic – be it social, spiritual, personal, etc. – is left unaccounted for. While education, training, and experience are all important factors in enabling people to attain their professional goals, there are many other factors at play in contributing to securing a person's

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position in the labor market, including the individual him/herself who takes on an active role in shaping his/her own career path (Inkson, 2008). At the meso level, issues such as cultural, social, and non-material factors are also important to consider (Robeyns, 2006). Skilled migrants should not be stripped of their culture, gender, identity, and personal history (Davis, 2003; Fine, 2002). Finally, human capital is ultimately only as valuable as organizations and governments recognize it to be (Al Ariss & Özbilgin, 2010).

For these reasons, the assumptions of the HCT are questionable when it comes to the topic of skilled migration. In the next section, we explain Bourdieu's theory of capital as an alternative, and a more adapted theory to study skilled migration.

Understanding Skilled Migration through Bourdieu's Theory of Capital

An alternative to the HCT may be found in Bourdieu's theory of capital (BTC) (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992). Below, we discuss BTC's two key advantages in regard to research on SMs' GTM.

The first key advantage of using BTC's approach when studying SMs' GTM is that it allows a relational approach between the different forms of capital. Rather than focusing on a single form of human capital, BTC acknowledges four forms of capital that can be mobilized by SMs: social, cultural, economic, and symbolic (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992). Economic capital translates directly into money (for example, property rights (Bourdieu, 1986: 243)) and is therefore always related to financial resources (Bourdieu, 1986: 243); cultural capital covers cultural, linguistic, and academic qualifications (Bourdieu, 1986); social capital includes personal and professional relationships and networks (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992: 119); and symbolic capital is the power that enables an individual to deploy his/her economic, cultural, and/or social capital (Özbilgin & Tatli, 2005). Symbolic capital could take the form of an individual's decision-making power within their company, for example. It is the power that gives a SM influence in the society around him/her and the capacity to overcome constraints and take opportunities. Furthermore, BTC's approach to understanding how capital is accumulated and deployed is **relational, i.e.** the different forms of capital (social, cultural, economic, symbolic) are inter-connected. For instance, by attending university in the host country, a SM has the chance to build up his/her cultural capital, yet it is economic capital that initially makes this experience possible.

The second key advantage of using BTC's framework to understand how individuals accumulate and deploy capital is that it allows a **multilevel approach**, taking into account the meso- and macro-level context of an individual's activities, which bear influence on his/her decisions and experience over time (Bowman, McGann, Kimberley & Biggs, 2016; Nawaz, Tasawar, 2017). BTC takes into account the contexts in which SMs' individual experiences take place: an individual's deployment of the different capitals is viewed within the meso- or macro-context, which may or may not enable such deployment. Because migrants cannot be extracted from their social (e.g. stereotypes in host societies about migrants; history of certain migrant groups into specific countries) and institutional settings (for example, the national/regional laws and regulations that establish the entry, work and living conditions for migrants), context is important. Bourdieu introduces the concepts of *habitus* and *field* to be able to contextualize, at the macro-level context, the individual experience of capital accumulation and deployment.

The term *habitus* denotes individual- or group-level knowledge or understanding of that which is unspoken and unquestioned. It is often interiorized and functions as such. For SMs, habitus includes their values, conduct, manners, speech, and dress that is customary for them in

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their daily life in society (Mills and Gale, 2007). Habitus functions subconsciously, guiding the actions of individuals who feel a "sense" of how they should react and behave "without consciously obeying rules explicitly posed as such" (Bourdieu, 1990: 76); it confers SMs with an intuitive knowledge of the right action to take in a given social situation in their host countries without the need for conscious deliberation (Bourdieu, 1990).

Field is another concept that assists us in perceiving the macro-level context, that is to say, the setting in country or society, of SMs' experience of accumulating or deploying capital. Field is an arena that is socially structured wherein individuals compete with each other in the accumulation and deployment of capital. For example, in artistic fields, agents may vie to exert their cultural authority (Bourdieu, 1985; Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992: 17). Within a field, there are apparatuses that generate capital: educational institutions that supply cultural capital; businesses that yield economic capital; and various social networks that engender social capital, as well as governmental institutions which function as regulators of power within the field. So for SMs, their capital accumulation is most fruitful when they are able to deploy it in the context of a field, such as the field of medicine, that of academia, and that of the arts.Every field demands SMs therein to partake of the game or competition to obtain and utilize their capital. It is an individual's capital – how much a migrant has and in what form, for instance – that establishes his/her position in the field (Peillon, 1998), and an his/her interest in accruing and deploying capital as well as efforts to do so that lead a migrant to his/her position (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992: 117). In any given field, individuals act, either alone or with others, strategically to preserve and/or augment their power (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992).

For SMs, habitus and field are related in two key ways. Firstly, habitus is structured by the field: the deeply ingrained habits that SMs acquire are born of the social space they inhabit. Secondly, it is habitus that makes of the field a world of meaning and value in which SMs want to invest their efforts (Bourdieu & Wacquant, 1992: 127).

In sum, BTC invites us to understand the accumulation and deployment of capital of SMs from a relational and multi-level approach which is of key relevance to understanding GTM of SMs. It widens our conception of SMs' capital beyond human capital to include economic, cultural, social, and symbolic capital: these different forms of capital can be more accurately mobilized by organizations. BTC also allows the linking of the three levels of context when studying SMs, and so enable a better understanding of all the factors that shape SMs' work and life experiences, and of how their considerable human capital might be best utilized.

3. HRM PRACTICES THAT FACILITATE EFFICIENT GLOBAL TALENT MANAGEMENT OF SKILLED MIGRANTS

This is beyond the scope of this chapter to examine the strategies and practices that facilitate SMs' employment at the micro-, meso-, and macro-contextual levels. As this book will mostly be read by managers, we focus on the HRM practices that could facilitate SMs' employment at the organizational level. Drawing on the literature on global assignments, expatriation and diversity management, we suggest some HRM practices that could facilitate a more strategic use of the SMs in GTM.

Development of an Inclusive Culture

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The development of an inclusive culture, supported by top management, and the determination and communication of clear HR planning goals related to the employment of designated employees are key elements in diversity management. Clear and consistent communication to all stakeholders regarding the inclusiveness of the firm's culture, the development of appropriate employee value propositions, and the demonstration of top management support and accountability for SMs' employment and development could enhance the organization's attractiveness to SMs (Panaccio & Waxin, 2010).

Proactive and Differentiated Staffing Practices

With some careful adaptation, certain HRM staffing practices that promote diversity and inclusion could be useful in facilitating SMs' employment. In designing job specifications, it is important to focus on content-valid, job-relevant criteria and to eliminate other non-required and/or discriminatory criteria. The over-emphasis on work experience in the host country regardless of actual job requirements often prevents qualified minority employees from getting the job (Waxin, 2008; Waxin & Panaccio, 2004). When employing SMs, job-related technical skills should be considered more important than prior foreign experience and cross-cultural competencies, which are more commonly used for selecting career expatriates (Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

The active use of internal recruitment methods such as job posting on internal career sites, internal skill databases, and internal referral programs ensure that diverse and minority internal candidates are made aware of job openings (Panaccio & Waxin, 2010; Waxin & Panaccio, 2004; Waxin, Lindsay, Belkhodja & Zhao, 2018). Referrals can work effectively across sectors and industries.

Moreover, the use of multiple and specifically targeted external recruitment methods can help to increase the recruitment base of designated employees (Panaccio & Waxin, 2010; Waxin et al., 2018) and could be helpful to attract SMs. For example, foreign-language newspapers can be an effective method of attracting SMs. Job advertisements and organizational brochures can feature employees of diverse identities and backgrounds, and can openly state that the organization supports diversity. The recruitment team itself might also include SMs, and should participate in special events within targeted communities to attract the best talent from these communities. Specifically targeting under-tapped populations such as women or residents of particular geographic areas could furthermore enlarge the recruitment pool (Waxin & Bateman, 2016).

At the selection stage, proper recognition of skills and experience, anti-discriminatory selection testing, structured behavioral, situational and competency-based interviews, adequate inclusion of SMs on selection panels and in the HR department could all facilitate the hiring of SMs. Training of selection committee members is important for these individuals to gain an understanding of workforce diversity, cultural differences, and the existence and effects of stereotypes together with ways to handle them (Panaccio &Waxin, 2010; Waxin, 2008). Providing SMs with realistic previews of job content, job social context, and living conditions could help them to adapt, and become efficient in their work in a shorter period of time (Richardson, McBey & McKenna, 2008).

Facilitation of SMs' Integration into The Organization

From the expatriation management literature, we know that organizational, job-related factors such as job clarity, job autonomy, and support from colleagues and supervisor all help

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international employees to better adjust to their job (Waxin & Chandon, 2003) and reduce their time to proficiency (Waxin, Brewster, Ashill, & Chandon, 2016). From the literature on diversity management and socialization, we know that designing and implementing an orientation program, a mentoring system (Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Zikic, 2015), and providing a supportive supervisor, all facilitate the professional and social integration of diverse employees, and could facilitate the integration of SMs (Malik et al., 2014; Panaccio & Waxin, 2010; Rajendran, et al., 2017). Organizational integration policies could include support from the HRM department with logistical and administrative issues, such as, for example, application of residency / work permits, application for a driver's license, choice and settlement of health insurance, house hunting (Kühlmann & Heinz, 2017).

Training, Development, and Career Support

From the expatriation and diversity management literature, we know that on-site language training, inter-cultural training (Waxin & Panaccio, 2005), mentoring, coaching, on the job training and job rotations (Fang, Zikic & Novicevic, 2009; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010) all foster diverse employees' motivation and ability to integrate quickly into the organization. The broader social and psychological contract between employer and employee often proved to be more important than financial rewards to engage and retain talent. Training, development, career advising, and fair treatment could help increase retention and engagement of the highly mobile employees. Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss (2016) claim that organizations could benefit across all organizational levels by aligning their human resource development strategies with both the objective and subjective career motivations of SMs, by recognizing that SMs' motivations may differ considerably from host country employees, and by applying gradual, horizontal, or flexible career for SMs.

4. FUTURE RESEARCH AVENUES ON GTM OF SMs

There are several avenues for future research that would offer important contributions to the growing body of research on GTM of SMs.

First, there is a need for more research at the organizational level on how organizations could develop HRM practices and policies to facilitate the utilization of knowledge and skills of SMs (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015; Howe-Walsh & Schyns, 2010).

Second, the topic of SMs as a source of global talent and competitiveness to organizations is clearly missing from cross-country comparisons (Al Ariss & Sidani, 2016). For example, there is a lack of information on how national HRM practices differ in their attraction, recruitment, selection, training/development and retention of SMs. Future studies could also examine how companies, across different national contexts, proactively reduce the obstacles blocking SMs' career paths, thus enabling more successful migration experiences.

Third, there is also a lack of research into the socialization and acculturation of SMs: what are the individual and organizational factors that facilitate their integration into the organization, their work performance, job satisfaction, engagement, retention? What are the factors that reduce SMs' time to proficiency? Future research could examine both organizations and SMs' point of

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views, using both qualitative and quantitative research methods. These topics have been studied for corporate expatriates and for SIE, but not for SMs.

Fourth, the experiences of SMs who do not manage to overcome the obstacles they face in the host country would also be worthy of future research. It would be valuable to investigate the reasons and context of SMs' unemployment or underemployment. This research topic, however, may pose challenges in terms of gaining access to the data needed, and those questioned may be reticent to share their failed experiences.

Fifth, there is a gap on SMs' gender-related issues (Crowley-Henry et al., 2016; Guo & Al Ariss, 2015). Male and female SMs could differ in terms of their motivations for international movement, the challenges they face, and the ease with which they are able to adapt to and cope with new cultural contexts (Tharenou, 2010). Though there have been efforts to research these aspects, we still know very little on how gender related factors influence the career transition, job search, and employability of SMs.

Finally, it would be interesting to explore the motivating factors driving institutions in their labor migration management, specifically those factors that are often left unspoken. It would also be worthwhile to study how much organizations are assisted by state institutions in their employment of SMs.

To conclude, this chapter adds to the literature on GTM of SMs in four ways: first, by reviewing the literature on SMs in the management literature; second, by presenting key theoretical frameworks that can be used to study skilled migration and depicting their key assumptions; third, by examining how organizations can more strategically manage the talent of SMs; and finally, by proposing HR practices and a research agenda that promotes a more strategic utilization of the SMs as a global talent pool.

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