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The search for global competence: From international HR to talent management[☆]

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ABSTRACT

This article describes the evolution of the search for global competence through a 50-year content analysis and review of published research in the field of International HR Management (IHRM), and more recently, Talent Management (TM), with special emphasis on the *Journal of World Business*. We present a detailed examination of the IHRM/TM content of the *Journal of World Business* from its inception in 1965 through 2014. To put the results of that review into perspective, we review key themes in global business and strategy from 1965 to the present, noting where IHRM/TM research and business trends correspond, diverge, and lag. Next, we present a brief history of IHRM and TM, showing how the emerging theme of TM offers challenges and promise for connecting future IHRM/TM research with emerging business, strategy, and social trends. We conclude with the implications of our findings for future research, and the importance of the search for global competence.

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“A new role for business is beginning to take shape as a consequence of far-reaching changes in the structure of world commerce . . . at a far faster pace than is sometimes realized, great trading companies, with home offices in many advanced nations, are becoming what has come to be known as multinational organizations . . . This is a powerful unifying influence in the affairs of mankind that has not yet been fully recognized, but which must inevitably make itself more felt in the years to come . . . The multinational company thereby becomes a major vehicle to carry the have-nots toward ‘takeoff’ and the haves into frontier fields.” Courtney C. Brown, Editor, *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 1966.

The celebration of unified multinational organizations (including corporations, but also governments and non-governmental organizations) as the vehicle toward economic prosperity for the “have-nots” and even greater growth for the “haves” contrasts a bit with a more recent prediction for the future in the 21st century. “New competitors are coming from many countries across the world and in numbers that far outpace those of past decades. This

new wave will be far tougher on some established multinationals. The shift in the weight of the global economy toward emerging markets, and the emergence of nearly two billion consumers who, for the first time, will have incomes to support significant discretionary spending, should create a new breed of powerful companies whose global expansion will take place on the back of strong positions in their home markets” (Dobbs, Ramaswamy, Stephenson, & Viguerie, 2014).

Throughout it all, writers have recognized the importance of talent, including all the human and organizational elements that are pivotal to enterprise success, and the pivotalness of leadership that recognizes the human touch: “Executives will be able to make the biggest difference through the human touch . . . asking the right questions of the right people at the right times . . . inspiring the troops, empathizing with customers, [and] developing talent . . . tolerating ambiguity, synthesizing information, and focusing on the ‘softer’ side of management to engage the organization and build its capacity for self-renewal” (Dewhurst & Willmott, 2014, p. 2, 7).

Underlying the evolution of global business, this human touch takes the form of a search for global competence – managerial, cultural, and operational. Global competence is embedded in organizational talent and the systems and leadership that organize and deploy it, but it is increasingly embedded within a workforce that lies beyond the familiar boundaries of regular full-time employment, and is empowered by technologies, platforms, and connectedness that could hardly be dreamt of in the 1960s. The

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search for global competence is a race with no finish line, but instead, it is one with many hurdles and benchmarks.

This article describes the evolution of the search for global competence through a unique lens: a 50-year content analysis and review of published research in the field of International HR Management (IHRM), and more recently, Talent Management (TM), with special emphasis on the *Journal of World Business* (known as the *Columbia Journal of World Business* from 1965 to 1996).

The article is structured as follows. We begin by examining the IHRM/TM content of the *Journal of World Business* from its inception in 1965–2014. We will describe the relative emphasis on IHRM/TM topical areas, as well as changes in them, as reflected in ten 5-year blocks from 1965 to 2014. To put the findings of that review into perspective, we then identify key themes in published work on global business, strategy, and society from 1965 to the present, and show how the results of our 50-year review correspond or do not correspond to those global trends. We then present a brief history of IHRM and the recent emergence of TM, and note the challenges and opportunities of this evolution for enhancing IHRM/TM research, and its relevance to broader trends. We conclude with a discussion of the research implications of our findings with respect to current and emerging trends in business as well as in IHRM/TM. Let us now turn to our central empirical question, the trends and evolution of research as embodied in the 50-year history of the *Journal of World Business*.

1. Methodology

We used content analysis, a method that converts qualitative material into quantitative material that subsequently can be analyzed, subject to the limitations of nominal-level measurement (Aguinis, Henle, & Ostroff, 2001). More specifically, our data-collection procedure consisted of reviewing every article published in every issue of the *Journal of World Business* (from 1965 to 1996 known as the *Columbia Journal of World Business*) between the inaugural issue in 1965 and the final issue of 2014 on the basis of its content. In total, we reviewed 2444 articles that were published during that 50-year span. At a general level, our objective was to identify every article that was relevant to the broad domain of international human resource management, defined earlier as the study and application of all HR management activities as they impact the process of managing people in enterprises in the global environment (Tarique, Briscoe, & Schuler, 2015). A total of 358 of the 2444 published articles, 14.6 percent, addressed IHRM topics. Thus, this field is clearly not the dominant focus of the journal, as would be expected for a journal designed to reflect the full array of global business research. To appreciate the trends of other articles published in the *Journal of World Business* over the same time period, see, for example, the following articles in this Special Issue: Hitt, Li, and Xu on international strategy; Knight and Liesch on internationalization and entry mode; Beamish and Lupton on cooperative strategies in international business and management; and Anderssen, Dasi, Mudambi, and Pedersen on technology, innovation, and international connectivity.

The 50-year period from 1965 to 2014 spans five decades; for most researchers that is longer than their entire professional careers. Assuming a 5-year graduate training period, 50 years spans ten cohorts of new scholars and practitioners in the field who contributed to the published literature, and thus it is important to assess the aggregate nature of changes in that literature.

1.1. Taxonomy for classifying articles

To provide a systematic basis for content coding each article, we initially developed a taxonomy that included 9 broad categories,

which we expanded subsequently to include a total of 21 categories (plus two additional ones to account for various dimensions of authorship). The final version of the taxonomy, plus definitions of each category, which we used to code all the articles, is contained in Appendix A. We developed the taxonomy in an iterative fashion. We began by identifying key themes, as reflected in review articles and textbooks that described the field of international human resource management. We then pilot tested several early versions of the taxonomy by content coding the first 20 years of articles published in the journal. The pilot test revealed the need for a more refined classification scheme to cover the broad range of topics in the field of IHRM.

The inclusion of the full range of 21 subcategories shown in Appendix A resulted in a content-coding scheme that provided complete coverage of all articles in the 20 years that comprised the pilot test. We then applied the taxonomy to all other years of published articles.

Like any other taxonomy that is created inductively, we cannot say unequivocally that this is the only possible taxonomy. We can say, however, that it is sufficiently comprehensive to classify each of the 358 IHRM articles included in our review. Also, it is important to note that the comparison of publication trends with broader business trends involves the inevitable task of trying to map categories from one area onto the other. This can be challenging, especially when the terms used by academics and practitioners do not always overlap.

1.2. Time blocks

Although the coding of the articles was done year by year, we aggregated the results on the basis of 5-year time blocks, resulting in the following ten time periods: (a) 1965–1969, (b) 1970–1974, (c) 1975–1979, (d) 1980–1984, (e) 1985–1989, (f) 1990–1994, (g) 1995–1999, (h) 2000–2004, (i) 2005–2009, and (j) 2010–2014. Five-year time blocks are arbitrary, but they represent a smoothing technique that is more likely to reveal underlying trends. As we noted earlier, they also generally represent a complete period of doctoral training. Examination of content categories on a yearly basis creates noise, or illusory trends, that tends to be clarified over longer time periods.

2. Results

Two individuals independently categorized 120 articles using our taxonomy, the first author's research assistant at the University of Colorado Denver, a second-year graduate student, and a librarian at the Center for Effective Organizations at the University of Southern California. Of the 120 articles, the two raters agreed on the categorization of 107 of them, for an 89 percent level of agreement. Of the remaining 13 articles, there was no single category that accounted for the bulk of the disagreements. The two most common areas of disagreement were "management practices" and "training, development, and learning".

We found the following numbers of IHRM-related articles, the total number of articles, and the percentage of IHRM-related articles for each of the 10 selected time blocks:

| | |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1965–1969, 20/301 Articles (6.64%) | 1990–1994, 12/244 Articles (4.92%) |
| 1970–1974, 38/369 Articles (10.3%) | 1995–1999, 32/154 Articles (20.78%) |
| 1975–1979, 34/264 Articles (12.88%) | 2000–2004, 45/150 Articles (30%) |
| 1980–1984, 22/222 Articles (9.91%) | 2005–2009, 40/207 Articles (19.32%) |
| 1985–1989, 21/252 Articles (8.33%) | 2010–2014, 95/308 Articles (30.84%) |

With the exception of the 1990–1994 and 2010–2014 time frames, the number of IHRM-related articles published every five years by the *Journal of World Business* varies from 20 to 45, or roughly 4–9 per year. From 2010 through 2014, however, the

number more than doubled to 95, or an average of 19 per year. Until 1994, fewer than 13 percent of the JWB articles in each 5-year time block were related to IHRM. Beginning in 1995 and continuing through 2014, however, that percentage varied from just under 20 percent to slightly more than 30 percent in each 5-year time block. While it is not possible to say what caused such a jump, there were two special issues on talent management during that time frame, and scholars may have seen that as a signal that the *Journal of World Business* actively encouraged the publication of IHRM-related papers.

2.1.1. Author affiliations

We looked at three facets of this issue by 5-year time block: (a) USA, non-USA, or both; (b) academic authorship, non-academic, or both; and (c) authorship by continent. Table 1 shows results for the first two types of classifications.

As Table 1 demonstrates, the percentage of USA authors in each 5-year time block ranges from 52.4 to 87.5 from 1965 through 1994. Beginning in 1995 and continuing through 2014, however, the percentage of USA authors drops systematically, from 46.4 to 12.7, while the number of non-USA authors rises from 46.4 to more than 60 percent through 2014. Note also the rise of combinations of USA and non-USA authors through 2014, indicating more international collaboration. With respect to the continent of authorship, detailed counts are available from the authors, but it is fair to say that prior to 2000, almost all authors were from North America or Europe, with only 12 articles published by Asian authors, and only two by Australian authors. Since 2000, however, the percentage of non-North American authorship has increased sharply, with almost one-third of all published articles now reflecting combinations of authors from continents other than North America.

This seems consistent with business and talent-management trends, as we shall see. Business and strategy issues were recognized to be less universal and more culture- and region-specific during the 1980s and 1990s. Moreover, general business research also showed an increase in non-USA authors and theoretical frameworks, and business writers and leaders recognized the need for non-USA-based theoretical frameworks. In addition, this period saw the emergence of a larger group of scholars outside the USA than in any earlier periods.

In terms of academic versus non-academic and combinations of the two as authors, Table 1 shows clearly that with the exception of the first ten years of the journal (along with 1990–1994, when only 12 IHRM-related articles were published), the percentage of non-academic authors remains very low. Most of the authors of articles in *Journal of World Business* are academics, and collaboration between academic and non-academic authors has been very low over the 50-year span of this review. This is not unusual for scholarly journals, but it does suggest an arena in which advances might be made. As the trends in business and talent management

suggest, research often lags developments in these areas. This may be due to the fact that research is typically undertaken by those in academic positions, who may not be as close to the emerging issues as practitioners, and thus must wait for issues to become very prominent before recognizing them as worthy of study.

Table 2 shows the percentage of IHRM-related articles that were published in *Journal of World Business* by topic and five-year time block. As Table 2 demonstrates, the clear “winner” in terms of its popularity over time is the category “Management Practices.”

With the exception of the 1990–1994 time frame, when the *Journal of World Business* published only 12 IHRM-related articles, and none on “Management Practices,” that topic remained consistently popular through the years. The percentage of articles on it ranged from 15.8 percent in 1970–1974, to 50.5 percent in 2010–2014. It is a broad category, with the majority of articles addressing four topics: comparative management practices, leadership, the management of expatriates, and more recently, talent management. Other topics in this category that appeared with less frequency included managing people in the global enterprise, management decision-making, project management, and crisis management.

With respect to comparative management, from its inception and continuing through 2014, the *Journal of World Business* has been a premier outlet for the publication of articles that describe management practices and leadership styles in countries around the globe. These articles comprise a large segment of the “Management Practices” category in all time blocks (except 1990–1994 when no articles were published in this category). Multiple articles described management practices and leadership styles in Japan, China, Germany, France, Britain, India, and South Korea, while others focused on economies as diverse as Canada, Mexico, Hungary, Portugal, Thailand, Saudi Arabia, Nigeria, Namibia, Zambia, Zimbabwe, South Africa, Mozambique, Vietnam, and Hong Kong. More broadly, a 20-year review of the the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project, begun in the early 1990s, provided a deeper understanding of the complex, fascinating relationships among societal cultures, organizational behavior, and leadership processes (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, & House, 2012).

In the context of broader business and talent-management trends, it appears that research in the *Journal of World Business* focused on an important issue that emerged in the 1960s and 1970s, namely, the need for greater understanding of cultural diversity and the effectiveness of differentiated management practices across regions. As we shall see, this is quite consistent with the transition from exporting management practices from North America to adapting practices to fit an increasingly connected and complex global organization. It is also consistent with questioning the applicability of USA-centered theories applied to other cultures and regions. That said, the dominance of research on comparative management practices may mean that certain specific topics were not addressed, such as the human resource and talent implications of global wealth distribution, environmental and socio-economic turmoil, and the advent of increasing social connections through technology.

When we looked more closely into one of the popular sub-categories under “Management Practices,” namely, the management of expatriates (including inpatriates) – their selection, training, adjustment, compensation, performance, careers, and repatriation – we found an interesting pattern. Fig. 1 shows this graphically.

There was relatively little published research on expatriates in *Journal of World Business* from 1965 to 1979 (5–5.8 percent of published articles in the broad field of IHRM). The percentage rises to 9.1 percent from 1980–1984, to 14.3 percent in 1985–1989, drops to zero in 1990–1994, then rebounds to 31.25 percent in

Table 1
 Percentage of authorship by 5-year time block.

| | USA | Non-USA | Both | Academic | Non-ac. | Both |
|-----------|------|---------|------|----------|---------|------|
| 1965–1969 | 70 | 30 | 0 | 40 | 60 | 0 |
| 1970–1974 | 71 | 21.9 | 7.1 | 57.6 | 42.4 | 0 |
| 1975–1979 | 67 | 22.3 | 10.7 | 70.1 | 19 | 10.9 |
| 1980–1984 | 52.4 | 38.1 | 9.5 | 90.5 | 9.5 | 0 |
| 1985–1989 | 84.2 | 15.8 | 0 | 72.2 | 11.1 | 16.6 |
| 1990–1994 | 87.5 | 12.5 | 0 | 58.3 | 33.3 | 8.4 |
| 1995–1999 | 46.4 | 46.4 | 7.1 | 92.8 | 7.2 | 0 |
| 2000–2004 | 26.3 | 65.8 | 7.9 | 91.9 | 8.1 | 0 |
| 2005–2009 | 18.4 | 60.5 | 21.1 | 94.7 | 5.3 | 0 |
| 2010–2014 | 12.7 | 62.1 | 25.2 | 89.5 | 3.1 | 7.4 |

Table 2
 Percentage of IHRM-related articles by topic and 5-year time block.

| | Labor relations | Training | Performance | Empl/Unempl | Rec/staffing | Labor Mkts. | Attitudes/Beh. |
|-------------------|-----------------|-------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|
| 5-year time block | | | | | | | |
| 1965–1969 | 25 | 5 | 0 | 10 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1970–1974 | 18.4 | 2.6 | 5.3 | 0 | 2.6 | 7.9 | 5.2 |
| 1975–1979 | 8.8 | 5.9 | 0 | 14.7 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1980–1984 | 27.3 | 0 | 0 | 4.5 | 4.5 | 0 | 0 |
| 1985–1989 | 14.3 | 14.3 | 4.7 | 4.8 | 4.8 | 0 | 4.8 |
| 1990–1994 | 0 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 16.6 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1995–1999 | 0 | 3.1 | 6.2 | 0 | 3.1 | 6.2 | 3.1 |
| 2000–2004 | 0 | 13.3 | 13.3 | 0 | 6.7 | 0 | 4.4 |
| 2005–2009 | 0 | 5 | 15 | 2.5 | 12.5 | 0 | 12.5 |
| 2010–2014 | 1 | 4.2 | 8.4 | 0 | 4.2 | 0 | 3.1 |
| Sat./dissat. | Motivation | Empl rel'ns | Job percep'n | Part'n/empower | Int'lization | Org des/restr | |
| 5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2.6 | |
| 0 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 4.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 0 | 9.5 | 9.5 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 0 | 8.3 | 8.3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 3.1 | 0 | 6.25 | 6.2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 2.2 | 2.2 | 2.2 | 4.4 | 4.4 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 2.5 | 0 | 5.5 | 2.5 | 0 | 0 | |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 5.2 | 1 | |
| HR practices | Mgm't practices | Diversity | Comp/ben | Soc'l respon. | Retire/careers | Trends | |
| 0 | 25 | 0 | 20 | 0 | 5 | 5 | |
| 0 | 15.8 | 2.6 | 21.1 | 0 | 2.6 | 7.9 | |
| 2.9 | 41.2 | 0 | 5.9 | 0 | 0 | 2.9 | |
| 0 | 22.7 | 9.1 | 13.6 | 0 | 9.1 | 0 | |
| 0 | 23.8 | 4.8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 14.3 | |
| 8.3 | 0 | 16.6 | 25 | 0 | 0 | 0 | |
| 3.1 | 40.6 | 9.4 | 9.4 | 0 | 3.1 | 0 | |
| 0 | 26.6 | 6.6 | 0 | 2.2 | 6.6 | 4.4 | |
| 2.5 | 20 | 10 | 5 | 0 | 15 | 0 | |
| 3.1 | 50.5 | 3.2 | 2.1 | 0 | 1 | 3.2 | |

1995–1999, stays high at 22.7 percent from 2000–2004, reaches a peak of 40 percent in 2005–2009, and then drops precipitously to 8.4 percent from 2010–2014. In the Winter 2001 special issue of *Journal of World Business* on IHRM (Schneider & Tung, 2001), for example, five of the seven articles published focused on expatriate issues.

This pattern seems to reflect a lag between trends and research. Since the 1970s there has been prominent recognition in business research and talent management that the use of expatriates was significant. Since the 1970s writers have posed fundamental questions about exporting home-country practices or redefining them to fit new cultures, a key issue for the definition of performance for expatriates, and thus the talent management and human resource practices supporting them. Yet, it was not until the mid-1990s that such research became widespread in the *Journal of World Business*, and it has remained a focus well into the

21st century, despite the fact that research on business, strategy and talent management has turned toward issues reflecting more nuanced approaches.

Another big reason for the drop in expatriate-related articles after 2009 is the rise of talent management. As we will discuss later, the 1990s, and particularly the 2000s, have seen increasing research recognition of the need for attention, not simply to managing expatriates, but to the appropriate optimal mix of expatriates, home-country nationals, and third-country nationals, and the talent management systems to enable and support that optimization. A 2007 article in *Journal of World Business* by Collings, Scullion, and Morley, “Changing patterns of global staffing in the multinational enterprise: challenges to the conventional expatriate assignment and emerging alternatives,” called attention to the emergence of a portfolio of alternatives to the traditional international assignment, including short-term assignments, commuter assignments, international business travel, and virtual assignments. They argued that a standardized approach to international assignments is untenable and that it is essential to develop HR policies and procedures that reflect differences in the various forms of emerging alternative international assignments and their associated complexities. That theoretical orientation led to the rise of “talent management,” and *Journal of World Business* published 21 articles on it from 2010 to 2014, including two special issues (Al Ariss, Cascio, & Paauwe, 2014; Scullion, Collings, & Caligiuri, 2010). Again, this is a welcome development, but as we shall see, it seems to reflect the earlier emergence of practical business and strategic dilemmas that revealed the limitations of restricting global talent management to expatriates only.

Labor Relations is a topic that was quite popular in the early years of the journal, comprising 25 percent or more of published articles in the 1965–1969 and 1980–1984 time periods. However,

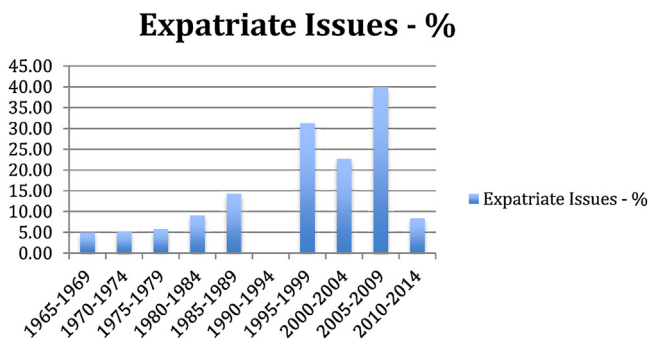


Fig. 1. Percentage of articles published in the *Journal of World Business* on expatriate issues, in 5-year time blocks from 1965 to 2014.

after 1989 the topic virtually disappeared, with only one more published article on it in the 2010–2014 time frame. This seems consistent with the significant drop in the number and influence of unionized employees and their unions, particularly in the USA, during the 1980s. While labor unions remained more consistently influential in some countries outside the USA, the USA-centric tendency in *Journal of World Business*, particularly in the 1980s, may have created a pattern in which labor relations scholars saw other outlets as more appropriate.

Compensation and Benefits followed a similar pattern, comprising 20, 21.1, and 25 percent of published articles, respectively, in 1965–1969, 1970–1974, and in 1990–1994. In all other time periods, the percentage of published articles on this topic was much lower, and even dropped to zero in 1985–1989 and 2000–2004. Considering the prominence of global issues related to the role of incentives in risky behavior, global wealth inequality, and the need to integrate policies such as rewards across regions, it is difficult to explain the drop in this topic based on business, strategy and talent-management trends. It may reflect the emergence of other research outlets for such work. While the other categories in the taxonomy did comprise some of the published research over the 50-year span of our review, relatively few of them exceeded 14 percent (a natural break in the distributions by category) of published IHRM-related articles in any 5-year time block. They were: Training and Development, Employment and Unemployment, Diversity, and HR Trends (e.g., changes in the representation of nationalities in global organizations, trends in promotion patterns).

3. Discussion of the 50-year review

Research on IHRM and GTM (Global Talent Management) over the last 50 years in the *Journal of World Business* shows some predictable patterns in authorship and affiliation, with a notable increase in authors from outside North America over the decades. This reflects a broader trend in business research, namely, the emergence of a focus on regions outside North America and the development of strong research communities in those other regions. The topics of the articles also show some predictable patterns. The clearest pattern is the dominance of research on management practices, with the leading topics being comparative practices between countries and regions, and the management of expatriates. This coincides with the emergence of a broader global business focus from exporting home-country practices to optimizing the mix of global and local practices. There also seems to be an emerging pattern to examine practices through the lens of global talent management, rather than the lens of individual human resource practices. While the construct of GTM remains ambiguous, there appears to be some progress toward a more rigorous and common understanding, built upon principles of holistic integration across HR practices, and a focus on global competence, rather than global HR practices themselves.

Research on expatriates also shows continued high popularity, but more recent special issues and calls for new research directions seem to be having an effect on modifying this work to increase the focus on home-country and third-country nationals as key leadership components. Again, this reflects earlier trends in business research, which evolved from the notion of exporting home-country strategies to a more nuanced and integrated approach that recognizes global issues. Taken together, the increased attention to talent management, moving beyond an exclusive focus on expatriates, suggests a shift toward a search for global competence.

It is rare to see practitioners represented in the authorship of the articles. This is not unusual in scholarly journals, but it may offer an opportunity. Our observation is that the research on IHRM

and GTM tends to lag evolutions in the practice of global HR and talent management, often by quite some time. It is possible that greater involvement of practitioners would help shape research issues and approaches to reflect more current and emerging dilemmas.

In summary, our review of research published in the *Journal of World Business* does not suggest the “great divide” that Cascio and Aguinis (2008) found in their comparison of industrial-organizational psychology research with the trends in the HR field. To put the current review into perspective, our next section considers broader events in the development of global business from 1965 to the present, and compares those events with the results of our 50-year review. Following that we examine some historical developments in the evolution of IHRM and GTM.

3.1. Some key events in the development of global business: 1965–present

We conducted a selective review of articles by decade, beginning in the 1960s, that offered predictions or summaries of the trends describing global business, particularly global business strategy, as a backdrop to examining how IHRM and TM have evolved. Our review suggests broad trends that, as we shall see, are often reflected in the IHRM and TM research, but are not always fully captured by that research.

3.2. The 1960s: from strategy as individual art to strategy as integrated and data-based decision science

The decade of the 1960s celebrated the emergence of algorithms and computational approaches to disciplines such as finance, operations management, and marketing. That evolution motivated predictions that business and strategy were evolving from an art to a decision science. Strategy and business direction had resided in the capabilities of a unique set of leaders and futurists who could anticipate the future and act upon it. Writers in the 1960s noted that the power of mathematical optimization and computation would allow strategy to become more analytical and less subjective. They predicted a modern management approach that would be built upon mathematical models, not gut feel (Ansoff, 1964). This was the era in which classic strategy and management models emerged as influential, including Ansoff and Weston (1962), Drucker (1958), and Simon (1960), and the emergence of the notion that strategy could be more analytic, and that it could be studied in a more structured fashion using normative models of decision theory. Ortner (1964) proclaimed “It is now possible to construct mathematical “models” of our business and industrial systems so that we may try out ideas before committing them to reality” (p. 8). Writers hailed this new decision infrastructure as enabling a new approach to organizations that would allow them to grow more easily and to span multiple regions and markets, bringing insights from their home markets scientifically applied to predict performance in new markets. There was also a prevalent belief in the colonial model of the 1960s, where the developing world shared the belief that large global businesses were an equitable path to a better life for all.

Thus, perhaps it is not surprising that our review of research suggests that IHRM emerged as a field of study primarily in the 1970s. The prevalent belief in the 1960s that computational efficiency would make strategic decisions more algorithmic and that global business would naturally enhance global well-being and equity did not suggest thorny questions about organization design, human factors, and potential unpredictability and complexity that would eventually emerge as globalization became more advanced.

3.3. The 1970s and 1980s: computational power and data, skepticism of global institutions, and Japanese attention to the human factor

The 1970s brought the turmoil of large- and small-scale global military conflict, the stubborn persistence of socioeconomic inequality, and the reality of energy shortages, motivating more sobering observations about the limitations of large global entities with a free hand in their markets to automatically produce social, economic, and political progress and equity. Wright, Kinard, and Iverstine (1982) characterized the 1970s as a time of increasing suspicion and disappointment with the progress of third-world economies, and a forecast that the 1990s would bring greater social and institutional mechanisms (cartels, government restrictions and requirements) to force large organizations operating in developing countries to share the economic benefits. Some noted that the promise of mathematically and computationally enabled global corporate planning, so popular and widely praised in the 1960s, had waned, with many organizations actually reducing their strategic-planning activities (Ringbakk, 1972). The political, economic, and social events of the late 1960s and 1970s created a reality of unpredictable exogenous factors, complexity, and nuanced interconnections that required more than optimization algorithms and trend analysis. Writers increasingly held transnational business organizations accountable for their roles either in reducing wealth inequality or exacerbating it. Szalai (1971) chronicled the growing complexity and pervasiveness of international organizations, including inter-government organizations, non-government international organizations, and multi-national businesses that essentially function as inter-government organizations. Taylor (1986) described the period 1974–1979 as “Business Under Attack.”

The 1980s saw the emergence of Japan as the first global economic superpower from Asia. There was an increasing representation of research from locations other than America and Canada, and the emergence of research examining the relationships between multiple organizational problems across multiple cultures at the same time. The emerging management frameworks were notably based on principles about people, talent and human resources. The Japanese approach emphasized employee involvement, total quality, investments in human capital learning and development, the power of culture and leadership, and relentless small improvements in process and product quality (kaizen). The global success of Japanese management also reinforced the reality that non-Western management approaches were embedded in national and social cultures that were distinct from the West, and yet could produce highly successful global competitors.

The management approaches of the 1960s emphasized more centralized approaches that focused on high-level strategies and computational, data-based predictions and extrapolations. Now, business strategy was increasingly focused on human design issues such as teams, employee involvement, and culture. Taylor (1986) called the new approach “strategic management,” as distinct from the “strategic planning” of the 1970s and “long-range planning” of the 1960s. Taylor (1986, p. 17) noted that the most important new frontier is “implementation,” and “corporate development as an integrated process,” including strategy, organization structure, human capital development, and employee involvement.

This is reflected in our review. IHRM emerged as a field of study in *Journal of World Business*, in the 1970s, following an emphasis by management scholars that organizations be seen not simply as mathematically modeled engines of economic growth. Rather, they are complicated entities that must confront human resource issues such as cultural conflict and differences, expectations of constituents that reach beyond economic outcomes, socio-political dilemmas, and the values and norms of constituents that increasingly hold organizations accountable for their issues and

agendas. That said, the IHRM research also exhibits a lag, with Table 2 showing a significant focus on labor relations, HR practices such as compensation and benefits, and issues of employment/unemployment. There appears to have been an emphasis on economics and cross-national practices, well into the 1980s and even the 1990s, despite growing evidence in management and strategy that a more holistic approach was needed, for example, as embodied in the Japanese model, which went well beyond simply extending U.S. models through expatriation. It was not until much later that IHRM researchers would pointedly address the possibility that a focus on “human resources” practices might need to evolve to a broader focus on “talent management.”

3.4. The 1990s: the “information economy” and waning U.S. dominance

The decline in U.S. global economic dominance during this period saw the emergence of research questioning the universality of American management theories (Wright & Ricks, 1994). Those researchers noted calls to evolve from an *anthropocentric* (man at the center) view of the planet toward a view of man as interdependent with nature. The “greening” of business, and emerging efforts at socially responsible entrepreneurship echoed the calls in the 1970s for examining the effect of large global organizations on wealth inequality and resource shortages, but extended it to suggest that organizations’ social contributions must reflect a triple bottom line.

Writers noted the arrival of the “information economy,” with trillions of electronic devices sharing data, operability, and connections. Every business became an information business, as value propositions rapidly shifted from physical assets to data and intellectual assets. Bricks-and-mortar retail was disrupted by digital shopping. Co-located teams were disrupted by the ability to connect individuals from any location to another. Digitized work ushered in the opportunity to outsource production that formerly was best done inside one organization and in a central location, to a dispersed set of global locations. The increasing interconnectedness and immediate visibility of global events and perspectives led to a greater appreciation of the importance and value of alternative cultural perspectives. There was a sense that objectives previously regarded as independent or even irrelevant to corporations must now be accomplished simultaneously (Marcovitch, 1997, p. 530).

Our review showed a similar pattern of consistency with these trends, yet with a time lag, and with a tendency for research to focus more specifically than holistically. There was a pronounced jump in expatriate research in the 1990s, and even through the year 2010, with increasing attention to questions of how to compete globally while operating effectively within local cultures, and enhancing the international and global human capital skills of leaders inside and outside the field of human resources. This seems appropriate to the management trends that evolved in the late 1980s, and the 1990s, but it also reflects a lag, as increasingly the attention of management and strategy writers focused on more holistic issues that went beyond simple expatriation and human resource practices. IHRM research in *JWB* also saw a significant increase in the proportion of authors from outside the United States; during the 1990s that has continued. This seems consistent with both the rise in prominence of non-U.S. academic management programs, but also a reflection of the business and strategy trends requiring a broader perspective.

3.5. The 21st century: micro-segmentation, Chinafication, consumerization, social web, and sharing economy

The oil shortages, terrorism, and stock market swings of the 1970s were mirrored and amplified in the events of the early 21st

century, with fundamental shifts in the availability of clean water, air, and energy due to global climate change, the near collapse of financial institutions long considered too big to fail, the worst global recession in almost one hundred years, and the shock of the 9/11 attacks on New York. There was also a growing recognition that increasing complexity, uncertainty, and unpredictability is the norm, not the exception. Writers coined the phrase “VUCA” (Wikipedia says it was introduced in the 1990s), to mean a world that was volatile, unpredictable, complex and ambiguous. That was recognized as the new “normal” after 2001. Popular management theories and trends included a recognition of the importance of rare events and the fallibility of pundits and others who try to predict the future. For example, a book published in 2006 cited 20 years of evidence spanning 80,000 expert predictions to suggest that the people who are paid to make predictions fare no better than the average person (Tetlock, 2006).

Power was shifting consumers, who demanded ever more customization, power, and personalization (Dholakia & Firat, 2006). For example, Albrecht (2006) identified eight “supertrends” shaping the future of business in the 21st century: micro-segmentation of Customer Markets and Value Targeting; Chinafication; Information Gives Way to Knowledge; Cybermobbing through temporary web communities that spawn to outflank traditional political channels; Vulnerability of intellectual property protections; and Counter Americanism. While many of these trends were apparent decades earlier, their combination suggests a world that will be exponentially more transparent, interconnected, volatile, and consumer- and individual-focused.

The “shocks” to global systems experienced in the past were increasingly recognized as a steady source of future change, creating constant disruption and reconfiguration. These included personal technology, social platforms, and ubiquitously interconnected devices generating big data by the millisecond. The constant advance of these trends promised fundamental shifts in the roles of consumers and producers, employees and employers, institutions and their constituents. The Institute for the Future (Davies, Fidler, & Gorbis, 2011) suggested these skills will be more pivotal for the success of organizations and workers:

- Sense-making
- Social intelligence
- Adaptive thinking
- Cross-cultural competency
- Computational thinking and data-based reasoning
- New-media literacy and persuasiveness
- Trans-discipline understanding and integration
- Design mindset in external environments
- Cognitive load management
- Virtual collaboration

Our review suggests, perhaps not surprisingly considering the recency of these trends, that research has largely not yet addressed them. Table 2 shows some increase in attention to recruitment, staffing, performance management, attitudes, and retirement. These topics certainly touch upon individual-level concepts that reflect the need to differentiate the employee-employer relationship and its outcomes. Still, as we note below, the management of expatriates continues to be a significant IHRM activity and an active area of research, while increasingly extending to other areas such as managing host-country and third-country nationals, integration of worldwide HR practices, and management development. These topics are certainly related to the challenges and skills described above in the business and strategy arena, but the research remains much more focused on human resource practices and expatriate management than the

emerging trends would suggest. In the next sections we address several emerging opportunities to better connect research to these emerging trends.

3.6. Conclusions regarding business trends and IHRM research

Any summary of business trends over a 50-year period is admittedly selective and somewhat subjective. Yet, the broad trends in global business, strategy, and sustainable success that we have noted here are prominent across many disciplines and sources. As a general conclusion, research in the *Journal of World Business* shows a pattern of lagging behind business and global workplace trends, and a similar lack of participation by practitioners. There would seem to be room for improvement in publishing research that adopts a leading position with regard to emerging issues, rather than lagging. Looking at the broad fields of talent management and HR globally, it appears that research generally follows some of the broader trends in business and strategy, but with a decided focus on HR practices and individual or team-level outcomes, lacking direct focus on the specific pivotal talent pools related to emerging issues and strategic success. Moreover, it appears that IHRM research has yet to fully embrace the trends that many identify as the defining business dilemmas of the 21st century.

Earlier, we noted the shift from studying international HR to a search for global competence. This shift is timely in that broader social, economic, and business developments suggest an increasingly changing and interconnected world that will best be addressed by IHRM and GTM research that reflects issues and levels of analysis that can encompass that complexity. Global competence seems a more fruitful platform than a focus on HR practices per se, or the management of expatriates, though both are key components of the search for global competence.

With that in mind, we now offer a brief historical view of the evolution of international HRM, talent management and GTM. This evolution is a core element of the broader research agenda in these fields. We will tie it to the historical trends above, to illustrate how the broader field of human resource and global talent research is evolving to meet the challenges we described above. This historical review also allows us to introduce several emerging concepts such as differentiation, pivotal roles, and star players that are elements of fruitful future directions for research on IHRM in the *Journal of World Business*.

3.7. A history of international HRM/talent management

Globalization (the inexorable integration of markets, nation-states, and technologies) has been evolving constantly over the last 50 years. It is enabling individuals, corporations, and nation-states to reach around the world farther, faster, deeper, and cheaper (Friedman, 1999). This ever-increasing interaction, interconnectedness, and integration of individuals, companies, cultures, and countries implies that every business and every person confronts constant global pressure for competitive excellence (Tarique, Briscoe, & Schuler, 2015). Every aspect of every organization is affected, and HRM is no exception.

International human resource management (IHRM) is the study and application of all HR management activities as they impact the process of managing people in enterprises in the global environment (Tarique et al., 2015). IHRM began to emerge as an area of study and application in the late 1970s and early 1980s as firms began to compete on a worldwide basis (Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2002). As noted earlier, this corresponds to strategy and business trends, such as the rise of the global corporation, along with the recognition that a global strategy requires more than simply extrapolating from the home country.

The turmoil of the 1970s suggested a need for strategies that could recognize cultural diversity, and an early solution was to export home-country knowledge, values, and strategy in the form of expatriate leaders and experts. In fact, however, expatriation began much earlier. Some American multinational firms, such as those in energy (Standard Oil), automobiles (Ford and General Motors), manufacturers of agricultural implements (John Deere, International Harvester), meat-packing firms (Armour, Swift), and electrical-equipment companies (General Electric, Westinghouse) started sending home-country managers overseas as expatriates as early as the 1920s and 1930s (Kaufman, 2004). However, the management issues associated with them did not begin to attract scholarly attention until the late 1960s, primarily in the field of industrial relations (Aldao-Zapiola, 2014; Guimaraes-Horta, 2014; Kaufman, 2014).

Initially attention in IHRM focused on the selection (identifying predictors of success) and compensation of expatriate employees (Reynolds, 1997; Schneider & Tung, 2001; Schuler & Jackson, 2005). Today the management of expatriates continues to be a significant IHRM activity and an active area of research (Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen, & Bolino, 2012), but several other areas also occupy the IHRM space, such as managing host-country and third-country nationals, integration of worldwide HR practices, management development, and other strategically relevant topics (Reynolds, 2004; Tarique et al., 2015). This is quite consistent with the trends we described earlier, where the success of Japanese management and global volatility prompted the recognition that reliance on U.S.-centric frameworks alone was insufficient. Rather than simply exporting home-country systems, we saw an increasing recognition that global leadership requires optimizing a mix of expatriates, with the development of leaders from host countries who can lead within their countries, and then eventually join the home-country leadership team to bring new insights from their host countries to the global strategy itself.

Are companies using fewer expatriates now, and will they do so in the future? To be sure, there are a number of alternatives to the traditional corporate expatriate assignment (typically several years), such as self-initiated expatriates (who finance their own expatriation and are not transferred by corporations); short-term assignees (3–12 months); flexpatriates (employees who travel without their families for 1–2-month assignments); and international business travelers, who take multiple short (1–3 weeks) international business trips (Shaffer et al., 2012). While the number of American expatriates has increased from 700,000 in 1966, to 3–4 million in 1996, and to more than 7 million in 2014 (Gandal, 2014), a recent survey by Pricewaterhouse Coopers (Vilet, 2013) tells a different story. Over the next three years, 70 percent of companies plan to hire local talent, versus 19 percent who plan to use expatriates to fill their talent needs.

3.8. IHRM today

As business has become more interconnected and complex than ever before, the roles and responsibilities of professionals in IHRM have grown correspondingly. Again, we see a parallel to the broader evolutions in strategy and business that at first focused on extrapolating and exporting successful home-country systems, toward a more recent emphasis on a balance between global reach and local roots, as well as a need to focus on issues that go beyond the bottom line (see, for example, Bartlett & Ghoshal, 2002). Similarly, we see an evolution from an early emphasis on HR systems to manage expatriates, to a more diverse set of strategies that include moving international employees among host-country locations, aligning core HR policies with local needs, and tapping the unique perspectives and expertise that reside in natives of particular regions.

According to Sparrow, Brewster, and De Cieri (2012), the IHRM roles and responsibilities now include three broad domains:

- Attracting, engaging, and retaining thousands of employees in many different countries to achieve strategic global business objectives. This also includes managing internationally mobile employees.
- Aligning core HRM policies and practices with the new requirements to compete internationally, while simultaneously responding to local issues and institutional requirements in each country of operation. As an example, consider the case of China. Amid intensified government efforts to combat graft and monopolies, and well-publicized investigations of multinationals such as GlaxoSmithKline, Microsoft, and Qualcomm, MNEs are seeking outside legal advice to ensure compliance with local regulations (Hongyi, 2015).
- Enhancing global competencies and capabilities within the IHRM department, for example, by developing global centers of excellence, shared service centers, and mastering the necessary HR due diligence required of cross-border mergers and acquisitions (Cascio & Serapio, 1996).

More broadly, the SHRM Body of Competence and Knowledge (SHRM, 2014),¹ which is intended to reflect the knowledge and skills required of HR professionals anywhere in the world, and which forms the basis for the SHRM Certified Professional and SHRM Senior Certified Professional examinations, includes 9 competencies. The first of these, HR technical competencies, fall into four broad functional areas: *people* (talent acquisition and retention, employee engagement, learning and development, and total rewards); *organization* (structure of the HR function, organizational effectiveness and development, workforce management, employee relations, and technology and data); *workplace* (HR in the global context, diversity and inclusion, risk management, corporate social responsibility, and, in the U.S., employment law and regulations); and *strategy* (business and HR strategies). In addition, there are eight behavioral competencies, each described in terms that apply either to all HR professionals or only to advanced HR professionals. These are: leadership and navigation, business acumen, ethical practice, relationship management, consultation, critical evaluation, global and cultural effectiveness, and communication. SHRM originated in the U.S., but currently it includes members from more than 160 countries, mirroring the extension of the practice of HR globally. In addition, the SHRM competency framework has evolved to incorporate global and multi-cultural capabilities as prominent elements.

3.9. Talent management (TM)

The human resource planning movement of the 1980s and early 1990s provided the intellectual roots of TM (Sparrow, Hird, & Cooper, 2015). It emphasized the forecasting of staffing needs to meet business needs, planning and managing those staffing needs, succession planning, and short-term management development moves. By the late 1990s and early 2000s, TM was being used as a label in its own right, with debate focusing on how organizations could develop, sustain, and manage pools of talent, etch a talent mindset into the culture of an organization, align various HR programs and processes to the needs of talent, and simultaneously pursue external recruitment and internal talent development

¹ The Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), founded in 1948, is the world's largest organization devoted to human resource management, representing more than 275,000 members in more than 160 countries. Based in the United States, it has subsidiary offices in China, India, and the United Arab Emirates (www.SHRM.org).

(Sparrow et al., 2015). Indeed, Silzer and Dowell (2010) argued that organizations should see talent as a strategic resource, and as a source of competitive advantage. The emergence of this association under the new label, “talent management,” seems to follow the broader evolution of business strategy to reflect more boundaryless and interconnected organization systems, generally, with TM applying that idea to breaking the boundaries between the silos within HR, and connecting the various elements of HR. That evolution began with the emergence of the Japanese management model in the 1980s, which offered a more holistic approach that connected outcomes such as total quality to an array of management practices that included how talent was sourced, recognized, rewarded, developed, and engaged.

Businesses and consulting firms have been driving the practice and discourse on talent management (TM), while the academic field of TM is characterized by a lack of theoretical frameworks (Al Ariss et al., 2014; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Scullion et al., 2010). Research on TM has been lagging behind businesses in offering vision and leadership in this field. In fact, the lack of consistent definitions appears to be the reason why there are at least four different ways of interpreting TM in practice: (1) as a new term for common HR practices (old wine in new bottles), (2) succession-planning practices, (3) a focus on strategic, core jobs that are critical to creating competitive advantage; or (4), more generically, as the management of talented employees (Al Ariss et al., 2014; Collings & Mellahi, 2009; Lewis & Heckman, 2006; Tarique & Schuler, 2012). Collings (2014) has defined TM as the management and development of high-performing and high-potential incumbents in critical organizational roles.

With the internationalization of businesses, a more ‘global’ dimension of TM (i.e. Global Talent Management, or GTM) has emerged. Vaiman, Scullion, and Collings (2012) define GTM as including organizational initiatives that contribute to attracting, selecting, developing, and keeping the best employees in the most important roles worldwide. Notice the emergence of an emphasis on focus, with terms such as “important” and “critical” entering the lexicon of TM and GTM.

Boudreau et al. noted the need for greater clarity in the meaning of terms such as “important” and “critical” (Boudreau & Ramstad, 2007; Cascio & Boudreau, 2011). They suggested a specific application of segmentation and value leverage, identifying “pivotal roles,” where a change in the quantity or quality of individuals who fill them leads to the biggest gains in strategically relevant outcomes. The first step in the strategic management of talent, therefore, is to identify pivotal roles. This provides a focus for TM and GTM, which then identify and develop the characteristics of those who fill such roles that are necessary now, and that will be necessary in the future (Boxall, 2013).

A key limitation of existing work on TM has been a narrow conceptualization of performance, namely, its focus on shareholder returns. Academic researchers are now calling for a wider, multi-stakeholder perspective on the impact of TM and, more broadly, on the construct of organizational effectiveness itself (Collings, 2014; Schuler & Jackson, 2014). What are the most effective outcome variables to focus on in measuring the effectiveness of TM? Collings (2014) argues that organizations that are defined by a sense of purpose, and that prioritize employees as stakeholders, generally have higher levels of alignment between organizational and employee goals, more highly motivated employees, and ultimately more sustainable performance. These arguments are testable empirically, and while there is some evidence to support them in the field of retailing (Cascio, 2006; Ton, 2011), the field would be far richer if additional data in a variety of contexts and industries support the generalization of these findings. The evolution of a focus beyond simply employee performance toward such things as purpose parallels the recent broader developments

in the business literature, focusing increasingly on the greening of organizations, the triple bottom line, and the responsibilities of large global organizations for the behavior of their contractors and supply-chain partners, particularly in developing countries.

A final issue that we wish to call attention to is the issue of “star players” (Aguinis and O’Boyle, 2014; Groysberg, 2010) – a few individuals who contribute a disproportionate amount of output. This issue is especially salient in many developed countries, given the shift in employment from manufacturing to services (knowledge-based organizations), the change in organizations from hierarchies to webs, the change in capital from land and resources to people and innovation, and the transformation of work itself from scripted duties to complex interactions. To the extent it is true that the presence of stars is likely to affect all individual-, team-, and firm-level management theories that address individual performance directly or indirectly, then numerous research questions remain to be addressed. Aguinis and O’Boyle (2014) identified several such questions with respect to employee turnover, job-search behavior, compensation, downsizing, leadership, teamwork, entrepreneurship, and the micro foundations of strategy. An ongoing challenge for researchers in TM will be to address these questions empirically if the field is to advance.

3.10. Achievements and opportunities in IHRM and GTM

Research related to human capital issues is often focused on human resource processes and outcomes at the individual or team level. Yet thorny issues confront global organizations, including the need to manage complex relationships with multiple global constituents, to account for their impact globally on issues beyond financial returns, and to deal with increasing income and wealth inequality. In light of these issues, it is surprising that we have not seen more research in TM, IHRM, and GTM that directly examines issues of individual and organizational capability related to them. What are the pivotal roles and pivotal organizational relationships that have the potential to make large differences in these issues? To what extent do TM practices such as integrated systems and a focus on purpose have an impact on these issues?

Finally, many issues that are emerging in the 21st century seem largely to be ignored by TM researchers, such as work being done by non-employees (Boudreau et al., 2015), social platforms and their effects on consumer demands and social power, and the array of new skills such as a design mindset, cognitive-load management, and new-media literacy. Research has always lagged practice, but it is worth noting that these arenas offer fertile ground for future research, and that their implications are profound for “talent” management that includes work, individual capability, and organizational design. The implications are even more profound and intriguing in their significance for understanding the global workplace. To be sure, there are some early promising attempts to define research agendas regarding talent intermediaries (Bonet, Cappelli, & Hamori, 2013) and to examine the behavior of workers in arenas such as crowdsourcing (Malhotra & Majchrzak, 2014), but the TM field remains ill-defined and it lacks a common nomological framework that can encompass such issues. For the most part, the emphasis in research is on traditional models based on regular full-time employment and the integration of traditional HR practices, albeit applied to a global workforce.

3.11. The workforce “beyond employment”

The nature of the global workplace and talent markets is changing fundamentally, and moving “beyond employment” (Boudreau et al., 2015). Future leadership will increasingly involve optimizing how one gets the work done, not how one manages employees. Estimates are that more than 40% of work will soon be

done by individuals who are not employed by the organization they work for, and that emerging non-employment talent platforms are the key to solving global inequity and opportunity (Manyika, Lund, Robinson, Valentino, & Dobbs, 2015). Yet virtually all present laws, organizational systems, and human resource processes are designed with the assumption that managing full-time employees is how work gets done. A world beyond employment offers options such as alliances, talent trading, tours of duty, freelancers, along with familiar options of outsourcing, temporary employment, and contractors. What are the fundamental dimensions of this new world, and how can they help leaders make better decisions about work and talent? Such changes call into question many of the basic premises of IHRM and GTM research, such as the meaning of “employee” turnover, the nature of engagement with workers beyond one’s own employees, the meaning of “leadership” when those being led are not employees and have well-developed social structures to rate the quality of leaders and organizations, and the very meaning of an “organization” when it is possible to get all the work done through means other than regular full-time employment. A world beyond employment will affect strategic success, socio-economic policies and legislation, and the movement of human capability across the world.

3.12. “Retooling” talent management using non-HR disciplinary frameworks

There are immense opportunities for cross-disciplinary research that draws on the principles of management disciplines to focus on global talent issues. For example, one can conceive of the global movement of talent and work through the lens of a global supply chain, or one can consider risk and scenario optimization for leadership talent through the lens of financial portfolio theory. Boudreau (2012, Chapter 13) noted the need for more research on the “mental models” that comprise leaders’ understanding and approach to talent management (such as “employee turnover is bad and must be reduced”) and how they can be “retooled” by casting them in light of more established mental models. To illustrate, applying inventory principles to employee turnover suggests that some turnover is actually beneficial and that reducing turnover to zero is counterproductive. Research outlets such as the *Journal of World Business* that span business disciplines offer a unique opportunity to invite scholars to explore the value of such “retooling” applied to talent and human capital. The value of such research is even greater in the global context, where mental models may vary greatly across regions and cultures and may explain significant variation in the success of global talent management and global competence.

3.13. Understanding and enhancing the expectations of leaders regarding talent management

The *Journal of World Business* is an apt research outlet for studies that examine the expectations of leaders when it comes to the disciplines and functions that address global competence, whether they are called “HR,” “talent management” or something else. Boudreau (2014) noted that the HR profession is moderately well regarded, but there is little evidence that it has changed significantly over the previous 20 years, and many studies suggest that organization leaders and HR leaders do not consider their organizations ready to meet future challenges in the arenas of leadership and global talent management. Data from decades of research at the Center for Effective Organizations (Lawler & Boudreau, 2015) suggest that while HR has made significant strides in gaining awareness of the need for a more strategic role, implementing information systems and establishing structures

that combine centralized policies with decentralized business partnership, the actual practice of HR remains focused on practices not strategy, business leaders lack information about the quality of their own talent decisions, and the implementation of advanced analytics is very slow. In short, HR remains stubbornly traditional in the face of a global marketplace for work that is changing fundamentally.

In sum, our review of 50 years of research in IHRM and GTM in the *Journal of World Business* revealed few surprises, but several significant opportunities. As with research in other journals, our review suggests that research here reflects, but also lags, key developments in business, strategy, and global competition. The journal has been a significant outlet for research on comparative management practices and expatriate management research. Recent reviews and special issues suggest a bright future for it as a platform for research on an expanding concept of global talent management and the search for global competence. That future can be enhanced by encouraging research that not only studies IHRM and GTM as disciplines in themselves, but that reaches across the boundaries of business disciplines. The search for global competence requires such integration and cross-pollination.

Appendix

Taxonomy and definitions of categories used to classify articles appearing in the *Journal of World Business* From 1965 to 2014

1. *Author Affiliation*: U.S. or not.
2. *Author Academic or Not*: The author/s is/are affiliated with an academic institution (A for academic and N for Not).
3. *Author Continent*: Nationality/(ies) of authors.
4. *Labor Relations*: All union-related topics, such as labor unions, labor law, collective bargaining, strikes, distributive bargaining, and the international trade-union movement.
5. *Development, Training, and Learning*: Individual training and development (HR development) organization development, learning, and knowledge transfer.
6. *Job Performance/Performance Management*: Performance-related topics such as performance appraisal, performance management (PM), performance, competencies, teamwork, and performance feedback.
7. *Employment and Unemployment*: All employment and unemployment-related topics.
8. *Recruitment, Staffing, and Retention*: All related topics, such as attracting employees, job analysis, establishing talent pools, and retention.
9. *Labor Markets*: topics include: labor shortages, labor force demographics, and competitive labor markets.
10. *Employee Experiences, Attitudes, and Behavior*: This category includes topics such as job attitudes, managerial confidence, repatriate experiences, and expatriate adjustment.
11. *Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction*: All topics related specifically to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, as distinct from other job attitudes.
12. *Work Motivation*: All motivation-related topics.
13. *Employee Relations (Conflict)*: Topics such as conflict resolution and relationships among employees and managers.
14. *Job Perceptions*: This category includes employees’ perception about their jobs.
15. *Employee Participation and Empowerment*: All employee participation and empowerment-related topics.
16. *Internationalization*: All internationalization-related topics.
17. *Organization Design, Restructuring, and Change*: All topics related to these themes.
18. *HR Practices*: All HR-related practices not elsewhere classified, including HR strategies and challenges.

19. *Management Practices*: Topics such as talent management, management practices, decision making, co-determination, and management styles.
20. *Diversity*: Topics include work-life fit, minorities, gender issues, and equal opportunity for women and minorities.
21. *Benefits/Compensation*: This category includes topics such as income, wages, pensions, incentives, rewards, workers' compensation, income policy, and pay discrimination.
22. *Social Responsibility*: All related topics, such as child labor.
23. *Retirement/Careers*: Topics include retirement, career development, career opportunities and challenges, and promotions.
24. *Trends*: This category includes all trends (changes over time) in different fields of HR.

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