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DETERMINANTS
OF TALENT MOBILITY IN AFRICA:
TALENT ATTRACTION
AND RETENTION PRACTICES IN GHANA

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Abstract

The paper investigates the determinants of talent mobility in Africa and the role of talent management (TM) practices in talent mobility to Ghana, paying special attention to the determinants of talent mobility in African countries aiming to enhance more extensive economic development by knowledge transfer by expatriates from developed countries. A survey will be conducted on 250-300 expatriates and 50 CEOs and 20 TM consultants already working in Ghana. We expect the results to confirm that with an efficient TM system supported by the government, firms in Ghana can convert expatriates to migrants to enhance expatriate knowledge transfer into Africa, particularly Ghana.

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Introduction

Due to existing globalization processes, African countries need to have more extensive economic growth and development to be better integrated to the global environment. Knowledge transfer from developed to developing countries can be considered as essential tools, whereas talents from expatriates may serve as knowledge acquisition and assimilation mechanism (Artuc et al. 2015). Other researchers including (Allan, 2015; Bimbassis, 2012) have all expressed their conviction that an inflow of skilled expatriates into Africa is necessary to enhance Africa’s economic growth. This is very necessary for example to enable many African countries tap into their diverse natural resources, promote economic growth and reverse the position of Africa from being the second largest continent, but the poorest in the world (Bimbassis, 2012).

In today’s ever increasing global economic and technological competition, global migrants represents a key talent pool for multinational corporations (MNCs) and other organizations, yet they are among the most vulnerable members to suffer in time of economic downturn (Hajiro, Zilinskaite, & Stahl, 2017). Despite these challenges research indicates that more than a billion people rely on migration to escape poverty and conflict, adapt to environmental and economic shocks. They also use migration to improve their income, health, and education of their families (Sutherland, 2013). The role of global migration in expatriate knowledge transfer is so strategic because it serves as a supply base from which expatriates who are generally known as mechanisms for knowledge transfer are distributed to both developed and developing countries. (Cascio and Aguinis 2007) have noted that the successful MNE of the future will be required to source human and intellectual resources regardless of their global location, owing to the increasing competition.
Global migrants make exceptional direct contributions including breakthrough innovations and discoveries and guide the actions of many to promote economic growth. (Sutherland, 2016).

Literature reveals that out of 3% of people who live outside their home town as migrants, 28 million of them are highly skilled migrants residing in OECD countries as at 2010 (representing an increase of 130% from 1990 to 2010 (Sari Pekkala et al, 2016). It is argued that the rising demand for talented staff is partly due to the increased efforts by policymakers to attract them after noticing the central role that they play in economic growth, the positive spillovers generated by skilled agglomeration, transfer of technology, ICT experts, researchers, entrepreneurs, medical staff, engineers and other technical experts from the expatriates that flows from global migration.

As a developing country, Ghana has not been able to attract enough knowledge transfer from the global migration of expatriates. This was confirmed during Ghana’s exploration studies for the discovery of the oil and gas industry. (Odom, 2014), and a number of invitations made by the government of Ghana to many expatriates in developed countries to invest in Ghana’s Oil and gas and mining industries (Darkwah, 2013) This deficiency of expatriate knowledge migration to Ghana is due to a number of economic, political and socio-cultural reasons among others.

Having recognized that expatriates are knowledge holders who are very key to the economic and strategic development of every economy, and for gaining competitive advantage (Rezart et al, 2015), emerging markets, MNEs and government international projects over the world have increased their efforts to attract and retain more expatriates (Mupepi, 2017). This has increased the global demand for expatriates. Literature indicates that as most of them travel as expatriates to various destinations, some are attracted by favorable factors such as better job offers, career development, FDI, job security, political and
economic stability, etc. in their destination countries. Consequently, they extend their stay and eventually become migrants in their destination countries.

This practice in addition to the global competition for talent have made TM consultants recognize the important role of efficient TM practices in facilitating knowledge transfer from expatriates from developed to developing countries. Some researchers insist that TM is important because it includes job rotation, coaching, and mentoring since they are opportunity-enhancing practices, vital in empowering and motivating employees and increasing network intimacy (Jiang et al., 2012). On the part of (Chuang et al., 2016), TM is very important for expatriate knowledge transfer because the practices foster collaboration and teamwork and encourages knowledge sharing and enhances the intensity of social interaction which are very necessary for an emerging economy. Some scholars argue that shortages of international management talent have been shown to be a significant constraint on the successful implementation of global strategies (Scullion and Brewster 2001). Other researchers also keep emphasizing the importance of efficient TM as very critical to organization’s success (Iles et al., 2010), because it is one of the best ways to ensure expatriate knowledge transfer from developed countries. It also serves as a means of filling critical pivotal staff positions locally and internationally thereby promoting business growth.

The challenge now to Africa and Ghana which desperately needs extensive expatriate knowledge transfer is to identify what strategy they can use to attract and motivate these expatriates to prolong their stay and eventually become migrants in Ghana. It is in this context that we deem it necessary to examine how Africa, which is the poorest continent in the world could focus on efficient and appropriate TM practices that could convert “expatriates to migrants” to enable African countries like Ghana get maximum benefit of expatriate knowledge transfer for extensive economic growth and development.
Research Goal

From the research idea of using talent management as an operational tool of addressing brain drain issue on company level and transforming it into brain gain, the research goal is to define the factors that influence talent migration to Ghana and to investigate the role of talent management practices in attracting and retaining expatriates in Ghana.

Specifically, how talent management practices should be developed and implemented to be able to convert “expatriates to migrants” for efficient knowledge transfer to Ghana?

Research questions

1. What are the determinants of expatriate talent mobility from developed countries to Africa, particularly to Ghana?

2. What talent management practices can be used in Ghana context to attract and retain expatriates and stimulate knowledge transfer from developed countries?

3. How can Ghana use talent management practices to neutralize the negative perception of Ghana as a destination country for expatriates and covert them to migrants?

The rest of the paper is organized as follows:

First we explore the global mobility phenomenon, then we examine the actors in the global mobility system (migrants, expatriates and talent flows). Next we examine the role of expatriates and migrants as mechanisms of knowledge transfer and their importance to the emerging markets. After this, we then discuss TM practices that can attract, retain and motivate expatriates to prolong their stay and eventually become migrants. This discussion is done with special attention to the African and Ghanaian context. From this point, the paper then develops a theoretical framework that is supported by a set of propositions that examines how global expatriates can be successfully converted to “migrants in Africa using efficient TM practices and analyze how Ghana can use these TM practices to neutralize the negative
perception about it as a destination country for expatriates. The framework also identifies the determinants of talent mobility from developed countries to Africa and their implications to the emerging and global economies. We show our contribution and managerial relevance by discussing our results and possible limitations and setting the agenda for further research.

**Exploring the global mobility phenomenon**

Global mobility which is defined by some scholars as the movement of both skilled and unskilled people locally and internationally (Altbach & Bassett, 2004) is a phenomenon that is now being strategically exploited and managed by stakeholders as a developmental tool. It involves the dynamic alignment of the organization’s current and future workforce to strategic business needs. (Mellahi and Collings, 2010). “Previous literature confirms that worker migration has greatly increased globally in the last three decades, especially in Canada, Australia and the U.S.A. and Africa. (Erenhart, 2012). A recent global mobility survey also reveals that 88% of companies in the world confirm that global mobility is not only increasing but is also changing as companies continuously look for smarter ways to manage expatriates. (Erenhart, 2012; PWC, 2014; Olivier Meier, 2014).

TM scholars like (Tung, 2008; Eapen, 2013) argue that global migration, could be beneficial to both sending and receiving countries if it is properly managed. This settles the debates of brain drain, (Agrawal et al., 2011), brain gain and brain circulation which is normally associated with issues of global migration of especially talented expatriates. The migrants, the sending and the destination countries all benefit by receiving remittances, improved technology and business ideas and networks and the provision of expatriate skills to deficient companies in the receiving countries to enhance production and promote job satisfaction and career development to the migrants (Tung, 2008) However the central requirement for this to be successfully achieved is effective management of the global
migration of labor. This becomes very difficult to achieve especially when a considerable portion of the migrated population is people endowed with high levels of human capital (Beine et al., 2001). This is a situation described by (Agrawal et al., 2011) as brain drain.

The initial impact of this migration of highly skilled individuals leads to a reduction of skilled labor in the source countries SCs and an increase of same in the destination countries DC’s human capital base (Geesen, 1998). This results in brain gain in the DCs (Tung, 2008), and brain drain in the SCs within the short to medium term. On the one hand, brain drain seems to have a negative externality on the population left in the SC (Bhagwati & Hamada, 1974) due to loss of talent and domestic knowledge networking (Agrawal et al., 2011, p. 45). This may lead to the imperfect substitution between skilled and unskilled labor at companies in SCs (Piketty, 1997). This has the overall effect of a reduction in production and eventually on the per capita growth in the home country (Haque and Kim, 1995).

On the other hand, (Beine et al., 2001) argue that migration of skilled human capital in a number of cases could be beneficial. In his view, the situation of brain drain being positive occurs when the economy was originally closed to an underdevelopment trap and migration probabilities were not too high, but in a situation when the economy already exhibited a relatively high growth performance and migration probabilities took intermediate values, the results could be beneficial to the SCs (Beine et al., 2001). Migration to better developed countries raises global innovation, and some gains flow back to the SCs through the imports of products with improved technology or lower cost (Kuhn & McAusland, 2006). This could also bring new business ideas and network contacts. In the long term, the initial brain drain experienced by the SCs can be reversed to brain gains especially when the DC suffers a brain loss through the outflow of highly-skilled immigrants, who after obtaining their advanced education and work experience, choose to return to their home countries to take advantage of better career opportunities, settle down with families etc. (Tung 2008) provides evidence of the reversed effect on the example of Canada. (Gibson and McKenzie 2014) emphasize that
these highly-skilled workers, who return to their home country with enhanced international human capital which they described as scientific capital focusing on international mobility of researchers, helps in the creation of international knowledge networks. For the SCs, return migration, is critically important due to the gains that flow back into the region via returnees with enhanced skills, personal connections, and ideas for innovation (Saxenian, 2005). For the DC, however, (Bhagwati & Hamada, 1974) argue that this outflow of emigrants leads to foregone external benefits, partially because of the wasted tax money of existing residents.

The Causes of global mobility can be partly attributed to the current open nature of the global labor market, improved international relations and ease of communication and movement among nations, which has facilitated global migrations of all kinds and more importantly among talented expatriates (Beine et al, 2001). Some researchers mention poor living conditions, violence and armed conflicts in SCs (Olivier Meier, 2014; PwC’s 2014) as some common causes of global mobility, while (Sutherland, 2013; Zulkifli, S.H.N., 2012; Ernst & Young, 2014) also identify environmental problems, lack of economic prosperity and the growing gap between the rich and the poor countries. The implication is that skilled talents are free to migrate to various countries of destinations of their choice. However, the magnitude and direction of global migrants in a particular region at a particular period depends on a number of push and pull factors, some of which are political, economic and socio-cultural in nature. For example, studies indicate that Countries highly ranked for best attracting highly skilled immigrants as at 2010, are the U.S.A., Canada and Australia (Sari Pekkala, 2016). On the other hand, countries also experiencing higher emigration of skilled workers to OECD Countries as at 2010 are the small low income countries like Guyana 93%, Trinidad & Tobago 68%, Barbados 66%, Tonga 53%, Zimbabwe 44% (Sari Pekkala, Kerr et al, 2016).
Talent migration to Ghana

In the sub Saharan Africa, the share of migrants with tertiary education increased from 3.24% in 1990 to 4.78% in 2000 (Artuc et al., 2015). Many scholars like (Allan C. Ornstein, 2015; Helen Bimbassis, 2012; Artuc et al, 2015; Mambo Mupepi, 2017), confirm the rising trends of migrants within and outside African countries like Nigeria, South Africa and Ghana, and also expressed their conviction that an inflow of skilled migrants from developed countries can enhance Africa’s developmental efforts. As noted by Latukha, emerging MNCs that are able to attract qualified talent pool and then manage their talent successfully has the opportunity to gain and sustain global competitive advantage in the complex business environment. Latukha, (2016).

With the discussion in the previous paragraph, there are a number of factors which are attracting expatriates to developing African countries like Ghana. Among these factors, the most important ones are political and economic stability, FDI opportunities (Darkwah, 2013) with foreign partners such as Kosmos Energy, Tullow, Eni, Luk oil, Baker-Hughes, Schlumberger, Hess and Transocean and others. Other factors include job security, acceptance & respect for cultural and religious diversity, the rule of law and respect for democracy (Anno, 2017), transparent judicial system, endowment of natural resources (Obeng-Odoom, 2014), the excellent Ghanaian hospitality etc. For example, Anno records that Ghana attracted 930,000 visitors in 2014 for business and tourism exploration.

In the political history, Ghana was the first black African country to gain independence in sub Saharan Africa in 1957. Since then it has been a symbol democracy which it practiced to the admiration of not only the other African countries but the rest of the world. In addition, the rule of law and freedom of speech and other factors have contributed to political stability in the country. Alongside the political stability, the economy of Ghana has also been stable for business with an average GDP growth rate of 6.94% from the year 2000.
to 2017. (Anno, 2017). This political and economic stability has attracted about 93000 foreigners in 2014 alone for business and tourism, and other reasons.

With FDI, (Darkwah, 2013) has noted that apart from the foreign investors listed above in Ghana’s Oil and gas industry, there are several other FDI in the mining sector (dealing with gold, bauxite, diamond etc.) as well as the forest industry. FDI is very important to the Ghanaian government because of the lack of the requisite technical knowhow and technological development and high cost of tapping the natural resources to the benefit of the people. The endowment of natural resources serves as booster to FDI and this is one area that is attracting a lot of expatriates into Ghana and hence the need to use efficient TM practices to convert them into migrants to enhance expatriate knowledge transfer. MNEs assignment, government projects, global labor market competition, better contract deals in Ghana than in previous jobs in developed countries, low cost of living and easy immigration policies and many others determines expatriate talent mobility to Ghana.

Global mobility, migrants, expatriates & talent flow

Some TM scholars describe global labor mobility as the movement of people from one country to another, predominantly from less developed to more developed countries and regions (Altbach & Bassett, 2004), for reasons including improvement of their living conditions, receiving higher education and getting better employment packages. In practical terms it is making the most of the people already in place by balancing the experiences, competencies and skills that individuals require to deliver on the organizational strategy and goals with the aspirations of the individual. (Harrison, 2014)

Talent mobility is a very critical aspect of any organization which wants to stay ahead of business competition (Duttagupa, 2005). It is done such that there will always be a pool of people with the right talent to put at the right places at any point of time” to sustain uninterrupted operations. Mellahi and Collings, 2010)
A remarkable component observed by (Sari Pekkala et al in 2010) is the sharp increase in the number of highly skilled women into the OECD countries from 5.7 million to 14.7 million representing 152% increase from 1990 to 2010 (Pekkala et al, 2016). He also observed that Africa and Asia are also noted to be suffering from the largest emigration of highly skilled women. These two peculiar observations about highly skilled women needs further research investigation.

When properly managed global labor mobility has more benefits than negatives to both sending and receiving countries (Beine et al, 2001) contrary to the views of some early researches (Solimano, 2008) that it only leads to brain drain in the SCs. This paper argues that it is very important to effectively and efficiently manage global labor mobility because of its strong correlation with the number and direction of migrants and expatriate distribution and consequently talent flows from these expatriates.

From the discussion in the above paragraph, global labor mobility has some direct impact on talent migration. Talent migration refers to a situation where expatriate talents that have moved from their home countries for various reasons decide to stay in their destination countries either permanently or for a longer period of time than expected. For example an expatriate talent working with a MNC may decide to invest and continue with his stay in the foreign country if the conditions are favorable to him. In other instances, some Talents decide to permanently migrate and stay in a chosen destination country. With Talent migration, the source country may also benefit from remittances but may not benefit from emigrants returning home with business capital and ideas to invest in their countries as in the case of ordinary talent mobility.

According to Baruch et al. (2007), there are push and pull factors that affects labor migration. However, this paper is of the view that these factors might differ slightly from developed to developing countries as the challenges and frustrations talents encounter at home affect their decision to stay or leave in the future. Developed by Lewin (1951) the push-pull
model is a common theoretical approach used in international labor migration research to explain the causes of global mobility and, in particular, reasons behind brain drain (e.g., Altbach, 2004). (Baruch, 1995) treats migration as a combination of push factors like unemployment, military conflicts, and adverse environmental conditions, that forcefully push people into migration, driving them away from a certain “disadvantaged” place) and pull factors like settled climate and environment, high quality of life and political freedom, that attract people to a certain place) that determine the size and direction of labor flow. In addition to the unique needs of a particular individual the push and pull factors of talent migration are determined by the peculiar environments of the specific organization, which this person is employed, the country,, city and region), where this person currently resides as well as the global trends in talent mobility.

Firstly, in comparison to developed markets, the level of economic development of developing markets is lower (e.g., Beamond, Farndale, & Härtel, 2016). The latter has insufficient institutional infrastructure to perform global business, less stable governmental regimes, a larger informal sector which offers less protection for employees, and different workplace relations (Aisen & Veiga, 2013; Al Ariss & Sidani, 2016; Wright et al., 2005). In the view of (McDonnell, Lamare, Gunnigle, & Lavelle, 2010), internationally competent workers represent a key component of global business success, and that the costs of not taking any action concerning their attraction, development, and retention are very high. Sidani and Al Ariss (2014) also argue that as far as labor regulations are concerned MNCs are better at withstanding the contextual pressures they face, whereas local/regional companies seemed to be struggling to institute successful practices.

Existing literature on global labor migration identifies some of the factors that push talented people from developing countries to seek new opportunities in developed countries or influence their decision to stay abroad as poorly funded scientific laboratories (at the same time, stronger R&D facilities abroad, larger investments in research and education, and
workforce training), outdated infrastructure and the low success rate of grant funding requests (Gibson & McKenzie, 2014), Other scholars mention a lack of career related opportunities, specifically misalignment of skill set and jobs available in the market (Cooke, Saini, & Wang, 2014), absence of international assignments as a means of leveraging internal knowledge lack of networking opportunities, and innovation, inadequate level of responsibility, inadequate financial remuneration and social support (e.g., Baruch et al., 2007), low perception of workplace safety (Tung & Lazarova, 2006), and discriminative policies towards certain social groups (McPhail, McNulty, & Hutchings, 2016).

Transparency International (2016) also indicates that developing countries tend to have a higher perceived corruption score, compared to developed markets, which leads to limited access to information about public expenditure, lower degrees of press freedom, weaker standards of integrity for public officials, and non-independent judicial systems etc.

Nevertheless, there are a number of factors that developing countries also use to attract and retain talent. These include creating opportunities for family (re)unification (Faini, 2007), recognizing international qualifications and offering possibilities for talents to apply their acquired skills and knowledge in specific environments (e.g., Papademetriou & Sumption, 2013), adopting of less bureaucratic and cumbersome state policies (e.g., Yeoh & Eng, 2008) as well as best managerial practices (specifically, GTM practices) adapted to the local context.

On the other hand the usual pull factors that attract talented people especially to the developed countries are “high-quality infrastructure, competitive market conditions and business environment, an existing critical mass of talents, with excellent networking and cooperation possibilities (Saxenian 2005; and Pedersen et al. 2008)), and superior living conditions, including factors as diverse as climatic conditions, cultural environment, safety and easy access to key services such as health or education” (GTCI report, 2017, page 99). In addition to these country-level pull factors, scholars have also noted that talent is attracted by
dynamic transformative environments and presence of other talented professionals (GTCI report, 2017; Papademetriou & Sumption, 2013), acceptance and respect for diversity of language, ethnicity, culture, religion, gender, and minorities (at the same time, politicization of religious, racial, and cultural persecution in developing nations) (e.g., Beechler & Woodward, 2009; Ng & Burke, 2005), well-designed and transparent economic policies and governmental programs (e.g., favorable immigration packages, citizenship for expatriates, etc.). High returns on one’s own human capital investments, professional growth opportunities, higher incomes, (Baruch, 2004) also play a key role for talent in their decision to leave SC or not. A talented individual could suffer from brain waste or differ from others in the group on one or more status dimensions (i.e. age, gender, race, religion, language and education level), leading to status inconsistencies (Maley, Harvey, & Kiessling, 2016; Zhang & Peltokorpi, 2016), and greater cultural distance (Hofstede, 2001). In addition, higher cost of living in developed countries than in developing countries (the Balassa –Samuelson effect) could affect a talent’s decision of staying in the DC or returning to the SC. see Balassa (1964) and Samuelson (1964)).

Cities and regions are now critical players in determining the migration of skilled and creative workers from all parts of the world due to the high concentration of universities and other organizations engaging in research and development (e.g., Weinberg, 2011). (See GTCI report 2017) Most importantly, leading edge technology, talented people, and innovative goods and services flow through these hubs, which makes them important links of global networks.

Expatriates are “employees who are temporarily relocated by their organizations to another country to complete a specific task or accomplish an organizational goal1” (Shaffer, Kraimer, Chan and Bolino, 2012: 1287). They are staff posted to offices of MNCs in foreign countries, while some are on special government assignments as experts attached to projects. The importance of the relations between talent mobility and the flow of expatriates is
emphasized by (Reiche, 2012) and others. From the discussion above, it follows that talent migration has a link to expatriation. It affects the magnitude, direction and caliber of expatriate distribution in the various regions. The caliber of migrants with tertiary education mostly constitute the bulk of skilled expatriates. This group of migrants normally face less challenges especially in entering countries where their services are needed (Ehrenberg, 2012).

The push and pull factors that affects the mobility of migrants therefore has a correlation with the expatriate migration as they form part of the composition of total migrants. The better the pull factors in a particular region, the greater the possibility of attracting more expatriates and the vice versa.

Talent flow which is also being influenced by the composition of expatriates describes the movement or flow of talents into and out of a targeted set of jobs that are most critical for the competitiveness of employers and the regions in which they do business. TM scholars have noted that skilled expatriate migration is an indicator of the direction of talent flow. (Ellisl.c.Osabutey & Zhongjin, 2016). This observation emphasizes the importance of expatriates as a source of knowledge transfer. (Ehrenberg, 2012). It measures the timely supply of required talents to gain competitive advantage and provides a one stop solution for all talent needs to organizations. This has made some scholars re-emphasize the need for efficient GTM to ensure constant and timely supply of vital talents. In the view of Scullion et el,”GTM is the set of HRM activities undertaken in the context of international business to manage talent for differentiated roles (Scullion and Collings, 2011). As argued by Collins et el, Strategic talent management additionally involve systematic identification of roles along with the identification and development of high-potential individuals, supported by a differentiated HR architecture to engage, develop and retain talent (Collings and Mellahi, 2009). This is particularly very necessary as talent flow ensures the timely supply of highly skilled elite such as entrepreneurs, technical experts, professionals, international students, academic researchers, artists, etc. (Solimano, 2008), who
are badly needed especially in the growing emerging market economies and developing countries like Ghana.

Factors influencing the attractiveness of Ghana as a destination Country

With increasing globalization and expansion of emerging economies in the midst of free competition for talent in the global labor market, the trend for the direction and reasons for the movement of expatriate talent is gradually changing from the traditional movement from developing countries to developed countries (Rezart et al., 2015) to the reverse even though the former still dominates. With the discussion in the previous paragraph, there are a number of factors which are attracting expatriates to developing African countries like Ghana. Among these factors, the most important ones are political and economic stability, FDI opportunities (Darkwah, 2013) others. Other factors include job security, acceptance & respect for cultural and religious diversity, the rule of law and respect for democracy (Anno, 2017), transparent judicial system, endowment of natural resources (Obeng-Odoom, 2014), the excellent Ghanaian hospitality (Anno, 2017) etc.

Ghana was the first black African country to gain independence in sub Saharan Africa in 1957. Since then it has been a symbol democracy and has enjoyed political stability to date alongside the political stability, the economy of Ghana has also been stable for business with an average GDP growth rate of 6.94% from the year 2000 to 2017. (Anno, 2017). This political and economic stability has attracted about 93000 foreigners in 2014 alone for business and tourism, and other reasons. With FDI, (Darkwah, 2013) has noted that apart from the foreign investors listed in Ghana’s Oil and gas industry, there are several other FDI in the mining sector (dealing with gold, bauxite, diamond etc.) as well as the forest industry. FDI is very important to the Ghanaian government because it a means of setting the requisite technical knowhow and technology and foreign capital to tap the natural resources to
the benefit of the people. This calls for the need to implement the appropriate TM practices to convert them into migrants to enhance expatriate knowledge transfer.

**The role of migrants & expatriates in knowledge transfer in emerging markets**

Before the thirteenth century when there was not much competition among emerging markets, there was not much pressure for expatriates as the demand and value for expatriate talent for improving economic performance was comparatively lower at that time. However with the emergence and fast growth of emerging economies dominated by Brazil, Russia, India and China, there is an associated increase in demand for expatriate talent (Mambo Mupepi, 2017), and hence the need for improved TM especially among the emerging economies. For example (Iles et al., 2010) has observed that TM is very critical to organization’s success results.

Migrants acts as a major source of supply form which expatriates are spread to various parts of the world including the emerging economies. In a similar way, the availability of expatriates has a great contribution to the level of knowledge transfer from SCs to DCs. This relations between migrants and expatriates is very important for the survival of emerging economies because the knowledge transferred through this mechanism which is needed to fill critical local and international staff vacancies (Sutherland, 2013), transfer technology, create jobs through entrepreneurial skills (OECD, 2016) and bring diverse business innovations in most emerging market businesses. (Ernst & Young, 2014) It has also been noted that the successful MNE of the future will be required to source human and intellectual resources regardless of their global location owing to the increasing competition. (Cascio and Aguinis 2007).

With an increase in the number and size of companies in the emerging economies and the impact of globalization, there was a corresponding a rise in local competition for talent which was deficient and hence the need for more expatriates to fill many positions as
substitutes for the lack of local talent. However the high turnover among expatriates, their high cost, and their lack of “connectivity” with local customers and employees, made the MNEs to seek alternative solutions to the emerging-market staffing challenge. With today’s interconnected world, expatriates are key players in the achievement of business objectives of emerging markets. This is especially the case with emerging markets that have planned to internationalize. Despite this fact that they are always the first victims to suffer in times of negative economic situations (Dietz, Joshi, Esses, Hamilton, & Gabarrot, 2015). They could suffer loss of jobs, low salaries, working for longer hours, discrimination, ethnocentrism, cross-cultural adjustment problems etc. (Zikic & Richardson, 2016).

At the organizational level, many MNCs and other emerging markets employ migrants in order to gain access to diverse markets and customers (Harrison, 2014), secure local resources, or share knowledge across national and geographic boundaries. (Cerdin, Dine, & Brewster, 2014; Hajro, Pudelko, & Gibson, 2017). Furthermore, firm’s international expansion often depends on cross-national immigration. (Pudelko, & Gibson, 2017) Despite the many benefits that migrants bring to corporations, research by Hajiro shows that in an effort to help these individuals to also benefit, organizations often design policies that ultimately encourage assimilation, thereby failing to leverage the unique capabilities of these individuals with negative impact for organizational performance (Hajro et al., 2017).

**Importance of expatriate knowledge transfer in emerging markets**

Expatriate knowledge transfer is fast becoming an indispensable tool in the business strategies of emerging market economies. Over recent decades a key constraint on the ability of MNEs to compete globally has been the challenge of persuading the requisite quality and quantity of suitable employees to undertake international assignments, which has contributed to a lack of global leadership competence in MNEs (Brookfield GMAC, 2013). Expatriate knowledge transfer has become a very strategic tool to modern managers in the developed,
less-developed and emerging economies because it serves as a mechanism through which some basic developmental needs such as technology, academicians, ICT experts, medical doctors, engineers, entrepreneurs, FDI etc. are brought into destination countries to enhance rapid economic growth and development.

In the emerging economies, expatriate knowledge transfer is very vital for coordination and control, succession planning, leadership development, filling of vacant staff positions, international knowledge innovation. (Collings, 2014). In the view of (Solimano, 2006), expatriates in emerging markets greatly contributes to the development in science and technology, quality of service delivery, creation of businesses by entrepreneurs and improvement in fiscal revenue. Due to competition for global expatriate talent, every country tries to make itself more attractive as a destination country through various policies and other motivational factors that can attract and retain expatriates to prolong their stay and eventually be converted as migrants.

Even though Some scholars have observed that most expatriates become attracted to favorable factors such as better job offers, FDI (Obeng-Odoom, 2014) etc.in their destination countries and eventually extend their stay and become migrants in their destination countries.

**TM practices for global migration**

*The role of IHRM in global migration*

International human resource management IHRM plays a very vital and an indispensable role in global migration. (Collings and Mellahi, 2009). However It is sometimes argued by some International human resource management IHRM scholars that not much is known about international human resource management (IHRM) strategies and policies that companies utilize to facilitate the transfer of knowledge and skills of global migrants (Guo & Al Ariss, 2015). IHRM is a HRM activity which plays a very important role in global migration in several ways. For example it facilitates and promotes global migration
through the identification of appropriate expatriate talents, attraction, training, motivation, developing and retaining globally mobile employees. (Tung, 2008; Tung, 2016). This is done in the context of today’s migrants, with implications for both talent and diversity management practices of organizations that employ them. We claim that talent migration is influenced by different factors. Additionally Collings (2014) states the need for engaging in GTM and, thus, developing a differentiated human resource architecture that facilitates the systematic identification and filling up of strategic positions with high-potential and high-performing incumbents to ensure their continued commitment to the organization and, as a result, to achieve sustainable competitive advantage of the respective firm, city, region and country in a competitive global environment.

**TM and IHRM**

TM is an integral part of IHRM. From the confirmation of practitioners and scholars in previous discussions, it can be noted that, the two activities are interwoven and even overlap in their operations. For example one of the theoretical frame works describes GTM as strategic human resource Management SHRM activity in which the SHRM literature critically examined some aspects of TM including definition (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Lewis and Heckman, 2006), segmentation (Boudreau and Ramstad, 2005b; Huselid et al., 2005). However, one challenge is that the literature is generally focused on HR processes rather than practice. In practice, variation occurs in HRM implementation whereby actual practices vary from intended practices. Some theories also classify GTM as an intensification of the exchange relationship in which employees are considered very key to the TM process. One notable observation is that GTM can adopt the system theory perspective. However Challenges exist in implementation of consistent HRM practices (Morris et al., 2009) across global firms which arguably perpetuate the intended-actual gap (Nishii and Wright, 2008) and subsequently reduce talent system effectiveness. Adopting a systems theory approach is helpful to understanding GTM as nested within the wider systems of HRM and the firm. A systems view also moves from beyond a process orientation to consider system-related requirements such as flexibility and changes in demand.
**TM as a mechanism for attracting & retaining expatriates**

Due to increased globalization and economic competition, expansion of emerging markets and the resultant increase in competition for more expatriate talent, most stakeholders have resorted to efficient TM as a mechanism for attracting retaining and converting expatriates to migrants. (Papademetriou and Sumption, 2013) state that emerging economies have been relatively successful in identifying, attracting and retaining internationally mobile foreign professionals with “the skills that will help to build new infrastructure and seed high skill-intensive industries. This is done with the use of efficient TM which are able to attract most of the expatriates to prolong their stay and become migrants in the DCs. Some scholars describe GTM as a business embedded activity concerned with the identification of high performing pool of individuals with potential to contribute to business performance through which TM organizations anticipate and meet their requirement for HC (Cappelli, 2008b). Since the Mckinsey consultants framed “the war for talent” in 1999, there has been controversy over the true meaning and definition of GTM. (Collings and Mellahi, 2009; Gallardo-Gallardo, 2013).

**TM practices of different organizations**

From the emerging market and talent migration perspectives, this means GTM has to separately address the needs of three major groups of talent that differ in terms of international experience and, thus, levels of international and local human capital (see Morris, Snell, & Björkman (2016) on human capital categorization): local talent, migrated talent (e.g., Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss, 2016; Mahadevan & Kilian-Yasin, 2017). In the view of Alison et al when TM is focused on a series of practices aimed at developing work force networks and social capital, it is a key transmission mechanism mediating the relations between HRM and firm performance, and that alignment of HRM and business strategies increases these performance impacts. In an emerging market context which might be expanding into MNCs,
(Hartmann et al. 2010) examined the peculiarities of TM practices that are transferred from Western MNCs to their subsidiaries in China, the TM practices adopted should not only be exclusive but should include special tasks to stimulate learning, project teams, networking, handling of projects, international assignments, and international project teams, internal and external secondment. They should include job rotation, coaching, and mentoring. “These are opportunity-enhancing practices, vital in empowering and motivating employees and increasing network intimacy (Jiang et al., 2012). It is obvious that these practices foster collaboration and teamwork and encourages knowledge sharing and enhances the intensity of social interaction which are very necessary for an emerging economy (Chuang et al., 2016). An examination of most of these TM practices mentioned above reveals that they are designed to provide the necessary pool of talent to sustain uninterrupted operation both locally and in MNC offices and to ensure that these companies are in a better position to compete in the global scramble for scarce talents and consequently gain competitive advantage over their global competitors.

Unlike the MNCs the TM practices of most local firms are aimed at providing an inclusive and an adequate and timely talent needs within the firm such that they may gain a competitive advantage within the industry in which they operate (Collings (2014)). As argued by Collins et al, TM in the firm should be an extension of the differentiated approach to additionally involve systematic identification of roles along with the identification and development of high-potential individuals, supported by a differentiated HR architecture to engage, develop and retain talent (Collings and Mellahi, 2009).

In the case of most SMEs where the ownership and management style is slightly different from the other companies, the TM practices also slightly differs from those discussed above. Empirical studies indicates that most SMEs spend comparatively less on TM because of their size, staff composition and management style. In some cases some staff
might be family members who lack the qualification and the capacity to be used for knowledge transfer in the TM process.

**Context-related issues in TM**

Studies about the theoretical evolution of TM practices indicates that contextual differences have different influences on the appropriate TM practices for a particular business organization. Collings (2014) “The employment context keep changing as organizations continue to face demographic and economic pressures, increased mobility of human capital through globalization and greater shift towards knowledge –based economies” (Beechler & Woodward, 2009). As a result of this phenomenon, organizations are now compelled to survive based on the talents of their employees and hence the pressing need for talent management as globalization intensifies.

The concept of the resource based value is also an important factor since the characteristics of the available resources strongly contributes to the TM practices in a particular context. For example (Schuler, Jackson, & Tarique, 2011) investigates the global talent challenges and the resulting GTM initiatives while the translation process of TM strategies to subsidiaries in emerging economies was also examined by (Beamon et al., 2016).

This paper argues that even though a lot of previous researchers concentrated on the general relations between TM and business performance, the growing complexity of globalization and the changing economic and technological environment demands a deeper investigation into the phenomenon of “expatriation to global migration” in the African and Ghanaian context in the midst of growing emerging markets and MNCs, changing government policies, and other changing demographics.
TM & expatriate migration in the African context

As discussed earlier, many scholars like (Allan C. Ornstein, 2015; Bimbassis 2012; Artuc et al, 2015; Mambo Mupepi, 2017), did not only confirm the rising trends of migrants within and outside African countries but also expressed their conviction that an inflow of skilled migrants from developed countries can enhance Africa’s developmental efforts.

Existing literature has shown that knowledge transfer by expatriates from developed countries is very vital for gaining competitive advantage, especially in the developing countries (Bimbassis, 2012). It is therefore not surprising to note that the number of migrants with tertiary education sub Saharan Africa increased from 3.24% in 1990 to 4.78% in 2000 (Artuc et al., 2015). We argue that among the African countries, South Africa has distinguished itself in terms of development and poverty as the only developed African country among the OECD countries mainly because of the heavy and consistent early inflow of expatriates most of whom were eventually converted to migrants through efficient TM. Including better job offers, career development and FDI opportunities, staff training and succession planning, performance assessment endowment of various natural resources including gold. Like other sub-Saharan African countries Ghana also witnessed a rising trend in the level of migrants, most of whom were in search for ‘greener pastures’.

Being the second largest continent but the poorest in the world, there is a critical need for Africa to endeavor to implement TM practices that can convert the incoming expatriates into migrants to enhance sustained knowledge transfer from expatriates. This is especially important in the wake of increasing demand for expatriate talents by emerging markets and other MNCs and government projects.
Due to intense globalization and economic competition, expansion of emerging markets and increased awareness of the need for expatriate knowledge transfer (Collins, 2014), resulting to an increase in competition for more expatriate talent, most stakeholders have resorted to efficient TM as a mechanism for attracting expatriates into their countries. However in the African and Ghanaian context, TM should not only be used as a strategy to attract expatriates into the country but also for retaining and eventually converting these expatriates to migrants. (Papademetriou and Sumption, 2013) state that emerging economies have been relatively successful in identifying, attracting and retaining internationally mobile foreign professionals with “the skills that will help to build new infrastructure and seed high skill-intensive industries.

The type of TM practice, may however vary from country to country since countries differ in their political, economic, socio-cultural environments, geographical and natural endowment, size, outputs and talent requirements. Ghana needs a GTM system that can separately address the needs of three major groups of talent that differ in terms of international experience and, thus, levels of international and local human capital (see Morris, Snell, & Björkman (2016) on human capital categorization): local talent, migrated talent (e.g., Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss, 2016; Mahadevan & Kilian-Yasin, 2017), and returnees (e.g., Miao & Wang, 2017). This will require a meaningful interactions with international experts and professional associations, by closely observing global standards and new technologies, questioning the relevance of context specificity in knowledge, and identifying with a profession rather than a company. Various scholars have examined the TM needs of diverse context. For example (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014) conducted their study on understanding how organizations adopt and implement TM practices within the Gulf Cooperation Council context, while (Latukha 2015) conducts a comparative study of TM practices in Russian and foreign companies, while investigating the effect of these practices on a company’s performance.
Even though the TM system in Ghana is comparatively less developed it is very prudent for Ghana to learn from the models from the advanced countries as tested by (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014) and (Latukha 2015), and adopt a TM practice that can satisfy the individual, firm, industry, city, country and global needs. The practices should include workforce planning, implementing of internship and sponsorship programmes, performance management, leadership development programmes, the process to identify, grow and manage talent with high potential in the organization, coaching and mentoring, and the provision of well-defined career ladders. (EY, 2014)

Crowly –Henry and Al Ariss describes TM practices as strategic processes that involves viewing TM as HRM strategies, career capital oriented, HRD focused, with an inclusive and exclusive approaches which also links diversity by integrating individual, organizations and societal needs. (Crowly –Henry and Al Ariss, 2016). However it is worth mentioning that the successful implementation of TM practices largely depends on factors like the internal and external environments, understanding why the need for TM, the positive involvement of top management and the provision of adequate resources to support the TM implementation process. In addition there are talent pipeline approaches, such as succession planning and leadership development, that are regarded as good TM strategies (Iles et al., 2010). which are applicable to the Ghanaian context.

**Pull factors in Ghana that can convert “expatriates” to “migrants”**

From the previous discussions coupled with the premium placed on expatriates as sources of knowledge transfer through talent mobility, it is obvious that every nation, especially developing countries like Ghana will make conscious efforts to implement efficient talent attraction and talent retention practices that will encourage the conversion of expatriates to migrants. Even though there is free mobility of expatriates in the global labour market to
any country of choice, one challenging factor to receiving countries is how to sustain and retain the expatriate flow into the country. We expect Ghana to build from the experiences of the developed countries and so that. In this way they could learn from the models (Sidani and Al Ariss 2014) and Latukha,2015) Ghana will need to adopt TM practices that could include better wage offers and working conditions, very friendly and less cumbersome beaurecratic and immigration policies (Yeoh & Eng, 2008), ensuring the rule of law and respect for democracy and different cultural norms and diversity  Job security, better career development options, promotion of research and development, (Weinberg, 2011), recognition of international certificates ( Papademetriou & Sumption, 2013), political and economic stability and many others. The Ghanaian hospitality is one of the best in the world and in addition to numerous tourist centres most expatriates unconsciously end up investing in Ghana and becoming migrants (Anno, 2017).

Neutralizing the negative perception of Ghana as a destination country

Building from the analysis so far made, one can argue that an efficient management of global migration and expatriate knowledge transfer through talent mobility will not only be of immense economic benefits to Ghana but will neutralize the negative perception held about Ghana as a destination country for expatriates. However, it is not easy to achieve this. One approach of achieving this is for Ghanaian companies to use TM practice as a system which would be strongly supported by the government. Literature has noted that TM could be done at the firm, industry, city and state levels.

The Ghana government should not leave this responsibility to only the firm, industry or city level because these sub groups will take a narrower perspective of the TM Practice which is convenient to their individual needs. For example a TM practice by a particular firm
or industry might be very favorable to that particular firm or industry but not favorable and hence not even practiced by other firms or industries. That is why some scholars argue that a particular corporate TM system cannot completely eradicate brain drain in a country (Collings, 2014; Crowley-Henry & Al Ariss, 2016; Khilji et al., 2015; Schuler, 2015). However, if the TM system is supported by the government of Ghana, it will be nationally accepted and backed by laws and institutional controls. In this way the government can also supervise its implementation and operation and that will make it more legalized and reliable for expatriates. For example the government can include such measures as favorable tax systems, provision of infrastructure, and the provision of good quality tertiary institutions which an individual firm or industry may not consider as a priority. This will bring uniformity and national recognition of the TM system to be able to correct the erroneous impression created about Ghana as destination for expatriates.

Having scrutinized the various theories, it has been observed that different researchers have examined different aspects of expatriate migration, the GTM phenomenon in MNCs (e.g., McDonnell et al., 2010; TM at different perspectives and for different organizations, talent mobility. (EY, 2014), and expatriate knowledge transfer. Some also concentrated on the impact of migration on SCs and DCs and many other aspects. For example (Schuler, Jackson, & Tarique, 2011) investigates the global talent challenges and the resulting GTM initiatives while the translation process of TM strategies to subsidiaries in emerging economies was also examined by (Beamond et al., 2016). Collings (2014) states the need for engaging in GTM

However an area that did not receive attention is how Ghana, an African country could take advantage of the expatriation to global migration phenomenon by implementing appropriate TM practices that can convert expatriates to migrants thereby facilitating knowledge transfer from developed countries into Africa. In another dimension, a very negligible attention is given to the necessity to investigate possible factors that could reverse
majority of talent mobility from developed to developing countries and neutralize the negative perception of Ghana as destination country for expatriates.

**Dissertation Methodology**

*A quantitative research (survey) is being conducted.*

The nature of the research questions suggests the use of a mixed methodology. For research question (1) a survey of expatriates already working in Ghana as well as potential expatriates will be made in order to help gather data about the determinants of expatriate talent mobility from developed countries to African countries (particularly Ghana). For research that we will administer questionnaires to a target of between 200-260 expatriate employees, some of whom are already working in Ghana, while the rest will be potential expatriate migrants from different parts of developed countries. For research questions (2) and (3) in which we try to investigate Talent management (TM) practices (for attraction and retention), and how Ghana can use it to neutralize the negative perception about it as a destination country respectively, the survey will be based on selected CEOs and other talent consulting managers who manage expatriates in their companies.

**Use of questionnaires**

On-line questionnaire (to be designed to cover research questions, the draft is ready to be tested) for the categories of sampled respondents identified in the above paragraph. This will be done alongside a survey of selected CEOs, TM consultants and some expatriate employees in an open ended interview to find out what expatriate management practices are currently implemented in Ghana. There will be a follow up on this with a focal group discussion with some of the expatriate staff to confirm some of the practices that were
mentioned by the CEOs and the managers during the interview and their response to the questionnaires. The paper will also apply the contract theory, prospect theory and the transaction cost theory during the empirical studies to analyze the behavior of some talents.

Data collection

Data will be collected from a target respondents of 250-300 expatriates who are currently working in Ghana through the use of, semi closed and open ended questionnaires. This sample size represents 78% of the target population of 350 in this category. With regards to TM practices, similar questionnaires will be administered to 50 CEOs and 20 talent management consultants attached to international government Projects). samples of each category represents at least 74-80% of their various target populations of 63 CEOs and 25 managers respectively. Open ended interview questions will be used in a survey of selected CEOs and TM consultants with a follow up focal group discussions.

Data analysis:

Factor analysis, regression, descriptive statistics and other statistical methods like the SPSS for quantitative data and DEA and Stata packages for the qualitative data will be used to analyze the data collected.

Expected results

We expect the study to reveal the determinants of expatriate talent mobility from developed countries to Ghana, some of which include better job offers, career development, FDI etc. The study will also make recommendations of improvement in the standards of talent management practices for Africa and Ghana in particular. For example having noticed that most Ghanaian...
companies rely more on financial compensations (EY, 2014) and motivations with some performance management controls, paying little attention to other areas like training, career development, succession plans etc. The study will recommend Ghanaian companies to apply the TM practices of world standards prescribed by (Yeoh & Eng, 2008), with lessons from advance countries like the U.K., U.S.A, Russia, Canada etc. It can develop a TM system which will be supported by the government. This will ensure national recognition with legal and national acceptance with institutional bodies that will ensure its implementation, operation and supervision by the government. This was found to be in conformity with research conclusions of (Khilji et al., 2015; Schuler, 2015) we expect the study to substantially justify that contrary to the traditional perception by an overwhelming majority of TM scholars that most expatriate migration is always from the less developed to developed countries in search for economic gains (Rezart et al, 2015), (Mupepi, 2017; Ernst &Young, 2014; Ehrenberg, 2012). There are some unique factors which can reverse this trend of talent mobility from developed to developing countries. Mupepi, 2017; Ernst &Young, 2014). Another point of interest is that it is not all migrations that are in search for economic gains. (Ronald Ehrenberg, 2012) The study will confirm that developing countries with efficient TM practices, (Collins, 2014), FDI (Odom, 2014) and career development opportunities, government appointments to foreign projects are able to attract more expatriates. Other important reasons include political and economic instability at home countries which make the lives of the expatriates unsafe at home.

Every country has its unique features which may attract expatriates or otherwise to that country. This is especially the case in this era of freedom of mobility in the global labor market. For the case of Ghana, this study will reveal the unique features of it that attract expatriates. For example political and economic stability, respect for socio-cultural diversity (Anno 2017), Ghana can also boast of endowment of natural resources (Darkwah, 2013) like gold, diamond, bauxite, Manganese, Timber, Oil & gas, job security etc., which attracts many
expatriates as possible. This is very necessary because even the developed countries are still making efforts to attract expatriates. African countries should therefore double this efforts to reap more benefits from the expatriate knowledge transfer.

In an attempt to solve our main research question as to what TM practices can African countries implement to be able to convert expatriates to migrants, we noted that the current TM practice in Ghana is less developed and is mostly left in the hands of HRM staff most of whom does not give it the seriousness it deserves. This paper will also strongly recommend that when Ghana implements a TM system with a strong governmental support, it will be able to push expatriates to extend their stay and eventually become migrants in Ghana. This situation is reflected in the current empirical example of expatriate staff from Kosmos energy, Tullow Oil, Luke Oil, Mosdern, Baker Hughes who have remained in Ghana to date after the end of their contract in the discovery of oil and gas in the high seas of Ghana in 2007 because of favorable TM practices given to them by the government of Ghana.

**Contribution to theory**

The project is a timely respond to the lack of research on organizational contribution to brain drain prevention and knowledge acquisition (*Saxenian, 2005; Collings, 2014*) by providing new understanding of the role of talent management in talent migration

Previous literature indicates that there is limited attention to the context of Africa in general and specifically Ghana. This study therefore provides literature by making readers understand how talent management practices can be used in the Ghana context positively.

We provide another perspective on talent migration and the role of expatriate in knowledge transferring from developed countries (*Van Hear, Bakewell and Long, 2017*) by providing the link between talent migration and its positive effects in developing countries and the understanding of the role of expatriates as knowledge transfer mechanisms in the Ghana context.
We have also contributed to literature by Extending research of talent mobility factors (de Haas, 2011), by introducing and statistically justifying migration factors that can stimulate knowledge transfer to Ghana.

Our recommendations on Ghana’s current TM system will have some managerial implications on policy makers, TM consultants and other business managers in Ghana. For example the policy makers in Africa in general and Ghana in particular should be made to understand that one way of tapping the natural resources is to implement an attractive and retentive TM system that will attract the appropriate technology and expatriate knowledge and FDI as in the case of the gold mines, and the oil and gas industry and. This is better than living in poverty while surrounded by vast natural resources which they cannot extract to the benefit of the country. Managers, investors and policy makers should see TM as a strategic managerial tool for competitive advantage in business.

Conclusion

We conclude that TM can greatly neutralize the negative perception about Ghana as a destination country which has very important implications to Ghana in terms of attractiveness for investments from foreign countries, improved international trade and business links with the rest of the world. All these will help promote exchange in technology and expatriate knowledge transfer for development.

We believe it is very important for various stakeholders to understand that the type of TM practices and the determinants of a reversed flow of talent from developed countries to developing countries like Ghana are unique and uniquely correlated to the economic, political and the socio-cultural features of Ghana which needs to be further explored in further research. Another question that needs research attention is how African countries will continue to attract, sustain and retain expatriates in the midst of increasing demand and
competition for expatriate talent from richer emerging and advance economies, government projects and other MNEs.

As some scholars have recommended the need to control skilled labor mobility (Borjas & Doran, 2012), (Doran et al, 2014) for various reasons, we challenge researchers to begin to ponder about what the future of a skilled labour mobility policy will be, and whether such a policy could be perfectly implemented and controlled. For example such a research need to examine the possibility of controlling young future skills in the midst of freedom of mobility in the labor market

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