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Selection process

The August 2018 issue of the *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research (IJIR)* has been the result of a rigorous process in two stages:

- Stage 1: all papers that were submitted to the 2018 IABD conference went through blind reviews, and high quality papers were recommended for presentation at the conference.
- Stage 2: approximately ten percent of the articles which were presented at the conference and one invited manuscripts (originally reviewed by the Chief Editor) were selected for possible publication in *IJIR*, and the respective authors were contacted and asked to resubmit their papers for a second round of reviews. These manuscripts went through a rigorous blind-review process by the editorial board members. In the end, four articles were recommended for publication in the August issue of *IJIR*.

IJIR is listed in *Cabell's* Directory of peer-reviewed publications. The Editorial Board members are committed to maintaining high standards of quality in all manuscripts published in *International Journal of Interdisciplinary Research*.

Ahmad Tootoonchi, Chief Editor

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EXAMINING LEADERSHIP IN ECUADOR FROM AN INTERDISCIPLINARY CONTINGENCY PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the foundations upon which modern Ecuadorian leadership culture is based by examining the historical elements of the Ecuadorian leadership cultural system from a contingency perspective, beginning with an overview of the historical context followed by an exploration of leadership and followership within this context. In so doing, it lays a foundation for further examination of leadership culture in Ecuador.

INTRODUCTION

One of the major factors that contributes to the success of any organizational venture is the leadership climate in which it takes place. Leadership scholars have long recognized the importance of not only the role of the leader, but also the importance of followers and the context in relation to achieving organizational goals (Lussier & Achua, 2007). Consequently, any examination of organizational efforts in Ecuador should begin with an examination and understanding of the leadership culture in which these efforts take place. This paper explores the foundations upon which modern Ecuadorian leadership culture is based by examining the historical elements of the Ecuadorian leadership cultural system from a contingency perspective, beginning with an overview of the historical context followed by an exploration of leadership and followership within this context.

CONTINGENCY APPROACHES TO LEADERSHIP

The contingency approaches to leadership emerged as a trend in leadership studies that marked a fundamental shift in the way scholars thought about leadership. Prior to the contingency movement, the focus of leadership studies was centered on the traits, skills, behaviors, and styles of leaders (Ayman, 2004; Northouse, 2012). However, the failure to identify any given set of traits, skills, etc. that universally predicted leadership effectiveness, led to a realization that the situation or context in which leadership took place could impact the ultimate effectiveness of the leader and require some changes in terms of the leaders approach. Consequently, the contingency approaches shifted the focus of leadership studies away from the leader to the “fit between the leader’s behavior and style and the followers and the situation” (Lussier & Achua, 2007, p. 152). Scholars who wish to understand leadership, especially within a cultural context, must avoid oversimplification by examining all three facets of the leadership environment (Burke, 1965). A

natural starting place for understanding such situated leadership is with the context in which leadership takes place. Consequently, this article will overview the contextual history of leadership within Ecuador, and then explore the historical approaches to both leadership and followership within that context.

THE CONTEXT OF LEADERSHIP IN ECUADOR

Very little research or literature within the field of leadership has been directed towards the study of leadership specifically within the context of Ecuador. Consequently, it is essential to draw upon multiple disciplinary perspectives to piece together an understanding of the culturally derived approaches to leadership and followership within Ecuador. This requires that one examine the historical context in which leadership took place to better understand the leadership culture. This review will begin with an exploration of the pre-colonial leadership context and proceed to the modern era.

In precolonial Ecuadorian society, indigenous leaders typically presided over a social hierarchy characterized by scattered, relatively small and independent social groups with limited integration, mostly for trade and religious purposes, at a macro-social level (Grieder, 2009; Luciano, 2010; Salomon, 1986; Stothert, 2003). This does not mean that some larger social structures did not exist, but for the most part, "a general dispersal of houses and small settlements prevailed throughout most of the highlands. Common religious devotion brought people from fairly wide areas to worship at central temples or shrines, while needs for defense were met by mountain forest in which the common people found refuge" (Steward & Faron, 1959, p. 58). Thus, most leadership took place at the local level where individual caciques presided over local communities made up of individuals with strong kinship relations. Communities in close proximity to one another often shared cultural traditions, worship practices, and traded with other communities which led to some sense of larger cultural structures, nonetheless, these larger structures were rarely consolidated or subjugated in any way to a macro-level political order (Bruhns, 2003; Luciano, 2010; Stemper, 1993). Indeed, conflicts between these communities "were endemic, but no one nation was dominant" (De la Torre & Stiffler, 2008, p. 10). In his analysis of the societies within the Quito area, Salomon (1986) explained:

Quito polities lodged stewardship of strategic resources in chiefs, and vested in chiefs the power to dispossess commoners, confiscate their goods, or severely punish them. . . . Quito collectivities concentrated control of communal and craft production in the upper level, but did not politically control household production. . . . High ranking nobles were exempt from subsistence production, used conspicuous symbols of rank, and regulated social processes of adjudication and marriage. . . . Of the fifteen possible leadership functions [attributed to chiefdoms], Quito lords clearly exercised eleven: ambassadorial affairs, war leadership, village labor administration, controlling trade, leading ceremonies, punishing wrongdoers, settling disputes, enforcing moral norms, sponsoring feasts, storing information, and distributing goods." (p. 138-139).

Just prior to the arrival of the Spanish, these largely separated, but economically, culturally, and religiously integrated societies were largely subjugated to Inca rule.

The Inca invasion and subjugation of Ecuador was somewhat limited in scope and brief in time (De la Torre & Stiffler, 2008). Nonetheless, the cultural impact was significant, as “the system of political organization created by the Inca facilitated the Spanish takeover” (De la Torre & Stiffler, 2008, p. 10).

In response to the initial Inca invasion, some previously distinct, though culturally similar groups, appear to have banded together in mutual defense creating a sense of unified identity that had not exist previously (Hirschkind, 1995). In addition, Inca resettlement practices disoriented former connections and imposed new ones (D'Altroy, 2002; Hurtado, 1985). At the same time, the Inca use of preexisting leadership structures strengthened the role of existing caciques (Salomon, 1986). Furthermore, the Inca hierarchy, which radiated down from the Sapa Inca permeated all aspects of daily life through multiple layers of bureaucracy and imposed a hierarchical structure upon the dispersed, largely politically independent communities that had existed previously (Salomon, 1986; Steward & Faron, 1959). Peasants were required to perform the “mita”, mandatory labor for the benefit of the Inca, and all land and products were considered the property of the king (Hurtado, 1985).

Based on what is known about Inca leadership, influence was largely derived from kinship, divine right, and military prowess (D'Altroy, 2002; McIntosh, 2011). The leaders' primary objectives appear to have been to expand the kingdom via military conquest, acquire wealth and resources for personal consumption and redistribution, and to maintain and consolidate power. The ability to do so was based on strong verbal skills, effective bureaucratic organization, redistribution of resources, demonstrations of strength and courage, use of preexisting power structures, reciprocal relationships, decisive and authoritative decision-making, and strict punishment of those in opposition (D'Altroy, 2002; McIntosh, 2011).

As mentioned previously, Inca leadership was relatively short-lived and ultimately supplanted by the Spanish via the conquest and colonization of the territory that later became Ecuador. Through both military, cultural, and religious subjugation, the Spanish imposed a system of leadership that both reinforced and supplanted some cultural elements of indigenous and Inca leadership. The Spanish hierarchy replaced the Inca hierarchy in terms of both structure and culture. Culturally, leadership became a product of race and cultural identification, as the whiter and more culturally Hispanic one was, the more likely he would be accepted as a leader (D'Altroy, 2002; McIntosh, 2011). Additionally, the conquistadors' adventurous and sexually exploitative masculinity gave birth to a machismo culture that still predominates throughout much of Latin America today. Finally, their approach to leadership was characterized by limited planning, authoritative decision-making, limited concern for royal authority, and distribution of wealth and power among friends and family (Kryzaneck, 1992).

As the conquistadors gave way to the colonizers, many of these cultural trends continued with an increased emphasis on the importance of charisma and personalism, (leadership based on dedication and loyalty to the persona of the leader as opposed to the vision, cause, agenda, or party). Furthermore, the cultural values of dignidad, leisure, grandeur, generosity, manliness, and deception (Dealy, 1992), reinforced a leadership culture characterized by an emphasis on

perception management, disdain for manual labor on the part of both leaders and followers, charismatic influence, paternalistic leadership that punished followers through intermediaries, machismo, and disregard for laws and regulations that substituted for the direct oversight of the leader.

These leadership traits in the post-colonial era are best reflected in the approaches to leadership that were espoused and practiced within the hacienda system of the country. As Hurtado (1985) explained, the

protective and oppressive, autocratic and paternal model of authority inspired by the hacienda system constituted the pattern adhered to by all who participated in a supervisory capacity in all kinds of organizations—government, municipal, commercial, industrial, educational, political, popular—in which the structures of paternalism became overwhelmingly predominate. (p. 54).

Thus the leadership exhibited within the hacienda system both influenced and reflected the broader system of supervisory leadership throughout the country.

According to Lyons (2006) hacienda leadership structures consisted of an owner, a steward, and an overseer. The owner was generally a member of the “white” elite class, lived in the city, and spent little time directly involved in the work of running the hacienda. In general, this was likely a result of the leisure oriented values of society. However, Lyons did suggest that the traditional view of landlords as predominantly disinterested investors is outdated. Stewards, who were often Mestizo, generally lived on the property and were more directly involved in the day-to-day management of the hacienda. They practiced leadership via an overseer, who was often indigenous, who “aided the steward in planning and supervising daily labors” (p. 78).

Generally speaking, the owners engaged in paternalistic leadership characterized by benevolence and the bestowal of privileges and rewards in exchange for loyalty, obedience, and respect (Lyons, 2006). Thus they treated the indigenous people like children. Punishment, when enacted, was accomplished through intermediaries. Additionally, leaders were expected to and generally engaged in redistribution of resources such as products and profits, consistent with, but not ideally reflective of, the traditional practices of the indigenous people. In contrast to the benevolent, paternalistic approach of owners, stewards and overseers were generally used more fear and violence as part of their leadership repertoire (Lyons, 2006). Having said this, owners were not paragons of paternalistic virtue, as they were not ignorant of and often directed the work of the stewards and overseers. Furthermore, there is evidence that many personally exploited their workers both physically and sexually (Lyons, 2006).

There is also evidence that informal leadership and authority structures existed within these cultural microcosms. Such informal influence networks were characterized by authority relationships based on elder-junior relationships, kinship, and “compadrazgo”. These relationships were hierarchical, though mutually beneficial, relationships in which senior members generally cared for junior members in exchange for deference, service, and respect (Lyons, 2006).

With the decline of the hacienda system; however, these leadership structures gave way to more democratic, representative political structures referred to as “comunas”. These structures were overseen by elected “presidents and other officers” (Lyons, 2006, p. 272) whose authority was limited. Thus, within these structures, leaders were generally expected to assemble and coordinate the work of the community. As Lyons wrote, “the community assembles weekly for a formal meeting, and one day a week, occasionally two, villagers work together in tasks of collective benefit” (p. 272). Villegas (1999) believes these new political structures are birthing a new form “liderazgo comunitario” or community leadership among some indigenous populations within Ecuador. This model would suggest that leaders and followers are more equal and that followers empower leaders to act on their behalf to both defend and further their interests. It also implies more of shared approach to leadership.

It is worth noting; however, that this approach is not universal within indigenous communities of the Ecuadorian highlands (Buchelli, 1984). In fact, Castro (2014) suggested that many of these communities were led by former overseers or by their children, whose authoritative and corrupt approaches have brought many of the leadership approaches of the hacienda period into the apparently democratic systems of the *comunas*. However, these approaches do reveal the syncretic nature of changing leadership paradigms and processes in Ecuador as traditional ideas and processes merge with modern, external concepts and practices to form new leadership structures and approaches within the Ecuadorian context. Indeed, Ecuadorian leadership culture has been influenced significantly by both immigration patterns and the cultural influences of North American leadership practices and ideas.

From the early days of Ecuadorian history, immigrants represented a source of some novelty in relation to leadership approaches as many immigrants from non-Latin cultures brought with them a distinct array of leadership cultural components, generally involving lower power distance and less of a leisure orientation that differed from the mainstream approaches of the Hispanic tradition (Hurtado, 2010). These immigrant populations often engaged in entrepreneurial efforts that elevated their economic and political stature, ultimately resulting in their filling many political offices throughout the government, including the highest office of president (Lauderbaugh, 2012).

Furthermore, external academic and practitioner influences have shaped the changing leadership cultural context by introducing new theoretical ideas and approaches to leadership. Reflective of these influences in the broader context of Latin America, Romero (2004) described the traditional paternalistic, aggressive, autocratic and directive, “el patron” style of the hacienda system as one that is being replaced by a more “modern” approach. He suggested that this change was rooted in increased international interaction via MNCs and “developed” countries, economic development based on a more individualistic cultural foundation, and the increasing role of women in leadership positions within Latin America. Romero believed these changes were driving the emergence of more participative and supportive leadership styles that perceive workers as responsible, incorporate more delegation and team work, promote increased cooperation and collaboration, while still remaining conflict avoidant and relationship oriented.

There is some significant evidence validating Romero’s (2004) claims. First, North American leadership literature translated into Spanish is becoming more common, even predominant in Ecuador. Second, the educational courses and programs that emphasize leadership and

organizational behavior related ideas, most of which are based on external leadership models, are becoming more common in business and psychology programs in Ecuador. Women are taking on increasing roles in leadership within business, education, and politics (Moser, 2009). Vistazo, a magazine that largely promotes more modern approaches to leadership, featured in its February 2018 issue Isabel Noboa, citing her as one of the top leaders in the country. Her inclusion suggests that this trend is truly taking shape in the country (the author recognizes the limited validity of this list, but recognizes the value such a list has as a reflection of an influence on culture) (Vistazo.com).

Finally, the Globe study validates this shift in leadership values as the desired traits of leaders and the values of society appear to be shifting to align more with the values outlined by Romero (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Nonetheless, the size of the GLOBE sample drawn from Ecuador was insufficient to make any broad generalizations about leadership within the country (House et al., 2004). Having said this, the current political environment is dominated by a largely popular president who appears to reflect the traditional populist, machismo oriented, aggressive, authoritarian tradition of Romero's "el patron" style. Thus the context of leadership, while changing, remains very rooted in the traditions of the past. Nonetheless, leadership and followership appear to be evolving within this context, as will be discussed in the next section of this paper.

LEADERSHIP IN ECUADOR

In order to understand leadership both in general and specifically in Ecuador, it is valuable to examine the concept from a philosophical perspective. Philosophy refers to "the code of values and beliefs by which someone lives" (Soccio, 2010). In terms of leadership theory, one might argue that there are basically five philosophies of leadership that represent the underlying beliefs and values of different leaders. These are the characteristic, skill, relationship, position, and process perspectives. Each represents a unique way of viewing leadership based on unique assumptions about what makes a leader effective. These philosophical lens are particularly useful when seeking to understand cultural manifestations of leadership within international contexts. Each will be explored conceptually and in relation to leadership within the historical context of Ecuador.

Those who view and engage in leadership from the trait philosophy suggest there are certain in-born or developed characteristics or traits that one possesses, which make up his or her identity. These traits ultimately determine his or her effectiveness as a leader (Zacarro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). When engaging in leadership based on this philosophy, individuals strive to foster and develop the right characteristics to lead, or to maximize their strong characteristics and minimize the impacts of any weaknesses (Rath & Conchie, 2008; Zenger & Folkman, 2002).

The characteristics associated with leadership in Ecuador demonstrate some significant consistency across the multiple historical contexts discussed previously. While little is known of the characteristics of specific indigenous leaders, some characteristics can be derived from the nature of the leadership functions that these leaders performed. For example, to be effective in

ambassadorial affairs, settling disputes, enforcing moral norms, punishing wrongdoers, and war leadership, leaders would have needed to demonstrate courage and dominance. Village labor administration, storing information, and distributing goods and controlling trade would likely have required intelligence, generosity, and conscientiousness. To be effective in leading ceremonies and sponsoring feasts, leaders would likely have needed to draw on charismatic qualities, religious devotion, and generosity. Furthermore, masculinity likely characterized the largely male leadership structures.

In relation to the characteristics attributed to effective leaders within Inca society, more has been written. In his historical examination of the Inca, D'Altroy (2002) suggested that, Inca leaders were characterized by charisma, vigor, courage, generosity, faith and sanctity. Similar traits emerged in the colonial era. As Hurtado (2010), citing the reflections of a colonial Ecuadorian citizen, explained that Ecuadorian attitudes in general were characterized by:

Nonchalance, indecisiveness, dismay at the thought of great effort, especially continuous effort; a propensity to restless laziness resulting in more noise than work; preference for fierce, short-lived spurts of work over relaxed, long-lasting effort made in equal doses; waiting to do business until the last minute and always relying on chance and luck, because they do not foresee the most inevitable contingencies, or do not want to. Further on, he added that his fellow countrymen were more instinctive than reflective, slaves to traditions, individualistic, self-centered, 'alien to social discipline, cooperation, [and] solidarity.' He also said that they demonstrated 'aversion to sustained and persevering effort,' admired and sympathized with those 'who spend and sterilely waste their fortune,' expressed a 'kind of disdain' for everything that was 'foresight, order and personal effort,' and acted 'in bad faith with different nuances.' He remarked that such conduct was not to be put past merchants, artisans, members of the military, policemen, politicians, clergymen, officials, Indians, ultimately everyone—no one was exempt from such conduct. Referring to Indians, even though the observation was also valid for whites and mestizos, he repeated what foreign travelers from previous centuries had written: 'they lived in [an] alarming [state of] drunkenness.' (loc 2071-86)

Many of these character traits outlined by Hurtado are closely associated with the five virtues of Dealy (1992). These five virtues, as outlined previously, are "dignidad", leisure, grandeur, generosity, manliness, and deception.

In the post-colonial era, these characteristics appear to have been simply reinforced and perpetuated, to a large extent, up to the recent past. In the Globe study (House et al., 2004), the following characteristics were considered essential in identifying effective leaders: charisma, integrity, competence, status consciousness, internal competitiveness, compassion, and modesty. For the most part these reflect a continuation of many of the characteristics that have been considered necessary for leadership effectiveness since the pre-colonial era.

Whereas characteristics are relatively stable elements of an individual's identity that influence one's behavior, skills are learned behaviors that can be exhibited and engaged in, in many cases, whether or not one's nature supports the behavior, in order to accomplish a task (Northouse, 2009).

Thus one can engage in the skills of listening, understanding, relating, and responding whether or not one is naturally inquisitive and empathetic.

Within the precolonial environment of Ecuador, the skill set of leaders revolved around political, military, and ritual activities as well as the ability to generously acquire and redistribute resources as a means of building and maintaining relational loyalty (D'Altroy, 2002). At the same time, leaders were not expected to be technically skilled, given that "indigenous nobility was not expected to engage in manual labor since work constituted the primary form of tribute" (Hurtado, 1985, p. 15). The Inca model of leadership, while similar in its emphasis on skills related to political, military, ritual, and economic redistribution activities (D'Altroy, 2002), placed a much heavier emphasis on the bureaucratic and political skills associated with leading a large empire.

It is as the transition to colonial Spanish leadership emerged that some deviation occurs in terms of skills. According to Dealy (1992), the underlying paradigm of Spanish Colonial society emphasized social ascendancy via the acquisition of loyalty-based relationships and positions of power as opposed to the capitalistic emphasis on wealth accumulation. As he explained, "The Latin everyman," or "Public Man" as Dealy called him, "dreams not of winning impersonal deference through faceless material accumulation, as does the capitalist, but of directly earning and receiving esteem" (p. 55). The result is an elitist society structured around relationships in which those who are higher in the hierarchy serve those who are lower. Those who are lower, regardless of where they actually are in the hierarchy must work on behalf of and for the benefit of those who are higher. Consequently, social skills related to status acquisition became of greater importance than those associated with productive endeavors. Consequently, colonial society placed greater emphasis on verbal fluency, relationship building and network expansion, and charismatic perception management (Dealy, 1992; Martz, Fall 1983). Furthermore, in an environment where everyone was looking to ascend the social hierarchy, political intrigue and the ability to recognize and mitigate its effects became a central skill of leaders within the political environment of both colonial and post-colonial Ecuador (Lauderbaugh, 2012).

While this shift in skill oriented emphasis was significant, the current shift is perhaps even more so. Given the rising globalization of society, the need for Ecuadorian businesses to compete at a global level is shifting this underlying cultural proclivity away from the Public Man of Dealy (1992) to the capitalist mentality of the west. Consequently, the skills demanded of leaders are becoming more consistent with those expected in capitalist countries such as the US. These skills, while not necessarily de-emphasizing the social, relational, and political competencies of the past, envelope more of the technical and conceptual skills of organizational governance, which have not traditionally characterized the work of Latin American leaders, such as strategic planning, team building, coaching, meeting management, etc.

The positional philosophy suggests that leadership is often the result of holding a position, whether formally granted or simply role oriented (McClellan, 2006). This philosophy suggests that the power to influence others is to some extent a result of the legitimate authority that one possesses as a result of holding a position of power (French Jr. & Raven, 2005). The key to engaging in leadership from this perspective involves understanding the dynamics of power associated with the position and maintenance of one's status and power (Machiavelli, 1992). Central to this philosophy are notions of the political behavior of leaders, perception management, and

role/position maintenance (Bolman & Deal, 2003; Heifetz & Laurie, 1997; McClellan, 2006; Mintzberg, 1985). From this perspective, leaders are effective to the extent that they do these things well.

Given the Public Man philosophy of Dealy (2002), it is clear that positional leadership was an essential component of colonial and post-colonial leadership in Ecuadorian society. Nonetheless, the emphasis on the importance of positional leadership and the acquisition and maintenance of power was also important prior to the colonial period. In pre-colonial indigenous societies, the positional power of caciques was absolute (Hurtado, 1985). There is even evidence that they presided over the giving and taking of spouses (Salomon, 1986).

Inca society was similar, especially at the local level, except that leadership became dependent not only on acceptance and relational recognition given from followers to the leader, but also the support of the ultimate leader, the Sapa Inca, whose power was considered absolute given his deification within society (D'Altroy, 2002). Nonetheless, Inca leaders were not without threats to their authority (D'Altroy, 2002). Indeed, the existence of a class of nobles who required placating and the ability of siblings to challenge the Inca for power, required leaders to exercise force and political maneuvering in the face of challenges to their positional authority.

In the colonial world of Hispanic Ecuador, a similar arrangement existed as positions of power were largely derived from social class, race, and status as well as loyalty to the ultimate authority of the king. Nonetheless, powerful individuals who gathered large followings and as a result, acquired wealth and power, represented a dominant source of power because the king was far away (Hurtado, 2010). Indeed, it was the existence of these strong men or caudillos that led Simon Bolivar to lament that his vision of a United States of South America was unlikely and that the ultimate dissolution of his Gran Colombia was inevitable (Lauderbaugh, 2012).

In the post-colonial period, the spirit of enlightenment political ideology and the end of divine right authority gave way to the desire to ascend the social hierarchy and attain the ultimate position of power in order to become a driving force among the upper echelons of the leadership hierarchy. Consequently, in Ecuador, it seems the ultimate ideal was to achieve the position of president and then to consolidate one's power and positional authority, if possible in perpetuity. This explains, to some extent, the not infrequent tendency of presidents to seek opportunities to strengthen the power of the executive office, extend term limits through self-coups or other means, or to attempt to rule through individuals they hoped would serve as puppets to their leadership will (Lauderbaugh, 2012).

The issue, of course, was that in a society dominated by Public Men, followership is somewhat illusory because the ultimate desire of followers is to take the place of the leader. Hence the existence of an unloyal opposition within the political arena, throughout Ecuadorian history, comes as no surprise (Lauderbaugh, 2012). While this concept will be explored later in relation to followership in Ecuador, its value for positional authority is clear. Leaders must constantly be on the lookout for threats to their authority and they must address opposition quickly and decisively.

One means of holding the opposition at bay is to solicit powerful allies as a means of maintaining one's position. In Ecuador, the two most powerful political allies of any leader have historically

been the military and the people themselves. Alienating the military has historically led to the failure of presidents to retain their office. In contrast, those who have successfully maintained the loyalty of the military have often been able to maintain power even in challenging times (Lauderbaugh, 2012).

A second ally that helped leaders to both acquire and maintain authority was the support of the masses. In the past, and even today, massive uprising are an important means of removing leaders from power. This reality likely contributed, at least to some extent, to the emergence of populist leadership within Ecuador; wherein, as Martz (Fall 1983) explained the leader “elicits mass support, builds a reputation as defender of the dispossessed, . . . articulates an ill-defined nationalism, . . . secures the allegiance of marginal urban masses and constructs a party which bears the unmistakable stamp of his own public personality” (p. 23). Having done so, he becomes the self-proclaimed personification of “followers’ hopes and aspirations” (p. 24) and thereby maintains followers in a state of dependency. To the extent that this codependent relationship remains salient, the leader’s authority is difficult to challenge and the leader is able to maintain his or her position and the authority that accompanies it. Thus, even the positional philosophy of leadership suggests the need for and the importance of the relational philosophy of leadership.

The relational philosophy of leadership argues that leaders and followers go hand in hand. If leadership is viewed as an influence process, then there must be an influencer and one who is influenced (Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014), even if this is not a “linear one-way event, but rather an interactive event” (Northouse, 2009). The nature of the relationship between the leader and follower is what an individual focuses on when engaging in leadership from this philosophical perspective. Key issues of concern include trust (Chan, Taylor, & Markham, 2008; Melohn, 1983; Willemyns, Gallois, & Callan, 2003), reciprocal caring (Noddings, 2002), commitment (Drury, 2004; Sahon, Behera, & Tripathy, 2010), etc. The idea here is that leaders are effective when they develop effective relationship with those they lead because these relationships represent the foundation of interpersonal influence.

Clearly the importance of social ascendancy, power distance, and a culture of authoritarian, even exploitative, leadership suggests the weakening of the relational nature of leadership. However, it is paradoxically true that, as a result of the Public Man philosophy in Ecuador, the relational component of leadership is both strengthened and weakened in that relationships are both central to effective leadership and a challenge to leadership authority.

This was likely less the case in the precolonial indigenous and Inca societies of Ecuador as the absence of the Hispanic philosophy outlined by Dealy largely explains much of this paradox. Indeed, in these precolonial societies, the guiding ethic appears to have been one of relationships based on kinship and mutual obligations (D’Altroy, 2002). Thus, in spite of the hierarchical structure of these societies, sharing and mutual responsibility were central to the maintenance of a functional community. (D’Altroy, 2002). The act of redistribution of resources, service to authority through labor, and kinship relationships formed the foundation for both survival and relational influence. As Hurtado (1985) wrote,

In contrast to the system of distribution of rewards in indigenous society, in which the practice of reciprocity permitted a more equitable sharing of wealth, the economic system implanted by the Spaniards unilaterally channeled all production in such a way as to impoverish the Indians and enrich the whites. (p. 21)

This difference in the reciprocal nature of leader-follower relations both promoted stronger relational identification with leaders in the pre-colonial period and diminished these in the post-colonial era.

Furthermore, while this indigenous tendency to look to trusted others for mutual support carried over into the colonial and post-colonial eras, the Public Man ideology created a society in which kinship relations, to which people looked for survival and support, were grounded in trust and mutual concern. Whereas, in contrast, political and economic relationships were characterized by a general and mutual lack of trust. Hurtado (2010) cites this as a reason for which very few business partnerships formed during the colonial period. It also explains the continued predominance of family run businesses in Ecuador today and the relative importance of God-parent/child relations to this day, as they allow for a means of extending the family relationships beyond the immediate and extended family structure.

Those who engage in leadership from the process perspective are primarily concerned about the means and ends of leadership. The focus is on ensuring that the processes that a leader, or group of people sharing leadership, takes to define and achieve a vision. This philosophy shifts the focus from the leader to the process, which allows for a greater capacity to view leadership as shared as opposed to embodied within an individual (Komives, Wagner, & Associates, 2009). This shared leadership approach seems to run counter to the prevailing norms throughout Ecuadorian history. As Hurtado (2010) explained,

Before the arrival of the Spaniards, during the brief Inca period and the era that preceded it, the Indians had lived in authoritarian societies subject to the absolute power of local political leaders (caciques) and sovereigns. They were obliged to provide personal services, pay tribute, and perform all types of work, such as building roads and bearing cargo. Families' needs, including the preservation of life, could only be met through blind obedience and absolute loyalty to those that held power. They did not have land with which they could do as they pleased; rather, land use depended on the will of the person or group to whom they were subordinated. In many social areas, especially the military, which was so important for the conquest of the Andean people (loc 77-84).

In spite of the generally autocratic approach, there is evidence that the Inca allowed for local autonomy at times when loyalty and patronage demands were met (D'Altroy, 2002).

During the colonial and post-colonial era, this autocratic approach to leadership largely continued. As Romero (2004) explained in relation to leadership within the broader region, the traditional "el patron" model of leadership is one that is "autocratic, rarely delegates or uses teams, normally communicates using a formal top-down approach, avoids conflict, and is relationship oriented, assertive, and aggressive" (Romero, 2004). This is consistent with the high power distance

common within the region (Hofstede, 1980). Multiple studies have validated these assertion within Latin America, especially in relation to highly directive leadership with limited participation (Dorfman et al., 1997; Stephens & Greer, 1995; Van Emmerik, Jawahar, & Stone, 2005). Consistent with this research, in Ecuador, in the-post colonial era, it has not been uncommon for populist leaders to take responsibility for developing processes and then take the credit for success if those processes work (Martz, Fall 1983). As discussed previously, there is evidence that these trends are changing in the region (DenHartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz, & Dorfman, 1999; Hidalgo, 2012; McIntosh & Irving, 2010; Romero, 2004) and within Ecuador (Lalander & Gustafsson, 2008), which could result in a more shared approach to procedural leadership.

The single source approach to process development and limited research in relation to actual procedural approaches used by leaders makes it challenging to generalize regarding the actual nature of the processes used. Nonetheless, it appears these processes were largely paternalistic in nature. One excellent example of this is the way in which political leaders used the church and missionary efforts as a means of civilizing and controlling the indigenous population. In the late 1700's, during the presidency of Garcia Moreno, an effort was made to establish a theocratic governance structure among the Napo Runa of the Amazon region. The Jesuits who implemented this structure believed in and based their efforts on "three major premises: the 'moralizing' nature of agriculture, the 'civilizing' capacity of religion, and the concept that the Indians were 'perpetual children' requiring the severe, but paternalistic protection of the missionaries" (Muratorio, 2008, p. 92). In doing so, they used the processes of conversion and labor as a means of attempting to subjugate the indigenous people of the region. Interestingly their efforts were ultimately a failure.

Another example is the United Fruit Companies approach to organizing. In order to increase their control over workers while also responding to employee needs, they created the infrastructure for the community and organized and managed the social lives of the employees. This included establishing athletic teams, social clubs, and even a union, all of which were controlled by the company. They also organized a police force to maintain order. Ultimately, all of these structures and processes were developed as an expression of paternalistic leadership. As Stiffler (2008) explained,

Although some of the company's methods of control, such as the police force, limitations placed on the movement of single women, and the regulation of fiestas, were clearly repressive, most were of a more paternalistic nature and actively created the image of the company as a benevolent father. (p. 241)

Consequently, the paternalistic style of leadership was very much a guiding paradigm for designing the leadership processes of the United Fruit Company's hacienda. So, while it is possible to say that autocratic, paternalistic leadership guided the creation of many leadership processes, this is an area that definitely merits further research and analysis.

EXAMINING FOLLOWERSHIP

The third component of the contingency framework is the follower. In recent years, the importance of followers and followership has received increasing attention within the field of leadership studies. As a result, various models have been developed that provide support for understanding followership and analyzing its manifestation within the Ecuadorian cultural environment (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Among the most popular models of followership are those developed by Kelley (1992) and Chaleff (1995), both of which are two factor models resulting in four or five follower styles or approaches.

Kelley's (1992) model focuses on the extent to which followers demonstrate an active versus a passive approach to following and their level of independence and critical versus uncritical responsiveness to leaders. Leaders high in independence and activity are considered exemplary followers. Those high in independence and low in activity are referred to as alienated. Whereas those low in independence and high in activity are deemed conformists. Those that are low in both areas are referred to as passive. The fifth approach is that of the pragmatic follower who is moderate in both areas and adapts his or her followership to the situation and the leader.

In contrast, Chaleff's (1995) model used the factors of support and challenge. Those high in both were called partners; whereas those low in both were referred to as resources. Individuals high in challenge, but low in support were deemed implementers. Whereas those with the opposite tendencies were referred to as individualists.

These two models provide a means of evaluating followership based on the extent to which a follower (1) generally supports his or her leaders in the pursuit of goals (2) is willing to challenge leaders when they disagree or have concerns (Chaleff, 1995; Robert E Kelley, 1998) (3) and is actively engaged (Robert Earl Kelley, 1992). This approach can be expanded based on the conceptual work of Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) who proposed the following behavioral approaches to followership: proactivity, initiative taking, obedience, resistance, upward influence, voice, dissent, feedback seeking, and advising. However, the focus here will be on understanding followership in relation to the Kelly and Chaleff models even though evidence of the relevance of Uhl-Bien et al.'s work will also be evident.

Unfortunately, very little research has been done to explore the issue of followership in Latin America. Indeed, the only study to date suggested significant variation in expectations of followers across national boundaries (Holzinger, Medcol, & Dunham, 2006). Furthermore, virtually nothing has been done in Ecuador. Nonetheless, there is much in the literature with regards to the way in which followers have historically responded to leaders. Based on what has been discussed previously, it appears that the precolonial societies of Ecuador were very hierarchical societies that encouraged followership that involved a high level of obedience and engagement (Hurtado, 2010). In terms of their ability to challenge leaders, this appears to have been somewhat limited as followers in both Ecuadorian and Inca societies were expected to be passive and subservient (Hurtado, 1985). However, the existence of a "contentious aristocracy" within the Inca empire suggests that some level of challenge existed, no matter how limited it may have been (D'Altroy,

2002). In addition, there are clear examples of organized communities that fought fiercely against the subjugation of the Inca.

In spite of the relatively authority-compliance relationship between leaders and followers, there was clearly a reciprocal nature to leadership as leaders were expected to redistribute resources and care for the needs of followers in exchange for their active engagement. However, this did not likely limit the reality that power and the ability to control and punish followers was nearly absolute (Salomon, 1986).

In colonial Ecuador, the dynamics were more complex. The far more racially and socially stratified society of Colonial Ecuador led to variations in expectations regarding leadership and followership. Across class/racial boundaries, followers were expected to demonstrate high levels of obedience with little to no challenge to authority. As Hurtado (2002) explained,

People acquired their status on the day of their birth and kept it throughout their life. Ownership of the *obraj*es and haciendas, which were the most important commercial activities, was reserved for Spaniards and Creoles, as were political and religious positions of authority and privileged access to education. Furthermore, worldly treasures, economic activities, and representational functions were not accessible to the men and women of color who made up the indigenous, black, mestizo, and mulatto peoples. They, on the other hand, were obliged to pay tribute to and to work for their masters in conditions of servitude or slavery (loc 96-110).

Interestingly, while it was expected that indigenous followers would demonstrate high levels of obedience and passivity (low challenge and high support), they were not expected to be particularly active. Indeed, they were often characterized as lazy, which is likely as much a result of an indigenous will to challenge authority through passive-aggressive withholding of effort as it is an actual statement of passivity (Lyons, 2006). Furthermore, the extent to which they were apparently supportive and non-challenge oriented is debatable as they would often find subtle ways of resisting and even challenging their leaders (Lyons, 2006; Muratorio, 2008). In addition, indigenous people did engage in political demonstrations and uprising both during the colonial and post-colonial era (De la Torre & Stiffler, 2008; Meisch, 2002).

Within the colonial mestizo and Spanish societies, followership was even more challenging as all members of society sought to raise their own status through social maneuvering and status seeking behaviors, such as the pursuit of leisure and choice of dress, through the delegation of work to lower classes. Indeed, one spectator's description of colonial Ecuadorians suggested that they were characterized by:

Nonchalance, indecisiveness, dismay at the thought of great effort, especially continuous effort; a propensity to restless laziness resulting in more noise than work; preference for fierce, short-lived spurts of work over relaxed, long-lasting effort made in equal doses; waiting to do business until the last minute and always relying on chance and luck, because they do not foresee the most inevitable contingencies, or do not want to. (Hurtado, 2002, loc. 2071-86)

In contrast to this generally low level of engagement, followers were expected to demonstrate a high level of deference and obedience to those whose class and social rank exceeded their own. Thus implying a low level of challenge and a high level of support. In spite of this general demand for deference to authority in the presence of ones superiors, the concept of obedience when not under the immediate supervision of others was not nearly as valued. Indeed, Ecuador developed, like much of Latin America, a limited respect for rule of law and a high cultural norm in support of the cunning ability of followers to violate the will of rulers and get away with doing so because of their lack of immediate oversight. Thus, "laws were enforced only rarely and the whites were accustomed to living in defiance of the law" (Hurtado, 1985, p. 16).

Finally, the existence of a disloyal opposition within the culture, led to a general willingness to challenge the authority of superiors outside of one's own family and political network in order to ascend the social hierarchy. Thus followership promoted both challenge and support and passivity as well as activity. In many respects this paradoxical approach to followership is likely indicative of the environment today, though little research has been done to examine to what extent followership culture has changed over the years.

CONCLUSION

In spite of the relatively limited literature on leadership in Ecuador, much can be gained from exploring interdisciplinary literature for an understanding of the leadership cultural heritage of the country. The contingency based examination of Ecuadorian culture reveals insights into the contributions that history has made to the modern context in which leadership takes place as well as the philosophies and practices of leaders. Nonetheless, there is a need for additional research. As Behrens (2009) explains, there has been a tendency to examine Latin American leadership through an external philosophical lens that tends to cast a negative light on the leadership styles and approaches of the region. Furthermore, the over emphasis on political leadership has likely led to a very limited perspective regarding the true breadth of leader and follower approaches and practices within what is a truly a diverse country. As a result, while this paper provides a foundation for additional research, based on the resources available to this author, it also suggests a significant need for a more comprehensive and in-depth exploration of the potential variations that likely exist in relation to the approaches to leadership and followership within such a diverse and vibrant cultural environment as Ecuador.

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SECURITY CHALLENGES FACING A CHANGING WORLD: THE CASE OF KOSOVO

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ABSTRACT

Security problems through time have become the area of responsibility for the most important institutions of states and their experts. The world has never been safe for small states because history has shown that it is very easy for major powers to manipulate these states, both economically as well as militarily. Small countries cannot finance wars on their own, so, to avoid or reduce the risk of conflict, small countries must use diplomacy. Uncertainty in international relations is much greater for a small country than for a large country. The best means to avoid uncertainty is for small countries to associate with international institutions. This paper suggests that for small states of the western Balkans, the most logical strategic choice is the Euro-Atlantic integration.

INTRODUCTION

This paper uses a case study approach to explore the security challenges of small states. The case study is used because it offers a means of exploring security threats and providing alternatives and solutions. The case study explores the conditions and the unique environment of the Republic of Kosovo. While different in many ways, it has similar circumstances as other small states. Security is examined using the broader definition of “societal” security. The paper looks first at small state security challenges from external threats and offers diplomacy and cooperation as solutions. Kosovo’s unique security environment is then described, identifying internal threats.

The definition of security has changed dramatically. It has moved beyond traditional factors like military forces and international relations, which largely determine state security. The meaning has expanded to include all factors that have the capacity to use force or violence and that affect not only the arena of military action in large scale, but also the smallest unit – one family. The victim includes not only the physical security of the state and the individual, but also the environment. The breadth of security includes freedom of movement, freedom from disease, hunger, and repression (Sachs, 2003). These new factors cannot be addressed through “traditional” national security, but require a new concept, that of “societal” security, which is not only an element of national security, but extends security to society itself (Wæver, 1993).

Long ago security problems became the area of responsibility for the most important government institutions as well as their experts. Currently, security policy is organized through the security system, which analyses the level of organization options to perform the security function in contemporary society. As part of the general state policy as a whole, security policy is implemented as national security goals. Since the state has responsibility for the formulation and development of security policy, the state should consider both traditional security factors (i.e., external threats) as well as non-traditional domestic factors (Stewart, 2004).

SMALL STATES SECURITY CHALLENGES

Small or medium states face an age-old conundrum. Throughout history, the world hasn't been safe for them. This was highlighted during the Cold War, when the great powers manipulated small and weak states economically and militarily. The super-powers' rivalry, ideological conflicts, as well as confrontations for geo-political and geo-strategic interests tore small and medium states apart. History has witnessed that small and medium states have been swallowed up by great power states as in the period of Prussian dominance to modern times in the Sahara deserts. Nevertheless, assimilation of small and medium states didn't always occur; some not only survived as independent and sovereign states but they also prospered side-by-side with powerful states. Clear and meaningful examples are Switzerland, Costa Rica, Israel, Singapore and other small states of the Pacific and the Caribbean.

After the 1990s, a main strategic problem for post-communist states was the realignment within the new context, in not just formal but essentially meaningful ways, as candidates for membership into the European Union and NATO. In the first years of transition their situation was less complicated because clear demarcations continued to exist between West and East. Meanwhile, the concept of West incurred serious changes as a result of new separation lines between Europe and America. This process became almost irrelevant after the 9/11 terroristic attack, when larger states found common interest in their fight against terrorism. Some researchers even mocked and ascertained that the new real order minimizes the dangers on small states security; however, in a bipolar world, dangers still exist. For small states in Europe the only clear strategic solution is Euro-Atlantic integration. In post-communist Europe, "European integration was valued because it did not entail any de facto loss of sovereignty; on the contrary, the EU offered great socioeconomic advantages, enabling its members to maximize their international influence" (Solana, 2017).

In general, the joint security and protection project that came with Euro-Atlantic integration was the idea of large European states, but the purpose to be positioned in the international system was the main motive that obliged almost all the small states to join in (Molis, 2006). Small states have survived because of these associations, which lead them towards the desired objective of joint military defence. Those who want peace must prepare for war. Except for Cyprus, Malta, Ireland and Denmark, all the European Union small member countries expressed their interest to support the security plan and joint protection activities of Euro-Atlantic integration (Molis, 2006, p. 84).

Smaller states should focus on creating a trained professional force that is economically affordable,

which can easily be mobilized in case of crisis. The best examples are Israel, Switzerland, Taiwan and Singapore that have well-armed forces. Well financed, these forces have the strength to discourage opponents and to prevent the risk of attack. To provide deterrence from aggressors, small countries must have quality armed forces, with good morale, training and equipment. Armaments and equipment must be constantly modernized.

However, while the development of preventive military measures in association with other states may assure security, these associations also challenge national integrity and independence. Maintaining the independence of small and medium states such as Israel, Switzerland, Singapore, Kosovo, Macedonia, Bosnia and Hercegovina, and Montenegro must be paramount. Yet being prepared to use force against aggressors is mandatory, and an equally responsible decision.

While security may be one result of Euro-Atlantic integration, its purpose has been much broader, by supporting democratic institutions and the rule of law. An early catalyst for Euro-Atlantic integration came in support for the Balkan Trust for Democracy (BTD), which backs democracy, good governance, and Euro-Atlantic integration in south-eastern Europe. Created in 2003 by the German Marshall Fund of the United States, the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), and the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, BTD's original ten-year mandate came to an end in May 2013. BTD then entered into its second mandate (2013-20) with structural changes to geographic coverage and grant making scope (GMF, 2018; Reaves, 2009).

ROLE AND IMPACT OF SMALL STATES DIPLOMACY IN NATIONAL SECURITY

To protect and to promote their vital interests, small states must determine what strategy needs to be followed and then support the plan politically. The concept of neutrality in international relations has not changed. Yet, according to analysis, its future in the globalized world is very insecure (Harden, 1994). In the last decade, even the most typical examples of neutral states, Austria and Switzerland, manifest attitudes that are not aligned with the traditional definition of this term. Especially after 1989, isolation or neutralism in the world is no longer logical. This applies equally for countries in the western Balkans. Rather, they need to look toward diplomacy as a viable option. Diplomacy is a safe means for a small state to confront external threats. Since a small state is not able to stand against a conflict with its own forces, the best option to avoid or to decrease the danger of conflict is diplomacy.

Other small states such as Finland, Singapore and many microstates in the Pacific and Caribbean have followed a policy of "neutral" diplomacy. This form of diplomacy has its flaws because the wish for understanding and good relationships with neighbours may be considered a weakness. While this approach has value for small states as well as large ones, only the states with powerful armies can confront the challenges of world politics.

The only way to avoid insecurity, which for small states in international relations is greater than for large states, is their association with international institutions. This way they "exercise" two functions:

- a) First, “they deter” the rigid attitude from large states through joint rules and principles that apply to both small and large states. Because this structure decreases the risk of misunderstanding that could increase the chance of an armed confrontation, it affects directly the security of small states.
- b) Secondly, these institutions provide a chance for small states to express their opinion and, even in the last instance, to use their veto for important issues that are in their national interest. Even where the weight of votes is asymmetrical (such as for example in UN where only the permanent members of the Security Council have the right to use the veto), small states can still exercise their greatest impact (Wivel, 2005, p. 6).

Membership in regional organizations institutionalizes relations between small states in the field of economy and security as well as it sets a framework for conduct, which protects the weak from the eventual misuse of the strong. Joint policies and associations assist the small member states in the European Union to exercise their influence both inside and outside their region much easier than if they acted individually (Wivel, 2005, p. 2). According to Wivel, small states traditionally have a privileged position in European Union. He explains that through institutional arrangements in the European Union’s key bodies (the Council, the Commission and the Parliament), the small states exercise influence which is proportionally greater than their potential.

MULTILATERAL COMMITMENT IN KOSOVO

Kosovo is influenced by its geo-strategic position and, as a result, the "diplomatic games" of the international arena. On the one hand, as a Balkan environment, it is affected by all the historical legacy of this region. In turn, as part of the European environment, states of the European Union and the United States practice positive influence on stability, democratization, and integration. Kosovo's geographical position takes a special importance, putting it on paths that cross Europe and lead to southern Europe and the Mediterranean basin.

With the declaration of independence on February 17, 2008, Kosovo defined its strategic goals in foreign policy. These shaped its security policy as an integral part of other policies. The strategic goals of Kosovo security policy and foreign policy focus on: political and diplomatic activities to increase the number of countries for international recognition of Kosovo; policies and constructive roles in international economic organizations; commitment to the growth of bilateral relations with all partner countries, especially with neighbouring countries; political activities, cultural and economic affirmation of Kosovo in the international community in the realization of national interests; and concern for Kosovars in the world.

Two documents of special importance, “The General Security Strategy of Kosovo” (Office of the Prime Minister, 2010) and “The Definition of National Critical Infrastructure” (Republic of Kosovo, 2018), broadly define and state the interests of Kosovo, including key elements of the “national being” as it applies to security institutions. These interests are: the preservation of the sovereignty of the Republic of Kosovo, protection of constitutional order, independence and territorial integrity, freedom and human rights, economic growth and prosperity, membership in

international security structures, and development and protection of key systems, including transportation links, energy, water supply, supply of foodstuffs, and elements of national culture and identity.

The policy of cooperation and integration in the international security institutions, with particular emphasis on NATO integration, as a means of achieving stability in the country and the region, constitutes a fundamental objective and strategic solution for Kosovo's security and defence of national interests. However, the rate of success in the implementation of this policy depends on achieving internal stability and consolidation of democratic society and human rights, economic development, human capacity building (education level and functional literacy), and consolidation of institutions and instruments of security (Stewart, 2004). Also, important to success is the affirmation of Kosovo as a contributing factor in the progress of the processes of regional and global security. Kosovo, supported by NATO and EULEX (European Union Rule of Law Mission in Kosovo), is building a European security system, which is based on mutual cooperation at regional and international levels.

NATO provides security to Kosovo through KFOR (Kosovo Forces), which has a 5000-person strong military presence in the country. In 2013, NATO played an important role in securing agreement for the EU-facilitated First Agreement of Principles Governing the Normalisation of Relations between Kosovo and Serbia. NATO and its allies continue to support the accord and dialogue in hopes of solving the political impasse and improving relations between the two nations. NATO also supports the Stabilisation and Association Agreement (SAA) between the EU and Kosovo that was signed in 2015 and implemented in 2016 (NATO, 2017).

The SAA establishes an agreement between the European Union and Kosovo that describes mutual rights and obligations related to a number of areas. It assures Kosovo respects “key democratic principles and core elements” that form EU market principles and allows for free trade. It requires Kosovo make reforms that meet EU standards in areas such as competition, state aid, and intellectual property. It also encourages political dialogue and provides for cooperation in areas like education and employment, energy and the environment, and justice and home affairs (European Council, 2015).

The main aim of the general security policy of Kosovo relates the broad concept of “personal” security and the strengthening of security in cooperation with other countries based on the principles of the UN, OSCE and the Council of Europe. Maintaining the independence and territorial integrity of the countries of the western Balkans is of special importance for Kosovo and for stability and security in this region. In this regard, the establishment and expansion of the mission of EULEX throughout the territory of Kosovo is of particular importance, because this mission is making efforts to meet the basic principles of the Declaration of Lisbon (1996). This declaration assures the “freedom of states to decide their own commitments on security, including alliances and treaties” and obliges states “to take into account the legitimate interests of other countries, especially neighbouring countries” (OSCE, 1996; EULEX Kosovo, n.d.).

The mission of EULEX in Kosovo is complex work, because solutions must address the documents of the Council of the European Union (2008/124 / CFSP), especially the executive responsibilities, the heterogeneity of the composition of the staff, as well as the functioning of state structures and

the justice system, especially in the north. EULEX has undertaken several successful activities in the field of customs and the management of visits of top Serbian officials to Kosovo. However, the mission has not fulfilled its objectives and the results can be considered modest, as they pertain to the extension of EULEX throughout the territory of Kosovo and the outcome of all criminal cases in the Supreme Court of Kosovo inherited from United Nations Mission in Kosovo (UNMIK) (Proksik, 2017; Radin, 2014). The resolution of some criminal cases is complicated by other levels of the judiciary as well, particularly as they relate to several persons suspected of committing serious crimes during the war and the management of several criminal cases related to exhumations and identification of mortal remains of wartime. Finally, the mission has failed in that some areas of the territory of Kosovo continue to operate outside the jurisdiction of the institutions of Kosovo and international authorities. Illegal Serbian structures continue to operate and Serbian and several other intelligence services function within the country. Remnants of the Serb forced system of governance of Kosovo continue to be administered and funded directly by the Republic of Serbia (Selimi, 2015).

KOSOVO SECURITY CHALLENGES

Environmental challenges of societal security in Kosovo are many. These are affected by the current international and domestic circumstances faced by Kosovo. Some of them have a direct impact (acute) on safety, while others have indirect or delayed impact. Those that have direct impact on societal security are corruption, terrorism and organized crime, including trafficking in human beings and illegal trafficking of controlled substances - drugs, weapons, technology. Challenges that have indirect or delayed impact include the low quality of education at all levels, resulting in functional "illiteracy"; the lack of agrarian policy and the strategy of urbanization; the integration of the Serb minority in state institutions; and the influence of Belgrade on the Serbian minority.

Kosovo's security challenges are similar to other countries in the region. Forca (2018) identifies the following problems facing countries in the western Balkans in their bid for EU membership: a stalemate in democratic institutions; an ineffective judiciary; the lack of, or insufficient level of, the rule of law (particularly in regards to guarantees for human rights and freedoms); and the unsuccessful fight against organized crime and the economic crisis (including foreign indebtedness, budget deficits, high unemployment rates).

After thirty years, a census of the population was completed in 2011. Data from this census has not yet been published. Nevertheless, it is known that Kosovo has the youngest population in the continent (Kosovo Agency of Statistics, 2013). Gashi (2009) has warned that no matter how positive this fact is, in terms of capacity development, the young population creates challenges. For example, the level of achievement of success in the matriculation exam has decreased, forcing the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology to do what should not be done – to lower the threshold for passing the test. Private education systems in Kosovo have created an inflation of personnel in the social sciences – lawyers, bankers, managers, criminologists, political scientists, diplomats – who cannot find practical application of their skills. In the meantime, there is a need

for people with technical skills and science backgrounds, i.e., medicine, construction, and heavy machinery operation (Beka, 2014; Kosovo Education Center, 2014).

While the unemployment rate in Kosovo is 26.5 percent in the first quarter of 2018, its average from 2001-2018 is 36.9 percent. It decreased to 26.50 percent from 30.60 percent in the fourth quarter of 2017. Youth unemployment is much higher at 54 percent for the first quarter of 2018 (Trading Economics, 2018a, 2018b). Unemployment has led to an exit of many of young and educated Kosovars to countries in the European Union, Switzerland, and the United States. Remittances are the largest source of external financing for Kosovo. Even though their share in GDP fell from 17.5 percent in 2004 to below 13 percent in 2010, it is still high by regional and global standards (World Bank, 2011).

The United States Department of State (2012) rated crime level as “high” in Kosovo. High unemployment and other economic factors encourage criminal activity, according to the report. Unemployment and poverty are factors leading to street crime as well as organized crime. Half of the Kosovar population live below the poverty line. Corruption in politics also contributes to organized crime. Some claim EULEX, the police, and government have ignored organized crime as a compromise in nation building (Xhymshiti, 2015; Proksik, 2013).

Significant improvement of road infrastructure is undoubtedly a great achievement in the independent Kosovo. A highway connecting Albania and Serbia directly through Kosovo has become an important corridor connecting the Adriatic Sea to Western Europe (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2015). But this achievement should extend to investing in the development of urbanization outside major cities. Gashi (2009) has warned about the failure of spatial and urban planning and its impact on the country’s infrastructure. He has also expressed concern about weaknesses in how security institutions are organized to protect personal safety and the security of the country (See also Personal Security, 2007). The Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Rural Development’s efforts should be praised, which under the harsh conditions of budgetary constraints, has taken great steps to promote agriculture and livestock. Investments in agriculture improve employment rate, reduce the country's dependence on imports of agricultural products, as well as reduce migration from villages to cities. The agricultural sector contributes up to 20 percent of GDP, supporting 62 percent of Kosovo's population that lives in the rural areas (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2017; Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry, and Rural Development, 2017).

The integration of minorities into society and state institutions is a prerequisite for European Union membership. However, putting the needs of a group of any affiliation (whether economic, social, or ethnic) before the needs and welfare of society in general never brings the expected effects. In fact, human history has proven that these attempts always end in disaster for individuals and the whole society. Such efforts in Kosovo resulted in 90 years of open war that finally ended in the late twentieth century. Kosovo institutions should learn from the bitter experiences of the past by providing safety of all minorities. UNMIK “inherited” a Serbian minority of about 120,000 persons, many of whom oppose the Kosovo state. The Kosovo state and local institutions are responsible for their safety and protection (Personal Security, 2007; Community Policing, 2007).

While the influence of Belgrade among Kosovo Serbs has decreased significantly since the Kosovo war of 1998-1999, especially after the declaration of independence in 2008, the impact remains

problematic, especially in the north. Local elections in 2009 and as well as the national elections in 2014 also helped to alleviate the concerns of the Serbian minority. Besides being a political problem, this influence is a threat to general security of Kosovo. Local Serbs in Zvecan have already blocked the highway several times, proving that any time they can cause turmoil in the security system. They neither recognize nor support the Kosovo Police, the NATO Kosovo Force (KFOR) or EULEX. Their lack of support is demonstrated by impeding the arrest of suspects for organized crime and by supporting smuggling and obstructing police efforts to prevent illegal imports from Serbia (GazetaExpress, 2018; BalkanInsight, 2013).

CONCLUSION

State security as a concept is complex. Security is a multi-dimensional structure. The overall global security situation over the past decade has changed dramatically. In the new security environment, the traditional concepts no longer provide solutions for present problems (Viano, 1999). In the short term, association with other states within an affiliation like Euro-Atlantic integration continues to be the best solution for Kosovo societal security. Ultimately, membership in NATO and the European Union will be the best solution to allay both external and internal threats.

While many old threats have been placated, they have been replaced by new and scarier challenges. Some segments of organized crime – terrorism, illegal trafficking, exploitation of human beings, and corruption of senior officials – have caused serious consequences not only to human lives, but also to the economic and political stability and security of the countries with fragile democracies. While the western Balkans have seen much progress, the region faces difficult challenges, such as social shock, anarchy, violence, and constitutional violations. These impediments have endangered the security and integrity of the region and its countries. The troubled security is a product of a troubled world.

To ensure peace the small states must use strategies for power balancing. Diplomacy is the safest means for a small state to confront the external threats. Because a small state is not able to stand against a conflict with its own forces, the only way to avoid or reduce the risk of conflict is through diplomacy. While small states like Kosovo need the economic and business support of large states from the east and the west, they don't need political meddling in their internal affairs.

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ASSESSING THE PERCEPTIONS AND USAGE OF AGILE SOFTWARE DEVELOPMENT PRACTICES IN ACADEMIC SETTINGS

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the usage of Scrum as a holistic approach in a software engineering course. The research strives to realize the following two objectives: a) to investigate whether adoption of Scrum framework works better to achieve learning goals, and b) to investigate whether engaging in Scrum helps college instructors find more alternative ways to examine the effectiveness of teaching and learning experience. A self-report survey that evaluates the perception and usability of Scrum was conducted. The analysis result from students' self-report indicated that Scrum helped students to take ownership and accountability in delivering a working software based on the expected project outcomes. The results also indicated that employing Scrum empowers and frees students to determine how to accomplish the assigned tasks. Overall, the result suggests that employing agile practices in a college environment could help students gain industry level experience.

INTRODUCTION

Software companies frequently emphasize that job applicants with computer science degrees have difficulties in writing efficient software code, and generally lack skills in the area of communications and teamwork (Stevens & Norman, 2016; Radermacher, Walia, & Knudson, 2014). Many software practitioners argue that college level courses in computer science and information systems often are mismatched with the industry expectations (Diebold et al., 2015; Kaushal, 2016; Li, 2016). On the one hand, a vast majority of colleges offering software engineering courses follow a traditional software development approach. On the other hand, more than 75% of software-based industries follow a holistic approach using some form of agile practices (Pfeffer & Berchez, 2017). Thus, to minimize this disparity, college curricula should respond to the industry demand by providing students with the necessary knowledge, skills, and experiences in developing professional software (Mahnich, 2012; Paasivaara et al., 2017; Lu & DeClue, 2012).

Since the release of the agile manifesto, companies have been willing to shift from traditional-sequential (Relay race) software development to the agile-holistic (Rugby) approach (Takeuchi, H., & Nonaka, 1996; Hackman, 2002). Currently the agile revolution touched many domains to include software development companies, hardware, autonomous systems, schools, commerce, and the management of daily operations in government and non-government organizations (Steinhardt, 2017; Holbeche, 2015). This revolution was started by 17 software experts, who

collectively crafted the agile manifesto (Fowler & Highsmith, 2001; Manifesto, 2015; Beck et al., 2016). The Agile manifesto is described in the form of four values. *“Individuals and interactions over processes and tools, working software over comprehensive documentation, customer collaboration over contract negotiation, and responding to change over following a plan.”* [emphasis added]. Additionally, the agile methodology also proposed twelve core principles that distinguish the agile approach to the traditional sequential approach (Fowler & Highsmith, 2001; Manifesto, 2015). Agile practices such as Extreme Programming (XP), Kanban, Test-Driven Development (TDD), continuous integration, and Scrum are popular and share the common values and principles of the agile methodology (Beck, 1999; Erickson, Lyytinen, & Siau, 2005; Hiranabe, 2008; Maximilien & Williams, 2003; Fowler & Foemmel, 2006; Schwaber, 1997; Sutherland & Schwaber, 2007). Among the aforementioned agile practices, Scrum is the most widely used and preferred choice due to its simple rules, clear artifacts, and event structures (Alexandros et al., 2017; Cohn, 2010; Derby, Larsen, & Schwaber, 2006; Alliance, 2017; Davies & Sedley, 2009; Adkins, 2010).

Scrum implements the agile values and principles in various stages of the Scrum process, including product backlog refinement, sprint planning, daily standup meeting, sprint review, and retrospective meeting. (Schwaber, 1997; Sutherland & Schwaber, 2007; Alliance, 2017; Davies & Sedley, 2009; Adkins, 2010). Scrum is based on the theory of empirical process, which focuses on transparency, adaptation, and inspection (Sutherland & Schwaber, 2007; Alliance, 2017; Bens, 2017). It also emphasizes that the values (focuses, courage, commitment, openness, and respect) are expressed in the Scrum roles, events, and artifacts (Alliance, 2017). Scrum advocates an iterative and incremental approach of product development to empower predictability and manage risks effectively. The Scrum framework prescribes a minimum of three artifacts: product backlog, sprint backlog, and product increment [Scrum alliance]. Additionally, it also defines these four events: sprint planning, daily standup meeting, sprint review, and Retrospective meeting. All the Scrum events are time-boxed to achieve focused attention, improved efficiency, and to forecast predictability.

The goal of this research is to evaluate the effectiveness of scrum in educational settings. This research strives to answer the following two objectives: a) to investigate whether adoption of scrum effectively works to better achieve learning goals set by Software Engineering course curricula, and b) to investigate whether engaging in scrum helps teachers find more alternative ways to examine the effectiveness of the teaching and learning experience. The research is based on a subject design that involves two group of participants that use a digital and physical scrum board, respectively. This is an IRB-approved research study involving senior computer science students. Participants were asked to answer ten self-assessment questions that mainly focus on the Scrum experience: learning to work with the team; learning to be effective and efficient; learning to respect the opinion of others; and learning to meet expectations. The remaining sections of the paper are organized as follows. A discussion about the research model is presented first. Secondly, there is an analysis of the data. Thirdly, there is a discussion of the results of the post-scrum self-report survey, followed by concluding remarks.

METHODOLOGY

Pre-scrum class meeting

At the start of the class, the instructor selected five projects: Insulin pump, Mentcare, Arena, Weather Wilderness, and iLearn (Sommerville, 2007). The Insulin pump project is an embedded system used by diabetics to regulate blood glucose level. It contains a hardware sensor that collects data from blood sugar and calculates the amount of insulin required to be injected into the diabetic patient. The Mentcare project is a medical information system designed to support patients suffering from mental health problems and track the treatments that they have received. The Arena project is multi-user system for organizing and conducting tournaments, which involves operators, league owner, players, spectators, and advertisers. The Weather Wilderness project involves the development of a data collection system that collects data about weather conditions in remote areas and presents the data in a more user-friendly interface. Finally, the iLearn project mimics a digital learning system to support teaching and learning processes in higher education. Just in time (high level) requirements were given to the students at the start of the project.

All the projects were assigned to students (i.e students were not given the option to choose projects), with a maximum of eight team members per project. It is understandable that software engineers generally do not choose projects to work with; instead, companies assign developers to a project. For all of the projects listed above, the instructor acts as a client. To better manage the projects, GitHub repositories were created and each project member is added as contributor to the respective project repositories. Once the project assignment is completed, high-level requirements were given to the group. In the meantime, half of the semester was allotted to equip the students with the skills and knowledge to accomplish the required work for the assigned projects. Instructional content covered in the first half of the semester includes:

- introduction to software engineering approaches (traditional and agile practices);
- software engineering phases;
- requirements engineering; design (architectural design;
- UML class diagram; design patterns; database design);
- implementation (in-class implementation of a JavaFX starter program on sample car dealership project); and the
- foundation of the agile and scrum (agile manifesto and the three triads of scrum, scrum artifacts, scrum roles, and scrum events) approach to software development projects.

In-Scrum Class Meeting

The next half of the course, the students started working on their projects. There was a total of ten product owners (one per team), ten Scrum masters (one per team), and about 60 developers. Out of the ten product owners, three of them were females and the rest were males. Similarly, 30 percent of the Scrum masters were females. After the scrum role assignment is completed, the product owner (PO), communicates with the client to create the product backlog items (PBIs) and

prioritize them. Once, the PBIs were created, each team met in class to conduct product refinements task. The PBIs were described in the form of user stories. Sample PBIs for Insulin pump project include:

1. As a user, I want the pump to collect the necessary information about my blood glucose level in regular intervals and release insulin into my blood in order to keep blood sugar levels stable.
2. As a user, I want to be able to review data collected by the pump, so that I can make smarter lifestyle choices.
3. As a user, I want to be alerted whenever the pump collects information that implicates problematic blood sugar levels so that I can take the necessary steps to respond to the issue.
4. As a user, I want to know when the pump is running low on battery/ insulin, so I can replace the resource before running out of it.
5. As a user, I want the pump to alert me when it detects a malfunction on either the software or hardware level, so that I can take the necessary steps to still supply my body with the necessary insulin through other sources until the error is fixed.
6. As a user, I want the pump to have an emergency mechanism to alert a healthcare provider/ selected caretaker in case of an emergency.
7. As a user, I want to be able to interact with the pump through a simple, intuitive interface so that I can start using the pump immediately without any learning curve.
8. As a user, I want to be able to access my records when needing to consult with my doctor.
9. As a user, I want the pump to be secure so that only those who are authorized can access/modify it.
10. As a diabetes user, I want to have a chart that plots my blood sugar levels every 5 minutes.

According to the Scrum alliance, in order to be successful in Scrum, each team should pass through all the suggested stages of the Scrum process (Scrum Alliance, 2017). Figure 1 shows all the roles, artifacts, and events included in a typical Scrum-based product development. Scrum activities generally starts with product backlog refinement. After completing the product refinements activities, the developer's team, together with the product owner, attended the sprint planning meeting to create the sprint backlog items, estimate the tasks, and commit the work delivery for the upcoming sprint. It is important to note that the Scrum reference handbook states that sprint planning activity is aimed to answer the following two questions: "*What can be delivered in the increment resulting from the upcoming Sprint? And, how will the work needed to deliver in the increment be achieved?*" (Scrum Alliance, 2017). At the end of the sprint planning meeting, team members estimated each of the top user stories from the product backlog and commit the task. Of the two sections involved in the study, one section is given a physical Scrum board to create the sprint backlog and the associated tasks. The other section used trello.com to digitally maintain and manage sprint backlog items and tasks. Figure 2 shows the Trello sample of the sprint board for the insulin pump project (Trello, 2017). As shown in Figure 2, the sprint board contains five columns representing the product backlog, the sprint backlog, to do task list for the current sprint, in progress task list for the current sprint, task list of tasks completed for the current sprint.

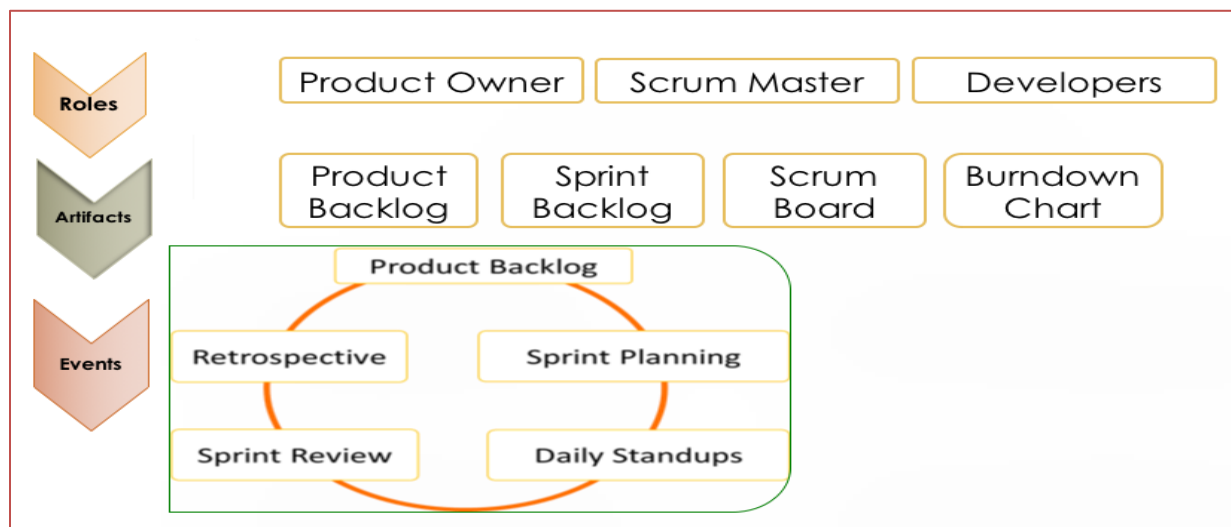


FIGURE 1: ACTIVITY FLOW OF VARIOUS STAGES OF THE SCRUM PROCESS

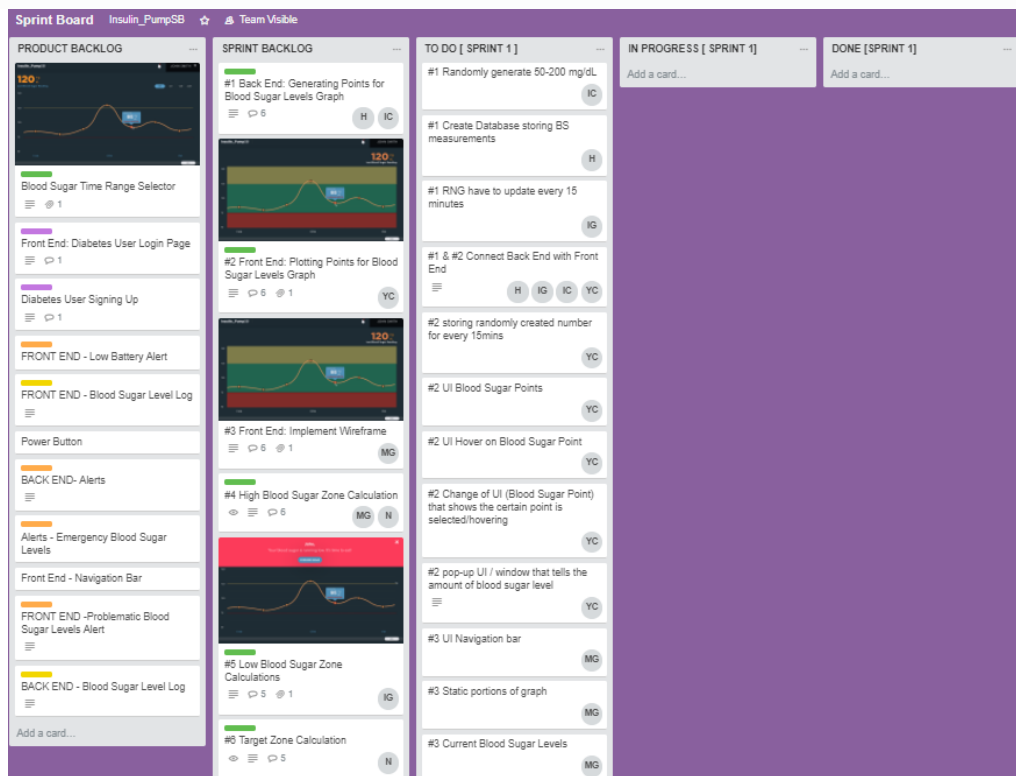


FIGURE 2: DIGITAL SPRINT BOARD FOR THE INITIAL STAGE OF THE INSULIN PUMP PROJECT

After completing the sprint planning meeting, each team commits to complete the user stories listed in the sprint backlog, and each team member chooses tasks to work on from the *to do* task list (see Figure 2). Until the completion of the two-week sprint, every class meeting includes a daily standup meeting assignment. The Scrum Alliance emphasized that timeboxing the sprint has several benefits which include: focus, efficiency, and predictability (Scrum Alliance, 2017). The input for sprint planning includes a set of PBIs, and the output includes a sprint goal and a sprint backlog. The sprint planning answers two questions: “*What to solve and how to solve it*”. The product owner answers the “*what*” questions of the product and the development team answers the “*how*” questions of the product. Overall, during the sprint planning, the product owner presents the sprint goal and the list of PBIs, answers questions related to the PBIs, and negotiates on the scope of the current sprint tasks. The development team forecasts how many user stories to transfer from product backlog to sprint backlog, converts the user stories from sprint backlog into multiple tasks. The Scrum master facilitates the interaction between the product owner and the development team.

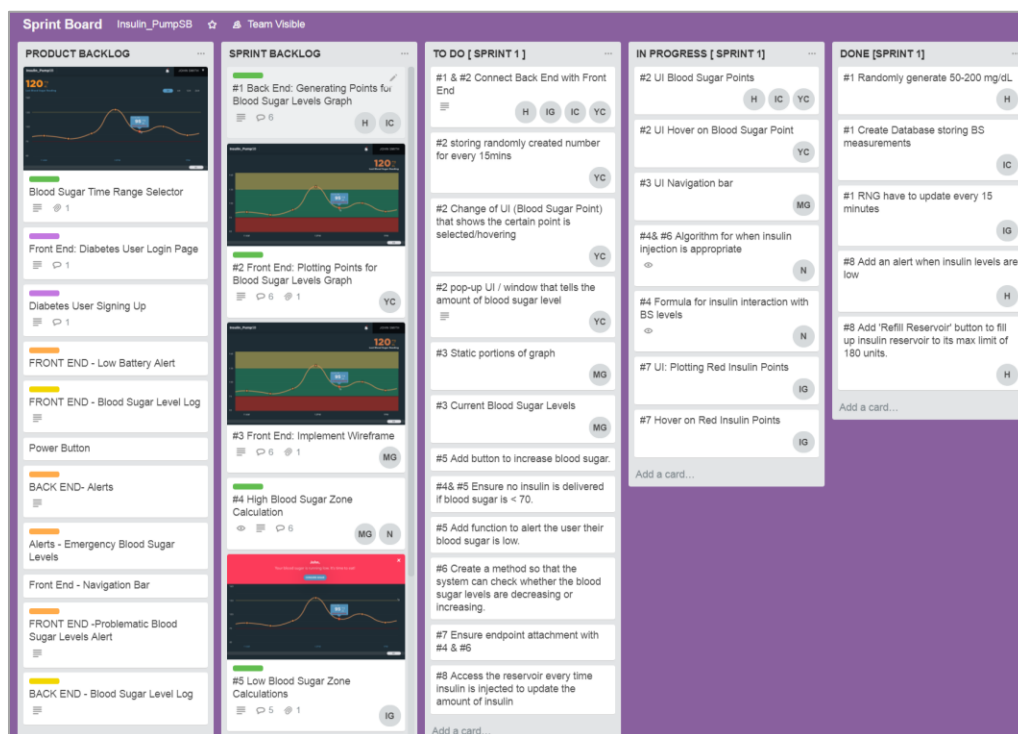


FIGURE 3: SNAPSHOT OF THE DIGITAL SPRINT BOARD IN THE MIDDLE OF THE SPRING FOR THE ARENA PROJECT

Unlike the traditional status report meeting, the daily standup meeting doesn't involve any ranked individuals. Its main purpose is to enable the development team to self-manage the work and focus on the sprint goal rather than just on the activity. Only the development team members are required to attend the meeting, which lasts no more than fifteen minutes. During, the daily standup meeting, each developer answered three questions: 1) What did I do yesterday that helped the development team meet the sprint goal? 2) What will I do today to help the

development team meet the sprint goal? 3) Do I see any impediment that prevents me or the development team from meeting the sprint goal? (*Scrum Alliance*, 2017). Additionally, the developer could select a task from the *to do* list, or move tasks from the in-progress task list to the complete (done) column. Figure 3 shows a snap shot of the Sprint board in the middle of the sprint: As can be seen from Figure 3, tasks were moved from the '*to do*' column to '*in progress*' and to '*done*' column. Overall, the daily standup meeting is aimed to improve communication and eliminates other unnecessary meetings that potentially affect team performance.

After the two-week timeboxed period, a sprint review was conducted. According to Scrum, the sprint review is not just a demonstration of the work done during the current sprint cycle, but also a strategy meeting to evaluate product vision, and determine whether the product development is within the timeframe and budget (*Scrum Alliance*, 2017). The outcomes of the sprint review include revised PBIs, a revised timeline and budget, and an update to the product vision. For this research, during the sprint review, the instructor randomly selected one developer from each team to lead the demonstration. The expectation was that if all tasks specified in the sprint backlog were completed, the product could be accepted as potentially shippable. If any of the user stories were not completely implemented and tested, the team would be expected to report to the product owner. The product owner would then notify the client that the team was not able to complete the sprint. Referring to the Sprint Board during the sprint review session, makes it is easy to deduce that the task is indeed completed. Figure 4, shows the snapshot of the Sprint board at the time of sprint review.

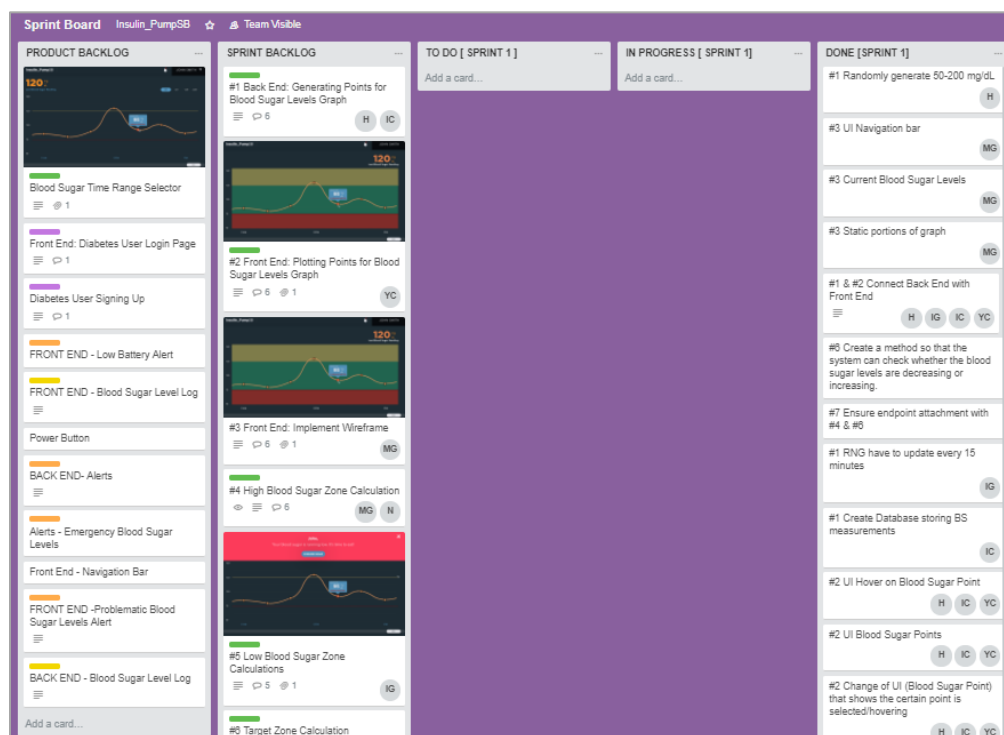


FIGURE 4: SNAPSHOT OF THE DIGITAL SPRINT BOARD AT THE END OF SPRING FOR THE INSULIN PUMP PROJECT

Figure 5 shows the snapshot of the sprint board at a given final stage of the sprint. As can be easily inferred from the results, the two teams were able to complete successfully the sprint and delivered the potentially shippable product to the client. After reviewing the demo, both the client (instructor) and the product owners accepted the product increment for these projects. However, out of ten teams, only four teams were able to successfully complete sprint one and nine of them were able to complete sprint two. Following sprint review, a retrospective meeting was conducted by each team. Each team answered the following questions: 1) What went well during the sprint cycle? 2) What went wrong during the sprint cycle? 3) What could we do differently to improve? It was interesting to hear the response of each team member. In addition, the class was informed that team members shouldn't transfer blame and that as a team, together they either succeed or fail.

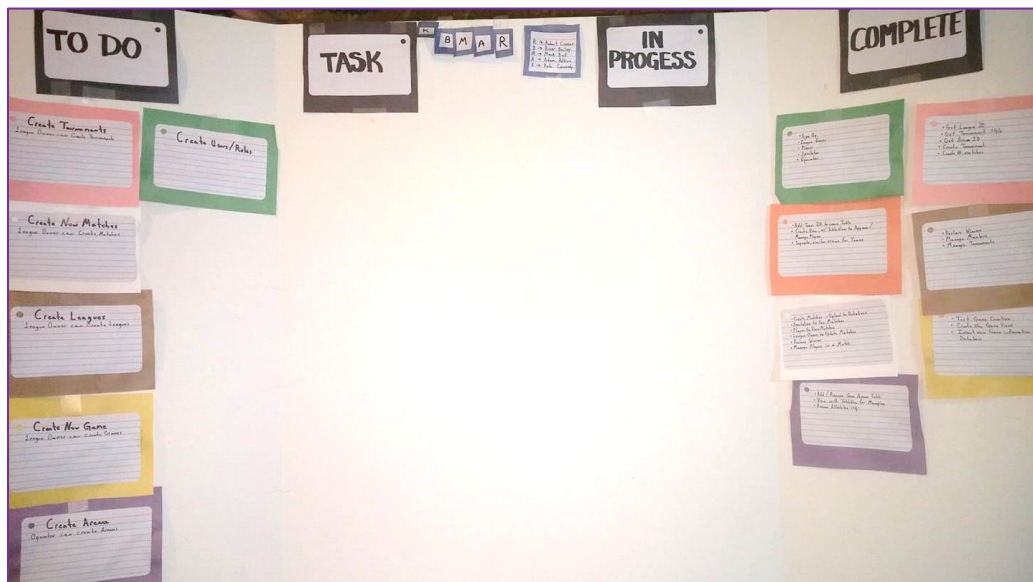


FIGURE 5: PHYSICAL SPRINT BOARD FOR THE ARENA PROJECT

Sample responses from a Mentcare Project team member to questions:

Question: What went well during the sprint cycle?

I think what went really well during the sprint cycle was the input from the entire team for MentCareSB. Everyone had their own ideas about what to do for the project and we were able to implement everyone's ideas evenly. I also think that our communication was efficient. We had a group chat on GroupMe for iPhone and everyone was able to respond in a timely manner.

Question: What went wrong during the sprint cycle?

I think the main thing that went wrong was that at the first few days of this sprint we had a developer who preferred that he worked alone on his own implementation of the project. Others would provide them the code they needed to make a feature work but the developer had a hard time using their code with his so they made their own version of it. In the end, everything worked out and we discussed it all together and resolved this issue with better version control.

Question: What could we do differently to improve?

I think something that could be done differently is that we could have had a more balanced amount of work spread between the team. Some of us were assigned really difficult tasks to tackle whereas some others were assigned easier tasks that they could finish rather quickly and then just wait for the harder tasks to be completed. I think what could have been done better would be for the people assigned with the easy tasks to pair-program with the people assigned to do the harder tasks that way we finish things quickly and efficiently.

Data Analysis and results

After completing the Scrum-based project asks, the students were asked post scrum survey questions. Students also provided additional qualitative feedbacks as they answered the ten quantitative survey questions. Table 1 provides consolidated ratings of students for the for the quantitative survey questions. Majority of the students expressed that Scrum based software development improve team collaborations while producing a quality product increment.

TABLE 1. COMBINED RATINGS OF STUDENTS FOR QUANTITATIVE QUESTIONS

Questions/Statements	Strongly disagree							Strongly agree	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7		
How would you rate the work that the group has produced?	0	0	0	1	8	24	29	(46.7%)	
The PBIs contained enough information to effectively work for the entire sprint to achieve the learning goals	0	0	0	2	7	22	31	(50%)	
The task board was updated regularly	0	0	2	3	5	17	35	(56.5)	
The burn-down chart is indicative of team progress	0	0	2	3	9	18	29	(46.8%)	
Individuals in the team work well together	0	1	1	6	1	27	15	(24.2%)	
Individuals from the development team are comfortable to interact with the product owner and the scrum master	0	0	0	5	7	10	40	(64.5%)	
The product owner is willing to explain the questions and issues we have encountered during our sprint	0	0		2	1	12	47	(75.8%)	
Team members are comfortable to provide their feedback.	0	0	0	2	6	24	30	(48.4%)	
Individuals in a team trust one another	1	0	1	1	3	19	37	(59.7%)	
I have enjoyed working with my team	0	1	0	0	5	10	46	(74.2%)	

Detailed analysis and explanation for each question and additional qualitative feedback are provided in the sections below:

- 1. How would you rate the work that the group has produced?** As the agile practice, Scrum embraces continuous integration, code refactoring, collective code ownership to produce high quality product and to minimize shortcomings that result from unnecessary specialization which hinders knowledge transfer. This survey question aims to self-assess group work to produce a potentially shippable product increment. The students were asked to rate the team work with a scale of 1 to 7, where one is very poor and seven was excellent. Table 2 presents the comparison of the mean and standard deviation of the rating between the two categories of participants who used either physical or digital scrum board. The result shows that the average rating for physical scrum board seems better than the digital board. Further analysis using an independent-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate team collaboration for physical ($\mu=6.36$,

$\sigma=0.883$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.22$, $\sigma=0.883$) conditions. However, the analysis result indicated that there was no significant difference between the two conditions; $t(62) = 0.832$, $p = 0.48$.

TABLE 2. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “HOW WOULD YOU RATE THE WORK THAT THE GROUP HAS PRODUCED?”

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=31)	6.36	0.883
Digital (n=31)	6.22	0.659

- 1. The product backlog items (PBIs) contained enough information to effectively work for the entire sprint to achieve the learning goals.** As shown in Table 3, the result indicated that the average completeness of the just-in-time requirements as expressed in PBIs for scrum board type shows that digital scrum board is better than the physical board. Further analysis using an independent-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate team collaboration for physical ($\mu=6.19$, $\sigma=0.859$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.44$, $\sigma=0.716$) conditions. However, the analysis result still indicated that there was no significant difference between the two conditions: $t(62) = -1.265$, $p = 0.804$.

TABLE 3. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “THE PRODUCT BACKLOG ITEMS (PBIs) CONTAINED ENOUGH INFORMATION TO EFFECTIVELY WORK FOR THE ENTIRE SPRINT TO ACHIEVE THE LEARNING GOALS “(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.19	0.859
Digital (n=32)	6.44	0.716

- 2. The task board was updated regularly.** Scrum describes task board as real-time snapshot of the team progress at a given time for a particular sprint cycle. Therefore, the question stated above emphasizes how frequently the team members update the task board to reflect the current status of the sprint. Table 4 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the currency of the task board for both physical and digital scrum board conditions. The descriptive statistics indicated in Table 4 shows that digital scrum board produced a better result. However, further analysis using an independent-samples t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between the physical ($\mu=6.28$, $\sigma=1.023$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.00$, $\sigma=1.047$) conditions as well; $t(62) = 1.087$, $p = 0.281$

TABLE 4. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “THE TASK BOARD WAS UPDATED REGULARLY “(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.28	1.023
Digital (n=32)	6.00	1.047

3. **The burn-down chart is indicative of team progress.** Table 5 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the currency of the task board for both physical and digital scrum board conditions. The descriptive statistics indicated in Table 4 shows that digital scrum board produced a better result. However, further analysis using an independent-samples t-test also indicated that there was no significant difference between the physical ($\mu=6.28$, $\sigma=1.023$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.00$, $\sigma=1.047$) conditions; $t(62) = 1.087$, $p = 0.281$

TABLE 5. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “THE BURN-DOWN CHART IS INDICATIVE OF TEAM PROGRESS “(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.28	1.023
Digital (n=32)	6.00	1.047

4. **Individuals in the team work well together.** According to Scrum, the goals of the development team is to achieve the five values of Scrum, namely: focus, courage, commitment, openness, and respect. The team is expected to strive in the production of quality work, self-signing up for tasks rather than be assigned by someone else. Overall, the responsibilities of the development team include: provide task estimate, produce a usable product, continuously improve the engineering particles, implement action items, and conduct product planning rather than project planning. Based on the above, concept the survey question “individuals in the team work well together” was designed. Table 6 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the interaction of individuals in the team for both physical and digital scrum board conditions. The descriptive statistics indicated in Table 6 shows that digital scrum board seems to produce a better result. However, further analysis using an independent-samples t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between the physical scrum board ($\mu=6.38$, $\sigma=0.942$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.34$, $\sigma=1.004$) conditions; $t(62) = 0.128$, $p = 0.77$

TABLE 6. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “INDIVIDUALS IN THE TEAM WORK WELL TOGETHER “(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.38	0.942
Digital (n=32)	6.34	1.004

5. **Individuals from the development team are comfortable to interact with the product owner and the scrum master.** It is important to note that the scrum master should constantly inform the development team to self-manage and encourages clear and open communication. In addition, when excessive time pressure is imposed by the product owner, the quality of the product suffers. Additionally, the scrum master should help the development team to expose any impediment and work with the team to resolve any misunderstandings between the product owner and development team. Accordingly, this survey question focuses whether the scrum master enables the team to avoid dominance, aggressiveness, blame transfer, and disrespectfulness. Table 7 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the interaction of individuals from the development team with the product owner and scrum master in the team for both physical and digital scrum board conditions. The descriptive statistics indicated in Table 7 shows that digital scrum board seems to produce a better result. Furthermore, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the interaction of individuals from the development team with product owner and scrum master of scrum physical and digital board conditions. As shown in Table 8, the analysis result indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores for physical ($\mu=6.56$, $\sigma=0.840$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.75$, $\sigma=0.440$) conditions; $t(62) = -1.119$, $p = 0.017$. These results suggest that digital scrum board type does have an effect on interaction of development team members with the results in better interaction than physical scrum board.

TABLE 7. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “INDIVIDUALS FROM THE DEVELOPMENT TEAM ARE COMFORTABLE TO INTERACT WITH THE PRODUCT OWNER AND THE SCRUM MASTER

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.56	0.840
Digital (n=32)	6.75	0.440

TABLE 8. INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF SCRUM BOARD TYPE ON THE INTERACTION BETWEEN DEVELOPMENT TEAM WITH THE PRODUCT OWNER AND SCRUM MASTER

Source of Variance	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	df	t	F	P(Sig)	
Equal variances assumed		62	-1.119	5.967	.017	

6. **The product owner is willing to explain the questions and issues we have encountered during our sprint.** Table 9 shows the mean and the standard deviation of willingness of the product owner with respect to the scrum board conditions. The descriptive statistics indicated in Table 7 shows that digital scrum board produced a better result. However, further analysis using an independent-samples t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between the physical scrum board ($\mu=6.41$, $\sigma=1.160$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.28$, $\sigma=1.023$) conditions; $t(62) = -.457$, $p = 0.545$

TABLE 9. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “THE PRODUCT OWNER IS WILLING TO EXPLAIN THE QUESTIONS AND ISSUES WE HAVE ENCOUNTERED DURING OUR SPRINT “(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.41	1.160
Digital (n=32)	6.28	1.023

7. **Team members are comfortable to provide their feedback.** Table 10 shows the mean and the standard deviation of how comfortable the development team to provide their feedback of the product owner with respect to the scrum board conditions. The descriptive statistics indicated in Table 8 shows that digital scrum board produced a better result. However, further analysis using an independent-samples t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between the physical scrum board ($\mu=6.38$, $\sigma=0.660$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.25$, $\sigma=0.880$) conditions; $t(62) = -.643$, $p = 0.263$

TABLE 10. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “TEAM MEMBERS ARE COMFORTABLE TO PROVIDE THEIR FEEDBACK “(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE; 7 = STRONGLY AGREE)

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.38	0.660
Digital (n=32)	6.25	0.880

- 8. Individuals in a team trust one another.** Table 11 shows the mean and the standard deviation of the interaction of individuals from the development team with the product owner and scrum master in the team for both physical and digital scrum board conditions. The descriptive statistics indicated in Table 11 shows that digital scrum board seems to produce a better result. Furthermore, an independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the interaction of individuals from the development team with product owner and scrum master of scrum physical and digital board conditions. As shown in Table 12, the analysis result indicated that there was a significant difference in the scores for physical ($\mu=6.63$, $\sigma=0.492$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.13$, $\sigma=1.362$) conditions; $t(62) = -1.953$, $p = 0.011$. These results suggest that digital scrum board type does have an effect on interaction of development team members with the results in better interaction than physical scrum board.

TABLE 11. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “INDIVIDUALS IN A TEAM TRUST ONE ANOTHER “(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.63	0.492
Digital (n=32)	6.13	1.362

TABLE 12. INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF SCRUM BOARD TYPE ON THE TRUST OF INDIVIDUAL WITH ONE ANOTHER

Source of Variance	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	df	t	F	P(Sig)
Equal variances assumed		62	-1.9539	6.953	.011

- 9. I have enjoyed working with my team.** Table 13 shows the mean and the standard deviation of how enjoyable was for individuals to work with the development team the development team with respect to the scrum board conditions. The descriptive statistics indicated in Table

11 shows that digital scrum board produced a better result. However, further analysis using an independent-samples t-test indicated that there was no significant difference between the physical scrum board ($\mu=6.66$, $\sigma=0.545$) and digital scrum board ($\mu=6.50$, $\sigma=.078$) conditions; $t(62) = -.732$, $p = 0.056$

TABLE 13. MEAN AGREEMENT WITH THE STATEMENT “I HAVE ENJOYED WORKING WITH MY TEAM “(1 = STRONGLY DISAGREE

Scrum Board Type	μ (Mean rating)	σ (Standard Deviation)
Physical (n=32)	6.66	0.545
Digital (n=32)	6.50	1.078

10. Explain about your Scrum project. What went well during the sprint cycle? What went wrong during the sprint cycle? And what do you think you could have done differently to improve? If you were to work with another project, would you prefer to work with the same team or work with others, why? This question requires students an ample period of time to answer. Many participants took the time to answer the questions. The following four paragraphs presents the selected answers by the participants two from each group

Many things went well during the sprint cycle. In the beginning of the project we took a lot of time in training each other how to work eclipse, scene builder, GitHub, and making sure everyone had the up to date versions of software on their laptops. We were able to come together as a group during the sprint cycle. Each of had assigned tasks and if one person was stuck on their task, another group member who had previous knowledge on the subject would step in to teach and help the group member that was struggling. The group as a whole worked together well. We always respected each other's points of view, which I think is the basis for creating that work environment within a team. We were able to deliver a working project two times this semester, which is a success in itself. The most successful aspect of this project is that we were able to learn how to work as a team while also learning the fundamentals of a scrum meetings and sprint cycle. During the sprint cycle, I do not believe we ran into too many major issues. This team was very interested in creating a working project. We all knew what our assigned tasks were and we all made ourselves available outside the classroom to help each other. I think the one thing that went wrong though was that we did not refer back to the project instructions until the last minute.

Originally, I was mortified to find that this class was going to be student driven and that it would involve a massive, semester-long, coding project, in a group. My experience with group work has been horrific in the past. I also wasn't eager to try to figure out which group members understood coding concepts and which ones didn't. And originally, I found the lack of clarity in the Requirements of the project

frustrating, but after having gone through this process, I now understand completely why these things were done. Working in a group of completely random strangers forced me out of my comfort zone and taught me about group dynamics first hand as well as how I personally react in a group situation. I learned that I can trust others to do their work, and that sometimes talking an idea out with another is the best way to find out where the weak-points are. The lack of interference or interaction from our Client, aka, our Professor allowed everyone in the group to find their own spot within the group. The more motivated individuals taking charge. It also allowed us to design and implement without questioning if how we were doing these things were correct or precisely held to another's standards. Instead, all was held to our own standards. Our work reflects those standards, and honestly, the sense of pride that comes along with having designed, implemented, and successfully created such a complex program, without the direct assistance or intervention of a Professional, is something that I'll carry with me far beyond this classroom. Each member committed to accomplish their tasks. The only downfall of our team composition was lack of communication at times. Each team member had other duties to attend to outside of school, but notifying the rest of the on those updates would've been helpful since other tasks depended on other team members.

Using scrum to drive our class was challenging due to the fact that we had to produce work and then see if the client liked it, instead of having the work being graded all at the end. Also, it is challenging having to work with others and split the work up, instead of working by myself. Although the students drove the process, the learning process in my opinion, the learning took too long and not enough time for the group to know what was going on and to work with group dynamics before sprint planning started. I like the idea of employing scrum in a classroom environment, but being in a group and lacking communication up until the first sprint because of lack of knowledge made the program a bit harder to do. We could've done some things different to improve our efficiency, but I don't think much was needed. Although all the group was very easy to talk with and discuss ideas, I think we did not have a very clear picture of what we needed,

As a whole Scrum was not a bad experience for me because I was able to learn so much from it. There were a lot of issues along the way and I should have done things a bit different with my role as Scrum Master. I took a title that I was not fit to take. During our actual meetings things appeared fine and like everything was in order but our group ended up leaving all the work to 2 people. I was told from the start by one of my members that they were not proficient at coding so I should try to find other tasks for them to complete. The other members also worked part time jobs so none of us really had any free time to meet up. If I were to participate in Scrum again or even be assigned the role of Scrum Master again I feel that things would progress very differently and I would be able to rise to the occasion instead of allowing all of the work to fall on others.

CONCLUSION

Software companies frequently emphasize that job applicants with computer science degrees have difficulties in writing efficient software code, and generally lack skills in the area of communications and teamwork. Currently, for students who plan to pursue a career in software development, knowledge of agile methodology and practices is extremely important. As one of the most widely adopted agile approaches, Scrum is definitely a difficult framework to work with for the very first time and requires some adjustment to fit in an academic setting. Each student played at least one of the following basic Scrum roles: Product Owner, Scrum Master, or Developer. The Product Owner was responsible for obtaining requirements from the instructor (client) and organizing a list of priorities. The Scrum Master was responsible for making sure everyone was working on something, progress on the project was being made, and impediments were minimized. Collectively, the entire team made decisions about the final product, the sprint workload, and the job allocation.

This research indicated that Scrum helped software engineering students take ownership and be accountable for delivering a working software based on the expected project outcomes. The results also indicated that employing Scrum does empower students to exercise autonomy on how to accomplish the assigned tasks. Overall, the result suggests that employing agile practices in a college environment, using a hands-on approach could help students gain industry level experience.

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PERCEPTIONS OF EMERGING MARKETS AS AN INTERNATIONAL CAREER DEVELOPMENT OPTION

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ABSTRACT

The fight for global talent has forced nations and corporations to compete for knowledge workers as they strive to boost competitiveness. One new pattern of labor movement that needs further investigation is the growing self-initiated movement of skilled workers from advanced industrialized economies to emerging market countries and regions for career development or career expansion purposes. A major goal of the paper was to present a set of factors that helped to identify the individuals likely to consider this type of self-initiated career development move. One important finding was that compared to those with technical, science and liberal arts backgrounds, business majors had the most positive view of the career attractiveness of emerging markets. This paper is not only an extension of the research on employee mobility and the fight for global talent; it also examines the increasing importance of emerging markets as potential locations for international career development.

INTRODUCTION

As the forces of globalization and liberalization have intensified over the last thirty years, international competitiveness has become a major concern for individuals, corporations and governments. With the lowering of trade and financial barriers, international business activities have expanded worldwide boosting the demand for competent individuals who can work in a range of international environments. Due to the importance of human resource management strategies, international career development has been at the center of many of these developments. In many ways, we can learn a lot about the evolution of business competitiveness if we understand how careers have changed to adapt to the major shifts in the international environment (Fish and Wood, 1997; Guichard and Lenz, 2005).

Over the years, we have seen how the drive for competitiveness has shifted from the nation to the corporation and then to the individual. From the old mercantilist theories to more recent discussions on the competitive advantage of nations, there has been an emphasis placed on national policies and factor conditions that help to give advantages to particular nations (Ketels, 2006; Pullen, 2006; Stonehouse & Snowden, 2007; Maneschi, 2008). Similarly, many business strategies have been put forth that show how corporations can gain a competitive advantage over their rivals. However, with the relatively new emphasis on knowledge workers and the fight for global talent, the recruitment, deployment and retention of skilled workers is now a central part of the discussion on competitiveness (Dickmann & Cerding, 2014; Silvanto, Ryan et al., 2015).

One new development is the rise of emerging market economies and the dynamic employment environments that are being created. Another development is the new emphasis on skilled labor mobility and the associated personal career management strategies. Consequently, in addition to the traditional labor patterns supported by traditional multi-national corporations (MNCs), human resource management strategy must now account for the increasing two-way movement of skilled labor between emerging and developed economies as well as the movement of labor across developing economies (McNulty & De Cieri, 2011; Lee & Sehoole, 2015; McNulty & De Cieri, 2016).

Researchers have investigated some of these new movements in international skilled labor. However, there is one pattern that needs to be investigated further and that is the self-initiated movement of skilled workers from advanced industrialized economies to emerging market countries and regions for career development or career expansion purposes. There is increasing evidence that skilled workers are considering expanded careers in emerging market countries and regions. From the perspective of these individuals, much of the new interest in emerging market economies is based on a range of perceptions about career potential and the economic dynamics in these areas (Cameron & Harrison, 2013; Alkire, 2014; Dickmann & Cerding, 2014; Silvanto & Ryan, 2014).

The career attractiveness of emerging market regions is a subjective factor that is hard to predict. Nevertheless, identifying the type of skilled individuals who might be interesting in expanding their careers in emerging markets should be of great interests to a range of nations as well as human resource consultants and corporations. The goal of this paper is to show that it is possible to present a set of objective factors that will help to identify which individuals are most likely to seriously consider a self-initiated move to an emerging market environment for career expansion purposes. With the new emphasis on skilled labor mobility and competitiveness, this type of insight can be invaluable. Our approach will expand on the use of demographic factors to predict career perceptions and behaviors. We do this by including educational background as a key objective component for influencing the perception of the career attractiveness of emerging market regions (Tharenou, 2002; Kohonen, 2005; Docquier & Lodigiani, 2010; Harvey, 2012; Lynda, Mesa et al., 2014).

In addition to the literature review of career development patterns, the first part of this paper will present our analytical approach and examine the key country groupings in emerging markets that are regularly discussed in the press and in academic research. Since the 1990s the image of emerging market economies has been bolstered by the attention to country groups such as the BRICS, the MINTS & the NEXT-11. The press and academic research have touted the advantages and potential of these regional leaders as current and future growth engines in the world economy. Ultimately, the focus of this research will be on how international career development preferences might be influenced by demographics, educational background and the perception of a country and country groupings (Kohonen, 2005; Ünay, 2013; Ellul, 2014; Roemer-Mahler, 2014; Mostafa & Mahmood, 2015; Rachman, 2015).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature on international career development is pretty extensive. Because of the focus of this paper, we will be mainly concerned with the impact of international business strategy on individuals as they pursue an international career. Consequently, we will briefly cover the following five research streams in the literature review:

1. Expatriate assignments and career development
2. Leadership and managerial development
3. The globalization of education & careers
4. The international expansion of AMNCs & human resource demands
5. Labor mobility & the competition for global talent

International career development has been an important factor in human resource management and corporate competitiveness. The various research streams that are linked to the topic move in and out of the spotlight as corporate strategy and environmental demands shift. One of the earliest research streams could be entitled '*expatriate assignments and career development*'. Much of the expatriate research concerned the strategies that companies used to recruit, motivate, train and assign their workers to various operations abroad. Another aspect of this research dealt with the expatriate adjustment, success, failure or repatriation challenges. Managing these demands was seen as crucial for corporations that needed a cadre of committed and productive employees. In the literature, there were also numerous discussions about the value of international experience in developing an international career. For the most part, these discussions and programs focused on strategies to help home country nationals adjust and perform well abroad before returning to continue their careers within the organization (Hofstede, 1994; Kerr, Pringle et al., 1997; Tharenou, 2003).

A second prevalent research stream was that of '*leadership and managerial development*'. The focus here was on showing how international assignments helped leaders and managers develop by enhancing their competences, developing their global mindset and improving their grasp of international strategic issues. The underlying emphasis of many of the articles was on the global strategic benefit to the firms of having competent international leaders. In that sense, international career development was closely linked to a firm's competitive advantage. One particular area often highlighted in this stream of literature, was the range of factors that made it difficult to develop female international leaders. Explanations ranged from access, lack of support, family demands and cultural obstacles in various environments (Kerr, Pringle et al., 1997; Kohonen, 2005; Whelan & Carcary, 2011; Cerdin, Diné et al., 2014; Awate, Larsen et al., 2015).

A third research area that continues to be extensively examined is the '*globalization of education*' and its impact on career development and management. Many articles covered the institutional and country reputation factors that affected student migration to different parts of the world. Another major emphasis has been the importance of international experience for students who wish to develop various competencies and portable skills. On the negative side, many authors covered the 'brain drain' issues of various developing countries as they struggle to retain knowledge workers. Related to this issue was the dilemma faced by many successful foreign

students to ‘stay or return’ after completing their studies. A significant extension of this research examined how skilled migrants go about managing their international academic and research careers. Overall, this perspective looks at how student migration for educational purposes sets the stage for the development of international careers that benefit individuals, corporations and countries (Kondakci, 2011; Fernandez-Zubieta, Marinelli et al., 2013; Chepurensko, 2015)

The fourth stream of research concerns ‘*the international expansion of advanced multi-national corporations (AMNCs)*’ and their human resource demands. AMNCs refer to multi-national corporations from developed industrialized economies. As AMNCs expanded their operations around the world, they needed to send capable employees to various locations and recruit skilled locals to support their strategic goals. From a human resource management perspective, these firms had to persuade individuals to go different environments, and had to develop strategies to attract locals to work for them. One major motivation for the AMNCs in local environments was access to cheap labor. However, as these AMNCs expanded their R&D activities around the world, this strategy also boosted their demand for local knowledge workers (Erdener & Torbiörn, 1999; Contractor, 2013; Akpan, Salisu et al., 2014; Silvanto & Ryan, 2014).

The final research stream that is related to our focus on international career development is ‘*labor mobility and the competition for global talent*’. Although the topic has been relevant for a long time, research in this area has exploded in recent years. As trade barriers have fallen, firms have expanded worldwide to take advantage of new business opportunities. Demand for knowledge workers has also increased as countries and corporations compete for competitive advantage. We have also witnessed significant national institutional strategies to attract talented workers. These range from special visas, educational opportunities, internship experiences, recruiting campaigns and even beneficial tax situations. Consequently, the importance of human capital has spurred the competition for global talent. There have been many studies of factors that attract skilled migrants and strategies for retaining them long term. The examination of self-initiated expats has highlighted the importance of this type of migration. As skilled workers find it easier to move and work across national environments, labor mobility remains a crucial topic in international career development and management (Mayerhofer, Hartmann et al., 2004; Bousseb & Morgan, 2008; Lewin, Massini et al., 2009; McNulty & De Cieri, 2011; Tanses, Özlem et al., 2013; Alkire, 2014; Zheng, 2016).

Of all the changes underway in the international career management landscape, one has the potential of drastically changing how skilled workers view their career trajectory. We are referring to the increasingly important role that emerging nations play in the global economy. Despite various setbacks in recent years, emerging economies are accounting for larger shares of world GDP and a steady stream of emerging multi-national corporations (EMNCs) have aggressively expanded their operations around the world (Kohonen, 2005; Goerzen, Asmussen et al., 2013; Akpan, Salisu et al., 2014). One under studied area that is the central interest of this paper is the receptivity of individuals in developed economies to initiate or expand their international careers by working in emerging economies. We believe that much of this receptivity will depend on the perception of emerging market economies and regions as positive environments for career development.

DEMOGRAPHIC & EDUCATIONAL FACTORS IMPACTING CAREER ATTRACTIVENESS

Individuals in industrialized countries working locally for emerging multi-national corporations (EMNCs) represent a much more understandable proposition than the decision to relocate to an emerging economy for career development or career expansion purposes. A general exception is the situation whereby individuals who originally came from emerging market economies decide to return home to pursue their careers. These individuals all face the ‘stay or return’ dilemma faced by emerging market students who completed their studies in industrialized countries. Although some emerging economies have been relatively successful at convincing students and small business entrepreneurs to return, it has been much harder to bring back high-level scientists, researchers and academics (Novak, Slatinsek et al. 2013; Chepurensko, 2015; Tharenou, 2015).

Putting the above-mentioned exception aside, the main focus of this paper is to study the potential for self-initiated movement of skilled individuals from industrialized to emerging economies for career development purposes. We argue that a significant precursor to such a potential movement of skilled workers is a positive perception of the career attractiveness of emerging market regions and nations. As can be seen in figure 1 below, we posit that three major factors will influence an individual’s positive perception of career attractiveness of emerging markets. They are personal demographics, educational background, and the objective economic performance of the country or group.

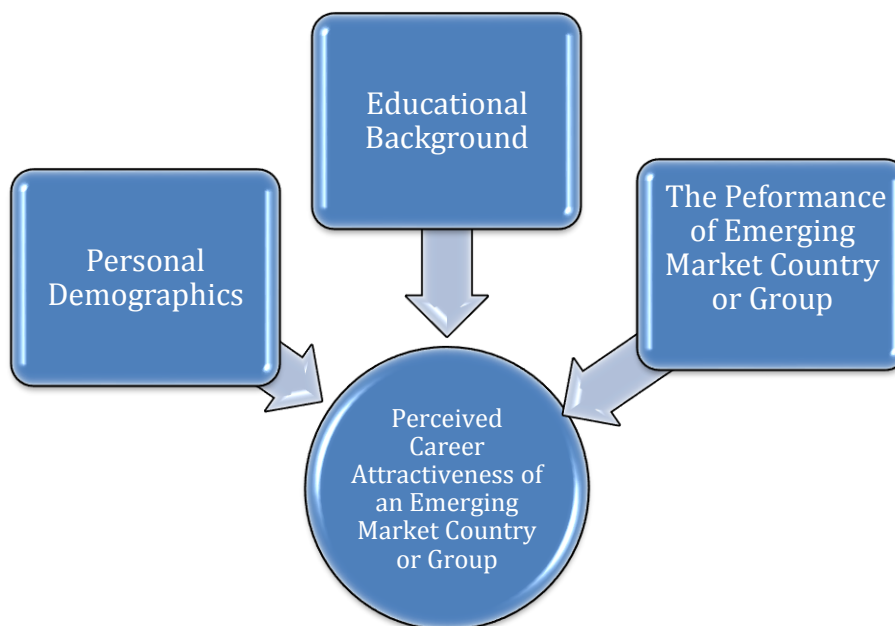


FIGURE 1: PERCEIVED CAREER ATTRACTIVENESS OF EMERGING MARKETS

Demographic factors have often been shown to be important in the international career development literature. Some researchers pointed out that many corporations were initially reluctant to send female executives abroad for expatriate assignments due to factors such as family demands, their perceived aversion to risk and the cultural obstacles in other countries. Others

countered that with proper mentorship, training and support, female executives could be just as effective in foreign environments (Haines & Saba, 1999; Crowley-Henry & Weir, 2007; Crowley-Henry, 2012; Alkire, 2014).

Another demographic factor often discussed was the difficulty of sending married executives abroad since expatriate failure was linked very often to the spouse's inability to adapt to the foreign environments. Single executives were generally favored due to their greater flexibility and lower overall costs (Selmer 2000; Mayerhofer, Hartmann et al. 2004; Wang and Bu 2004). Attitudes towards working abroad also varied significantly between students and those already working full time. This is an area where age might play a significant role. On the one hand, younger students might be willing to take on more risks in order to get their career started by going to a foreign environment. On the other hand, older individuals generally might have skills that are more desirable and have more experience working with foreign organizations. Alkire (2014) and others have looked at how some of these demographic factors might affect the perceived attractiveness of working in foreign environments (Wang & Bu, 2004; Alkire, 2014).

In our approach, educational background is also expected to have a major impact on the perceived career attractiveness of emerging markets. Much of recent HRM literature talks about how increased mobility and the competition for talent have allowed skilled migrants to find employment in different parts of the world. This paper builds on those perspectives in the evaluation the career attractiveness of emerging markets. Skilled migrants not only bring knowledge and important business networks to different economies, they often help corporations and nations become more competitive (Crowley-Henry 2012; Cerdin, Diné et al. 2014). Neupert & Baugh (2013) investigated the links connecting education, immigration and entrepreneurship in the motivation to work in certain economies. Inzelt (2008) showed how education and mobility were important factors in allowing skilled migrants to bring their knowledge and business networks to Eastern Europe (Inzelt, 2008; Neupert & Baughn, 2013).

Clearly, skills and capabilities are crucial aspects of the benefit of education. However, in many of the academic studies, education is usually presented in general terms. In this paper, we plan to consider the specific types of college education of those aspiring to an international career. If we consider individuals with educational backgrounds from fields such as business, sciences, engineering, information technology and liberal arts, we would expect to see different attitudes towards initiating or expanding their careers in international markets. We would expect that educational programs that taught portable skills and developed the global mindset of students would more positively influence individuals to be receptive to international careers. In one of the few studies in this area, Furukawa, Shirakawa et al (2013) investigated the mobility of science and engineering graduates. They found that the 'pull factors' for these graduates would have to include access to top ranked research facilities, world-class universities or significant opportunities for growth. On the other hand, business majors learn a range of applicable portable skills and might generally be more open to exploring an international career in emerging markets (Spillan, Chaubey et al., 2011; Furukawa, Shirakawa et al., 2013).

The third factor in our approach is the impact of country or group performance and image on the receptivity of individuals to working in emerging economies. A number of researchers have looked at the nation branding strategies implemented to attract international mobile professionals (Sim

2012; Silvanto, Ryan et al. 2015). Economic and image diversification have been important rebranding strategies for a nation like the UAE. Another important dimension of country image for emerging markets is group branding. For over 20 years now, researchers and the press have talked about the amazing performance and potential of the BRICS (Brazil, Russia, India, China, & South Africa). Recently, there has been similar talk of the potential of MINT economies (Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria & Turkey). This is important for career development since individuals are increasingly aware of the economic accomplishments and potential of these economic groups. Consequently, both the individual countries and associated groups are benefitting from their performance and international image. This development can clearly increase the receptivity of individuals to move to these locations for career development and expansion (Armijo 2007; Mpoyi 2012; Van Agtmael 2012; Kolachi and Shah 2013; Ellul 2014; Jackson 2014).

Research Hypothesis 1: Given the difficulty of relocating abroad, older individuals will generally have a more positive view of the career development potential of working in emerging market countries and groups.

Research Hypothesis 2: There should be no difference between men and women as it pertains to the view of the career attractiveness of emerging market countries or groups.

Research Hypothesis 3: Compared to individuals with other educational backgrounds, those with a business major formation will be generally more receptive to initiating or expanding their careers in emerging market economies.

COUNTRY INDICES, COUNTRY PERFORMANCE & COUNTRY GROUPINGS

The performance perception of countries and country groupings is often a reflection of publications, media coverage and general statistics, which are presented to the public in variety of ways. We decided to use three respected sources to aid our examination of objective country and group performance. The three publications below provide well-researched comparative data on a wide range of emerging market economies. They have also been used in many academic research papers that tackle the issue of competitiveness and business attractiveness. The three indices below represent the relatively objective component of a country's performance image. A brief discussion of the background and composition of these three comparative indices will explain some of factors impacting the general image of the emerging market countries to be examined in this paper.

The Ease of Doing Business Index: The *Ease of Doing Business Index*, which appears in the annual *Doing Business Report*, was created by the World Bank Group. Higher rankings reflect generally better business environments. (DBR 2015).

Global Competitiveness Index: The *Global Competitiveness Index* (GCI) is part of the Global Competitiveness Report (GCR), which is published annually by the World Economic Forum. The GCR has been ranking countries based on the GCI since 2004. The Index incorporates both the macro and micro aspects of business competitiveness. Overall, the GCI is a relatively accurate reflection of comparative competitiveness of a vast number of countries (GCR 2016).

The Global Talent Index: *The Global Talent Index* (GTI) is compiled by the Economist Intelligence Unit and published by Heidrick & Struggles (2015). The GTI assesses talent trends on two dimensions: one at the international level (benchmarking) and the other at the company level. Overall, the GTI reflects generally the ability of countries to attract and retain the people they need to remain competitive (EIU 2015).

Country Groupings

We have identified three country groupings among emerging market economies that are regularly discussed in the news, in business and in academic papers: the BRICS, MINTs & Stars. The frequent statements about the performance of these groupings have led to the general acceptance of their importance in emerging markets. One such grouping is the BRICS. A landmark Goldman Sachs report published in 2003 forecast that the economies of Brazil, China, India and Russia (BRICs) could grow to be collectively larger than the G-6 economies (United States, Japan, United Kingdom, Germany, France and Italy) in U.S. dollar terms before the middle of the twenty-first century (GEP99 2003). This term and country grouping subsequently became wildly successful and became a generally accepted way of talking about the leading emerging market economies. Later on, the small s in BRICs, was changed to a large S to include the performance and contribution of South Africa, expanding global representation to all the continents (GEP66 2001).

Another country grouping whose use is growing in popularity is the MINTs. The term, originally coined by Fidelity Investments, a Boston-based asset management firm, was popularized by individuals at Goldman Sachs in their 2007 report about '*Going beyond the BRICS*' to the next 11 promising emerging market economies (O'neil 2007). MINT is an acronym referring to the economies of Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria, and Turkey. Although the term MINT is used primarily in the economic and financial spheres as well as in academia, the image of these countries has benefitted from their increased exposure as well as their national strategies to attract international investments (Ellul 2014; Khan 2014; Rachman 2015).

We have included a third country grouping which we call the 'New Stars'. This grouping includes the countries of Vietnam and South Korea. Although these two countries have not been grouped together as frequently by economic or investment institutions, they have consistently attracted the attention of business leaders because of their dynamic growth, capable labor force and open market policies. These two countries also benefit from the view that they are important alternatives to China and India for a range of benefits linked to their human capital and strategic locations. In fact, Vietnam and South Korea are part of the next-11 grouping touted by some investors.

METHODOLOGY & ANALYSIS

In our examination of perceived career attractiveness of emerging market groupings, we have used two different strategies. The first strategy uses a survey instrument to explore the perceived career

attractiveness of the countries and groupings. The second strategy uses multiple regression analysis and the data gathered from the surveys to look at the impact of demographic factors and educational background on the perceived career attractiveness of the country groupings. For the first strategy, we were able to collect 450 complete surveys of individuals working and studying and in the San Francisco Bay Area. A significant part of the survey was dedicated to the creation of three scales that loosely mirrored the three major objective indices presented above. The scales were developed to capture (1) the perceived general career attractiveness of a set countries (2) the personal career attractiveness of these countries and (3) the perceived dynamic image of the countries in the groupings. By combining the three scales, we developed an overall perceived country attractiveness scale. Table 1 below shows the composition of the scales and reliability measures.

TABLE 1: SCALE FOR PERCEIVED COUNTRY FACTORS

Scales & Items	Cronbach Alphas
Responses to the extent to which participants agreed with statements about 11 prominent emerging market countries* Five-point scale: 1: Strongly disagree 2. Disagree slightly 3. Neutral 4. Agree Somewhat 5. Strong Agree [0= Don't know]	Reliability test for the variables used in the scales
<u>I. General Career Attractiveness (GCA) [4 item scale]</u> 1. Skilled workers here will support development trends in the future. 2. There is strong cultural and institutional support here for entrepreneurial activities. 3. International firms will be attracted to projects here for many years to come. 4. In the future, many people will go here to find work.	.805
<u>II. Personal Career Attractiveness (PCA) [3 item scale]</u> 1. I have a strong interest in working in these countries in the future. 2. I am very open to working for firms from these countries. 3. Developments here will have a significant impact on my future career.	.797
<u>III. Dynamic Country Image (DCI) [5 item scale]</u> 1. The quality of products from these countries is excellent 2. It is a good idea for firms to outsource to these countries. 3. These countries will have a major impact on global business activities. 4. The leaders in these countries are using policies that improve local economic conditions. 5. These countries will contribute positively to the political stability in the world.	.826
<u>IV. Overall Emerging Market Attractiveness Score*</u> Scales I+II+III Combined. Variables combined across 11 emerging market countries.	.809
* Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa, Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria, Turkey, Vietnam, & South Korea	

General career attractiveness (GCA) is a 4-item scale that gauges respondents view on the development of skilled workers, entrepreneurial institutions, participation of international firms, and desirable work location of eleven prominent emerging market countries. The Cronbach alpha measure of .805 indicates a high level of scale reliability.

, *Personal career attractiveness (PCA)* is a 3-item scale that measures the respondents' personal interest in working in and developing their career in this set of 11 emerging market economies. The Cronbach alpha of .797 indicates a high level of internal consistency for the items included in the scale.

, *Dynamic country image (DCI)* is a 5-item scale that captures the respondents' view of how well a country produces quality goods, is an attractive location for investment, has capable leaders and has the potential to positively impact economic and political stability in the world. The Cronbach alpha of .826 reflects the high reliability of this scale. The overall emerging market attractiveness score (EMA) is a combination of the three previously mentioned scales and reflects a composite score for this collection of emerging market countries. We then separated the set of emerging market countries into three groups. Table 3 below shows that we have high Cronbach alphas for the overall attractiveness scales for all the country groupings.

TABLE 2: CRONBACH ALPHA FOR COUNTRY GROUPINGS OF PERCEIVED ATTRACTIVENESS SCORES

Overall Perceived Attractiveness Score for Country Groupings	Cronbach Alphas for Combined Scales
BRICS : Brazil, Russia, India, China, South Africa	.802
MINT : Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria, Turkey	.781
New Stars : Vietnam, South Korea	.824

Table 3 below was generated from the results of the survey. *General Career Attractiveness (GCA)*, *Personal Career Attractiveness (PCA)* and *Dynamic Country Image (DCI)* were all scales that reflect the respondents' attitudes career and country attractiveness in emerging markets. The mean scores of the scales were used to compare the country groupings.

**TABLE 3: PERCEPTION SCORES, CAREER & COUNTRY ATTRACTIVENESS
(MEANS)**

Perception Scores...Emkt Countries	General Career Attractiveness (1)	Personal Career Attractiveness (2)	Dynamic Country Image (3)	Overall Country Attractiveness (1+2+3)	Relative Ranking
Brazil	11.67	8.09	13.07	32.83	4
Russia	10.56	6.99	12.25	29.80	6
India	12.48	7.50	14.33	34.31	2
China	14.20	9.30	10.07	33.57	3
South Africa	10.22	7.03	11.70	28.95	7
[BRICS_avg]*	11.83	7.78	12.28	31.89	
Mexico	11.11	7.55	13.47	32.13	5
Indonesia	7.68	6.82	11.97	26.47	10
Nigeria	8.77	6.03	9.85	24.65	11
Turkey	10.02	6.90	11.43	28.35	9
[MINTs_avg]*	9.39	6.83	11.68	27.9	
Vietnam	10.26	6.47	12.11	28.84	8
South Korea	12.22	8.12	14.52	34.86	1
[New Stars_avg]*	11.24	7.29	13.32	31.85	

*This is the mean score divided by the number of countries in the group

Multiple Regression Results

Our second strategy was to use multiple regression techniques to test some of the components of our approach. Our independent variables were derived from demographic factors, educational background and nationality (foreign vs American born). As mentioned previously, demographic and personality factors have been used by other researchers to examine attitudes towards emerging markets (Bu and McKeen 2002; Crowley-Henry and Weir 2007; Alkire 2014). However, we have extended that approach by adding educational background and breaking that aspect into the types of majors (areas of study) which respondents had when they attended university. Our view is that educational major imparts not only skills and capabilities but also a mindset about working in the international arena. The four categories used for major areas of study were business, informational technology, General Sciences, & Liberal Arts. We also included the interactions between nationality and educational background. The dependent variables were the overall attractiveness of the three country groupings: BRICS, MINTs & STARS.

The independent variables used in our multiple regression below include gender (coded 0 for female & 1 for males), age, foreign born (0 for American born & 1 for foreign born), full time worker (0=no, 1= yes), student (0=no, 1= yes), student (0=no, 1= yes), and major in college (dummy variable with liberal arts as the reference category). The other categories for education

major were business, IT, & sciences. It is important to note that none of the independent variables is based on subjective measures.

As mentioned above, we surveyed 450 individuals in the San Francisco Bay area. It should be noted that the Bay is a relatively attractive area for skilled workers. There are employment opportunities in sectors such as information technology, financial, biotech, logistics, hospitality, and healthcare. Moreover, there is a vibrant startup community and ecosystem that adds a strong entrepreneurial culture to this employment environment. There is also a very diverse workforce with students and working individuals from around the country and around the world. It is clear then that this survey was done in a relatively attractive local employment environment, with individuals who were actively involved in the development of their careers. It will be interesting to see how individuals in this environment perceive employment opportunities in emerging market economies.

TABLE 4: REGRESSION RESULTS FOR PERCEIVED ATTRACTIVENESS OF COUNTRY GROUPINGS

Independent Variables	BRICS_Group		MINT_Group		New Stars_Group	
	Model1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2
MALES	6.52 (4.3)	6.54 (4.2)	5.98 (3.6)	6.08 (3.5)	5.26* (2.2)	5.21* (2.1)
AGE	.625* (.26)	.565* (.26)	.112 (.22)	.073 (.22)	.327* (.13)	.303* (.13)
Foreign Born	6.58 (4.3)	16.48* (7.5)	3.84 (3.6)	13.13* (6.2)	4.05 (2.1)	8.58* (3.7)
Full Time Employee	3.46 (5.6)	3.79 (5.6)	.243 (4.7)	.580 (4.7)	-.339 (2.8)	-.050 (2.8)
Student	13.41* (6.5)	13.68* (6.5)	4.48 (5.4)	4.60 (5.4)	4.64 (3.2)	4.79 (3.2)
Business_Major	14.88** (4.9)	25.4*** (6.7)	12.06** (4.1)	20.84*** (5.6)	3.82 (2.4)	8.62* (3.3)
IT_ComputerSci Major	-6.75 (10.9)	-17.49 (16.5)	-8.62 (9.2)	-13.94 (13.8)	-.137 (5.5)	-2.66 (8.2)
Science Major	-7.62 (7.1)	-7.81 (8.8)	-5.93 (5.9)	-4.36 (7.4)	-3.61 (3.51)	-4.19 (4.4)
Foreign Born X Business		-21.28* (9.6)		-18.06* (8.0)		-9.67* (4.8)
Foreign Born X IT_CompSci		14.93 (22.2)		5.77 (18.6)		2.72 (11.1)
Foreign Born X Science		.973 (14.5)		-3.89 (12.2)		1.78 (7.3)
Constant	125.7	123.3	95.47	92.83	45.68	44.47
R-Square	.073	.089	.057	.070	.055	.067
N	450	450	450	450	450	450

Coefficients = B (SE).

*p < .05 ** p < .01 *** p < .001

BRICS: Brazil, Russia, China, India, South Africa. **MINT:** Mexico, Indonesia, Nigeria, Turkey.

New Stars: South Korea and Vietnam

Table 4 above gives us some idea of how the respondents perceived the attractiveness of the country groupings. The main focus in the regression analysis was on examining how the respondent demographic & educational characteristics impacted their perception of group attractiveness. In the examination of the attractiveness of the BRICS, we see there were no significant differences between men or women. On the other hand, AGE was significant for both model 1 (main effects) and model 2 (main & interaction effects) of the regression. The older the respondent, the more likely they were to have a positive view of career opportunities in the BRICS grouping of emerging market countries.

There were no significant main effects for full time workers or foreign-born individuals. However, students had significantly positive views of career opportunities in the BRICS. We included a dummy variable that reflected the educational background of the respondents. The liberal studies major was the reference category. Interestingly, science and information technology majors were not significant but business majors showed strong significance. This shows that those with the strongest interest in the career development potential in the BRICS were business majors. When we included the interaction effects of foreign born with major (model 2) for the BRICS, even more interesting results occurred. Foreign born business majors were not only highly significant but had a very negative view of career potential in the BRICS. At the same time, American born individuals and foreigners without a business major background registered the highest level of significance. This tells us that American respondents and American born business majors have a positive view of the BRICS. By including the interaction model 2 for the BRICS, the R-square improved from 0.73 to 0.89.

For the MINT group, the only significant main effect was business major. When we included the interaction model 2, we saw the pattern where foreign-born business majors had a negative view of career potential in the MINT group while American born individuals and American born business majors were significantly positive in the perceived attractiveness of this group. Including the interaction of foreigners and majors in model 2 boosted the R-square from .057 to .070.

For the New Stars group, the only significant characteristics indicated that mainly males and older respondents viewed this country grouping to be attractive for career development. In model one (main effects), educational background was not a significant factor. However, when we add the interaction of educational background and nation, we have a repetition of the results for other country groups. The interaction of foreign born and business major is negative and significant. That indicates that foreigners who were business majors did not have a positive view of career development potential of the new Stars country grouping. In model 2 we also see that once we control for foreigners with the various majors (interaction terms), we now have a significant result of American business majors viewing the new Star grouping as attractive for career development. Two variables that were not significant in the main effects became significant once we controlled for foreign-born individuals with business, IT and Science backgrounds.

One conclusion we can draw here is that economic performance alone can draw attention to a county or group and even help develop the dynamic image but the size and employment potential are probably more important to individuals considering relocating for career development purposes. An interesting development is how the relatively new MINTs grouping consistently scored in the third position for both the market researched findings and the perception survey.

Although the MINT countries are relatively large with respectable economic growth, they do suffer from institutional and social issues, which could be affecting their attractiveness.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Our examination of the impact of demographic and educational factors on the perceived career attractiveness of emerging market groups yielded some interesting results. We found that overall, there were no significant differences between men and women in the perception of the career attractiveness of emerging markets; except for the 'new Stars' group. However, overall, the gender effect is minimal and this provides partial support for hypothesis #2. The result for age is a clearer. For both main and interaction models for the BRICS and new Stars groupings, we see that older respondents have a more positive view of the career attractiveness of emerging markets. In general, this is good support for the first hypothesis. Although, there was no significant difference between part or full-time workers for all three groups, we did see that for the BRICS groupings students had a positive view of career attractiveness.

Another factor in our investigation, '*educational background*', was interesting with some surprising results in our multiple regression. For almost all the main and interaction effects, business majors in general had a positive view of the career attractiveness of emerging markets. As for the other majors, we did not find any significant effects for IT, computer science or general science majors. This is surprising given the high demand worldwide for individuals with good technical backgrounds. Part of the explanation could be the nature of the business education programs. There has been for a long time a major emphasis on the global nature of business and the importance of adapting to the challenges of the international environment. There has also been an emphasis on developing a global mindset, which is more accepting of environments like emerging markets. A third possibility is that a business formation might provide more flexible and portable skills, which require less infrastructure compared to the other majors. In general, this is strong support for hypothesis #3.

The interaction models in the regression analyses also revealed interesting results. One would expect foreign-born individuals to have a more positive view of career development opportunities in emerging markets. We included the variable (foreign born) in our regression and found no significant main effects for any of our country groupings. However, when we included the interaction of university major and foreign-born variable, we got a better understanding of the underlying dynamics. Respondents who were foreign born with a business background showed a significant negative response to the attractiveness of career expansion in emerging markets. In the interaction models, we also controlled for foreign born IT and general science majors. At this point, we see that foreign-born liberal arts majors (reference category) and American business majors register significant positive perceptions of career attractiveness in emerging markets. There are a number of forces at work that could explain this surprising result. Clearly, the San Francisco Bay Area is an attractive employment environment and foreign respondents might not easily want to leave to find work in emerging markets. For those with general science backgrounds, it might also be hard to find the same level of research infrastructure elsewhere.

This paper is an expansion of the research on international career development. The paper acknowledges the importance of emerging markets and their potential impact on employment creation for both domestic and foreign nationals. There are only a few studies that have looked at factors that impact the receptivity of individuals in industrialized economies to consider the development or expansion of their careers into emerging markets. Instead of focusing on just individual countries, we decided to highlight the importance of country groupings as a branding mechanism that could influence the perception of potential workers elsewhere. The emerging markets phenomenon has been bolstered by the constant referral to country groupings such as the BRICS & MINTs. Both the individual country and group performances have projected a mutually reinforcing image of a new wave of countries that were changing the international economic and political landscape. International investors have long made strategic investment decisions based on these country groupings. This paper sought to ascertain whether or not individuals would also consider strategic career decisions based on these groupings.

The scale behind the overall measure of perceived career attractiveness of emerging markets was a combination of three perceived factors: general career attractiveness, personal career attractiveness and dynamic country image. We believe that this multi-dimensional approach more accurately reflects the general brand image of the countries and groupings. The scales developed all had very high Cronbach alphas, which point to them as internally consistent and reliable measures of the concepts.

The three-factor approach (figure 1) is an attempt to present a systematic approach to examining factors that influence the perceived attractiveness of careers in emerging markets. Although there is some support for all of the demographic and educational factors, more extensive studies will be necessary to ascertain their generalizability. In many ways, these results are conservative and promising. A survey of individuals in employment areas, which are not as attractive as the San Francisco Bay Area, might even enhance the respondents' receptivity to career development opportunities abroad. The results with foreign respondents might even change if they were located in an area that is not as attractive as this one.

The main drawback of this study is that it based on a convenience sample. Although there were a high number of respondents, a future study should expand the geographic areas and composition of the respondents. A future study might also focus on including a 'global mindset' measure for the respondents. This would incorporate a valuable subjective dimension to the analysis. Nevertheless, as individuals become adept at managing their careers across national boundaries and as emerging market economies experience skilled labor shortages, we will increasingly see individuals in advanced industrialized economies seek out opportunities in new emerging market employment arenas. This paper recognizes this new reality and provides an approach for identifying individuals who might be driving this growing trend.

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