# Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability

Refereed Edition



#### Editors:

Jens Mueller, New Zealand (Managing)
Rosel Fonacier, Philippines
Dennis Lee Poh Wah, Singapore
Manlio del Giudice, Italy

© 2021, The Editors

Print: ISSN 1177-4541

On-Line: ISSN 1176-8592

www.asiaentrepreneurshipjournal.com



Volume XVII, Issue 1, January 2021

The diversity of spillover networks and its impact on overseas investment firms' innovation: An empirical study on Taiwanese enterprises in Mainland China

Muqiang Zheng, Xunxun Wang, Huanlian Yang, Dennis Lee

Devbhumi – Collective Initiative for Sustainable Livelihood!

Asish Kumar Panda

A review of literature in entrepreneurial intention research: Global perspectives and Vietnamese perspectives

Social entrepreneurial education and development of social entrepreneurial intent

Vivek Ahuja

Cuong Nguyen

Towards an Integrative Framework of Intrapreneurship by Focusing on Individual Level Competencies

Ekta Sinha

The state of compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conduct for effective public service in Tanzania: The case of Bukombe District

Paul Mtasigazya



#### Table of Content

#### Volume XVII, Issue 1, January 2021

The diversity of spillover networks and its impact on overseas investment firms' innovation: An Empirical Study on Taiwanese enterprises in Mainland China Muqiang Zheng, Xunxun Wang, Huanlian Yang,		
Dennis Lee	Page	3
Devbhumi – Collective Initiative for Sustainable Livelihood!		
Asish Kumar Panda	Page	35
A review of literature in entrepreneurial intention research: Global perspectives and Vietnamese perspectives		
Cuong Nguyen	Page	48
Social entrepreneurial education and development of social entrepreneurial intent		
Vivek Ahuja	Page	85
Towards an Integrative Framework of Intrapreneurship by Focusing on Individual Level Competencies		
Ekta Sinha	Page	106
The state of compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conduct for effective public service in Tanzania: The case of Bukombe District		
Paul Mtasigazya	Page	164



## The diversity of spillover networks and its impact on overseas investment firms' innovation: An Empirical Study on Taiwanese enterprises in Mainland China

Muqiang Zheng, Xunxun Wang, Huanlian Yang (Corresponding Author) Shantou University, 243 Daxue Road, Shantou, Guangdong, China 19hlyang@stu.edu.cn

Dennis Lee Singapore University of Social Sciences, 463 Clementi Rd Singapore 599494

#### **ABSTRACT**

This research aims to study the spillover networks of overseas investment companies and their impact on innovation performance based on a survey approach on 122 Taiwanese enterprises in Fujian and Guangdong provinces and structural Equation Modeling (SEM) theory, the relationship among the reverse spillover networks, absorptive capability (AC) and innovation performance by focusing the mediating effect of AC on the relationship between the diversity of spillover networks and innovation performance are investigated according to the research



findings, suggestions will be given to the overseas investment companies on their innovation performance.

The research was conducted by means of literature review, logical analysis, questionnaire survey and statistics analysis. literature, local and abroad, were reviewed to note previous studies on spillover networks of overseas investment companies and innovation performance. A questionnaire was designed and distributed to 122 Taiwanese enterprises in Fujian and Guangdong provinces. The empirical research was carried out based on the statistics of collected questionnaires.

The research showed that Taiwanese enterprises with abundant international spillover networks and Taiwanese Businessmen Spillover Network (TBSN) resource will have higher AC and innovation performance. AC partially mediated the international spillover networks impact of innovation performance. In addition, AC plays as a mediator in relationship between TBSN and innovation performance.

We suggested that Taiwanese enterprises should take the service platform seriously and learn the significance of social capital. On the other hand, Taiwanese enterprises should act actively in their business associations and keep connections,



and also pay attention to acquire knowledge by using international spillover networks and Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks.

#### INTRODUCTION

An empirical study on the reverse spillover networks and absorptive capability (AC) plays an important role in learning Taiwanese enterprise's innovation performance. There is a widely shared view that absorbing new knowledge is the effective way to promote innovation performance in the FDI-embedded cluster. The coastal areas in Guangdong and Fujian Province are the main places where Taiwanese enterprises made investments. In recent years, significant changes occurred in Taiwanese enterprises' business model, company structure and business scale, especially in those invested in mainland China. The fierce market competition led to a substantial decline in profits; and an increase in external costs made Taiwanese enterprises gradually lose their competitiveness. If Taiwanese enterprises continue to follow the previous production models, they will most likely be replaced by other multinational enterprises or local companies.

Therefore, there is urgency for the Taiwanese enterprises to improve their competitiveness by means of R&D enhancement and thereby achieve their industrial transformation and upgrade. In recent years, the Taiwanese enterprises attained their competitiveness by constantly learning and creating organizational knowledge. Chen et al. (2013) suggested that with positive externalities of R&D, a



firm reaps from other firms' R&D investment and has improvement in performance. The local middle-sized enterprises (SMEs) in Taiwan are famous at home and abroad for "enterprises cluster", forming a unique business model for growth and development. This model also exists in Taiwanese enterprises that have invested in mainland China, which is regarded as an effective model for promoting knowledge spillover, information sharing and optimizing the efficiency of absorbing technology information. Lin et al. (2016) commented that domestic firms mainly benefitted from their neighboring FDI companies through knowledge spillovers with wider geographic scopes. Chen et al. (2013) further explained how the costs of other firms declined as a result of R&D spillover. Most R&D investments (e.g., new technologies and innovations) are intangible and are not difficult for others to conduct reverse engineering or plagiarism. They also claimed that the hiring of key employees from other firms is a major source of incoming spillovers (Turulja and Bajgoric, 2019).

According to social capital theory (Putnam, 1993), such a unique business development model not only boost the acquisition of knowledge and increase opportunities for organizational learning but also enhance R&D capability, thereby improving their competitive advantages.

In the FDI-embedded cluster, numerous members offer different information. However, Taiwanese enterprises in mainland China benefit from local spillover



networks? Does the source have a great positive effect on corporate innovation? How is information identified, absorbed, and being applied by Taiwanese enterprises? There is vast literature study on FDI spillovers. On the one hand, the presence of FDI may be beneficial to domestic firms through channels like labour turnover, demonstration of new technology, competition effect, reverse engineering, and 'learning by watching' (MacDougall, 1960; Kokko, 1994; Blalock and Gertler, 2008; Ferraris et al., 2017). On the other hand, FDI spillovers from MNCs to domestic firms can also have negative effect. The 'market stealing effect' (Aitken and Harrison, 1999) is a dominant example. Another possible negative impact exists when foreign firms poach local talents from domestic firms, which greatly harms the productivity of domestic firms (Blalock & Gertler, 2008; Wolfram et al., 2018). Moreover, from the perspective of FDI motivation, Kogut and Chang (1997) earlier found that Japan's OFDI in America mostly focused on the technology-intensive industry, and Japanese multinational enterprises' OFDI in America was motivated by the acquisition of technology. Based on this theory, Branstetter (2000) tested the hypothesis by measuring international knowledge spillovers at the firm-level. His study showed that FDI increases the flow of knowledge spillovers both from and to the investing Japanese firms. Potterie and Lichtenberg (1997) extended the samples to 13 industrialized countries, suggesting that international trade and OFDI are important channels for international technology spillover. Many studies focused on emerging economies obtaining reverse technology spillovers through the FDI, including China (Mo, 2014),



Vietnam (Phung Minh Thu et al., 2018), Mexico (Kunhardt, 2013) and India (Smitha et al., 2015). In this regard, the practice proved that capital flow processes the technology spillover of both host and home countries. In addition, the possibility of engendering adverse spillover business investment in the country will depend on its absorbency of new knowledge.

These research have three defects: First, with regards to the studies of FDI reverse technology spillover, a majority of empirical research started from the national macro-level to analyze the impact on investment in total factor productivity (TFP) of the home country. However, most of the studies were based on the enterpriselevel or case study. Moreover, few studies use the foreign-invested enterprises as samples. Second, as to the classification of reverse spillover networks many studies only mentioned the presence of reverse spillover instead of the research methods. Third, the consideration and the measure of absorptive capability (AC) are neglected. Most studies ignore AC when they discuss reverse spillover networks in developing economies. Though some of them consider AC, their measures on AC are partial, such as adopting human capital stock or R&D investment as indicator. In view of those three issues, we divided the different information resources into three groups: international spillover networks, local spillover networks and Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks. With the samplings of Taiwanese enterprises in Fujian and Guangdong province, this study adopts multi-dimensional items to examine AC quantitatively.



#### **HYPOTHESES**

#### A. International spillover networks and corporate innovation

A company must be able to gain new information and knowledge from external networks when the company invests abroad directly. However, information and knowledge from different channels of "spillover" diversely affects the innovation of foreign invested companies (FICs). Among those channels, the international networks formed by different FICs in the host country are likely to spread new knowledge and information. Based on macro-level data analysis, Mohnen (1996) found that international spillover networks positively relate to innovation performance. Hsu and Chuang (2014) suggested that innovation performance is affected by R&D efforts, export performance, and the presences of multinational corporations. Globalization pushes outward FICs to exchange information continually with other FICs in different industries, which greatly inspires corporate innovation. For the international spillover networks, many studies asserted that horizontal spillover networks effectively promote innovation performance via competition, demonstration, and labour mobility (Blomstrom and Sjoholm, 1999; Li and Liu, 2001; Lew and Liu, 2016). In addition, Smarzynska (2004), from the perspective of vertical linkage of spillover, found that local firms benefitted from the operations of foreign affiliates both in their own region and in other parts of the country. However, to examine whether spillover effects are helpful in promoting corporate innovation, some scholars constructed theoretical models (Gerschewski,



2013; Scutaru, 2015; Charan and Murty, 2018), while some conducted empirical analysis (Anwar and Sun, 2015). These studies found that international spillover positively affects local firms' innovation capability and performance.

From the above considerations, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H1: International spillover networks positively affect absorptive capability.

H2: International spillover networks positively affect innovation performance.

#### B. Local spillover networks and corporate innovation

From the foreign-invested spillover networks, local firms were able to gain the new information via FDI communities and local corporation communities, which positively impact on local firms' innovation performance (Gao et al., 2008). In other words, FICs also benefitted from the spillover networks deriving from local firms. With the data of 52 firms in bicycle industry of Taiwan, Samson (2005) explored the relationship between innovation performance, networks functions in technology and marketing availability by producer-supplier relationship, supplier-buyer relationship, and inter-firms relationship. He concludes that "those producers with more collaboration with other firms within their industry perform better than otherwise comparable firms with fewer cooperative activities". Similarly, with a sample frame of 233 manufacturing UK-based companies, Saeed et al. (2014) affirmed that stable supplier involvement may enhance AC and innovation performance. Ahlin et al. (2014) tested a large sample of small and medium-sized



firms in a post-transitional and developed economy; and shed light on "mechanisms through which smaller firms benefit from networks". They verified a positive influence at networks on local smaller firms' innovation performance. Gebreeyesus et al. (2013), observing the innovation on a cluster of shoemaking firms in Ethiopia, analyzing the business networks—major channel of knowledge flows, "document a positive and strong effect of local networks position and absorptive capacity on innovation performance". Furthermore, collecting 59 firms of China's automobile industry, Sherzod and Zhao (2014) adopted three network centrality measures—the popularity and influence, the speed of information flow, and network position. These three network centralities positively relate to innovation performance. Also, Taiwanese enterprises gained information from local industrial cluster networks, including the information sharing of producer-supplier, supplier-buyer, and inter-firms. All these information promotes corporate innovation capability and performance.

From the above considerations, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H3: Local spillover networks positively affect absorptive capability.

H4: Local spillover networks positively affect innovation performance.

#### C. Taiwanese Businessmen spillover networks and innovation



FDI companies can easily form cooperative networks within the host country due to same language (English), similar emotion and culture, etc. Neng and Song (2007) conducted their questionnaire on FICs in Yangtze River Delta region. They found that labour turnover, information sharing and diverse forms of intra-industry cooperation among FICs are beneficial for enhancing companies' competitive advantage. Industrial cluster is a crucial mode of Taiwanese enterprises' existence and development. Zhang (2002) suggested that the close and reciprocal relationships of Taiwanese enterprises themselves, and of Taiwanese enterprises and associations, positively promote competitive advantages. Similarly, Liu (2010), with the data of Taiwan-invested IT companies in Dongguan (a city of Guangdong), studied the technical innovation of FDI-imbedded cluster, which found that the changes in external market environment and information sharing in intra-industry significantly promote the technical innovation. Furthermore, outward FICs often established associations or chambers of commerce in the host country. These associations aim to provide suitable conditions for technical innovation, to integrate the intra-industrial resources of technology and innovation, to facilitate the new information sharing by building a service platform for industrial clusters' technology development, and to offer infrastructures and service for innovation (Yang and You, 2012). Thus, the support to industrial clusters from related organizations or local government are much targeted and professional, which greatly promote AC and innovation performance (Silva et al., 2014; Paula and Silva, 2017).



From the above considerations, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H5: Taiwan-invested spillover networks positively affect absorptive capability.

H6: Taiwan-invested spillover networks positively affect innovation performance.

#### D. AC and corporate innovation

Though external information is public, local firms acquiring the information do not necessarily absorb them. Whether or not the potential information can be transformed into promoting corporate innovation is decided by the company's adaptability, applicability and manufacturability. Gorg and Greenaway (2004) found no significant reverse technology spillover occurs in OFDI of developing economy, because the level of AC of local firms cannot meet the "threshold value". Also, Li and Liu (2012) further appraised the "threshold", which turned out that the "threshold" greatly affects AC in OFDI reverse technology spillovers. Tang and Zhang's study (2016) suggested that manufactured exports performance is assessed with three indicators, export capacity, export intensity and export quality. Furthermore, the role of absorptive capacity is measured by interaction between FDI and four AC determinants. Kathuria's (2001) study, analyzing 368 Indian manufacturing firms, proved that positive spillovers exist in the presence of FICs, but only domestic firms with significant R&D capabilities can benefit from it. Bai



(2011), putting duplicity of R&D into the analytical framework, found that "reverse technology spillovers are mainly constricted by the technical resources". However, the full usage of domestic R&D resources significantly enhances innovation efficiency. "Employing provincial level data of China over the period of 2003 and 2008, Chen (2011) examined the existence of reverse spillover effects of OFDI by conventional multinationals. He further suggested that "such effects are not uniform but rather depend on the absorptive capacity of the individual home regions".

Many empirical studies have proved that new knowledge sharing from external networks does not affect innovation performance directly, but AC intervening between knowledge sharing and innovation performance (Liao et al., 2007; Liu and Chen, 2009; Charterina et al., 2018; Medase and Barasa, 2019) do. In addition, from the perspectives of structural and relational embeddedness, Tsai (2006) demonstrated that AC acts as a mediator in the positive relation between structural embeddedness and innovation performance by distributing electronic questionnaires to 1067 e-stores in Taiwan. Shu et al. (2005) proved that "knowledge gains mediate the positive impacts of absorptive capacity and external linkages on new product innovativeness" by studying 116 Taiwanese Information Technology firms.

From the above considerations, the following hypothesis are proposed:



H7: Absorptive capability positively affects innovation performance.

#### **METHODS**

#### A. Conceptual model

According to the hypothesis proposed above, the conceptual model about the mechanism acting the effect of reverse spillover networks and AC on local firms' innovation performance is shown in figure 1.

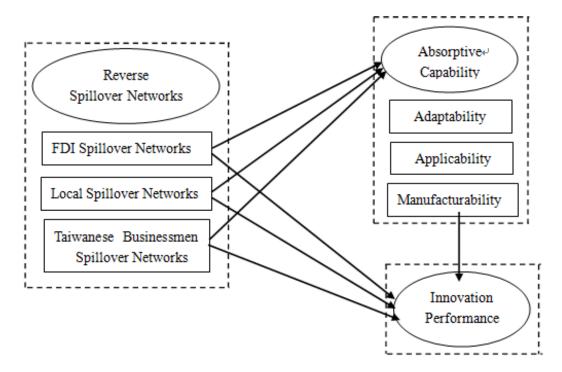


Figure 1 Conceptual model for research framework

In Figure 1, Taiwanese enterprises gain the new information and knowledge via various networks. Based on the mechanism of FDI spillover networks and the different channels of information gaining, we propose the mechanism of reverse



Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks. Firstly, Taiwanese enterprises receive the new information by means of horizontal spillover (demonstration, competition, and labour mobility) and vertical spillover (forward linkage and backward linkage). Secondly, in the local industry cluster, local spillover networks (producer-supplier, supplier-buyer, and inter-firms) can bring new information. Thirdly, Taiwanese enterprises and associations share new information with each other. Since most Taiwanese enterprises gathered in the Fujian and Guangdong provinces. However, whether or not the external information can be transformed into innovation achievements is decided by enterprises' absorptive capability (adaptability, applicability, and manufacturability).

#### B. Questionnaire measures

A questionnaire is designed for conducting the following empirical analysis. Thirty-three items are included in the questionnaire. These items were extracted or borrowed from previous studies, and they are translated into Chinese and rearranged in line with the analytic framework of this study. To ensure compatibility and consistency of the survey questionnaire, reverse translation and further modifications are also made and respondents rated their perceptions of the items using seven-point Likert scales, ranking from 1 (which stands for "strongly disagree") to 7(which stands for "strongly agree"). Using the initial draft of the questionnaire, a small-scale pilot test is conducted on ten firms, and wording is refined to improve the clarity of the questionnaire.



Adopting the concepts proposed in previous studies (Thompson, 2002; Lee and Lee, 2001; Zheng et al., 2015; Jansen & Bosch, 2005), a questionnaire is divided into five parts. The first part includes eleven items and measures FDI spillover effects. This study specified horizontal spillover effects as a second-order construct, measured by the three first-order constructs of demonstration effect, competition effect and labour mobility effect. Demonstration effect refers to the one where domestic firms learn from their observation on foreign investor's actions.

Competition effect refers to the one where foreign investors may stimulate domestic firms to modernize in order to keep pace. Labour mobility effect refers to the one where qualified employees transfer new knowledge when they go to work in the domestic firms or open their own business. Similarly, vertical spillover effects are specified as a second-order construct, measured by the two first-order constructs of forward linkage and backward linkage effect, referring to the cooperation denoted as a direct link between foreign investors and domestic firms. Meanwhile, the second part comprises of six items and measures local spillover networks. This study specified local spillover networks as a second-order construct, measured by the six first-order constructs of intensity and scale with the local suppliers, clients and competitors. Similarly, the third part comprises of four items and measures Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks, measured by the



constructs of intensity and scale with the local Taiwanese businessmen and local Taiwanese associations.

Then, the fourth part contains seven items and measures AC. It is specified as a first-order construct, referring to the extent to which a firm can acquire, transfer, update, renew and apply spillover knowledge. Finally, the fifth part contains six items and measures innovation performance. The research therefore takes an indirect and subjective approach, which could be a reasonable substitute for the objective measure of innovation performance. Specifically, innovation performance was defined as a subjective measure on improvement in overall innovation performance over the past 3 years.

#### C. Sample and data collection

One hundred and fifty questionnaires are distributed to Taiwanese enterprises in six cities in Fujian (Xiamen, Zhangzhou) and Guangdong (Guangzhou, Heyuan, Jiangmen, Shantou) Province, two of the first windows opening to the world in China. Typical respondents are middle and senior managers or leaders who have a better understanding and experience in trade, cooperation and technology management. Of the distributed questionnaires, 127 questionnaires were regained altogether. Furthermore, 127 responses are eliminated according to the following criteria: (a) missing values and (b) respondents work or run business in current firms less than 1 year. The remaining 122 responses are qualified. Considering the



validity of the questionnaire, it should be accepted if the respondent rate reaches 20%, while the personnel who filled the questionnaires were high level managers of the enterprise. Based on the criteria, our respondent rate is acceptable. In addition, to account for the effects of extraneous variables, we took into account firm size, firm age, industry type and geographical location as control variables. The chief industries of the samples are electronics & information, packaging & printing, textile & garment, food, etc.

#### RESEARCH RESULTS

#### A. Reliability and validity

Since developed from the previous literatures, items have content validity. Convergent validity, which measures construct identity, can be judged by looking at the item factor loadings. Each factor loading for the multi-item variables of FDI spillover networks, local spillover networks, Taiwanese business networks, AC and innovation performance is significantly related to its underlying factor. All standardized item factor loading is well above the cutoff of 0.50, which shows that the measures demonstrate adequate convergent validity. In addition, all of Cronbach's  $\alpha$  exceed 0.75, indicating that the measuring items of the related variables in the study are internal consistent and highly reliable. So, the measures we construct in the research are verified to be adequate.

#### B. Correlation analysis



Table 1 shows the mean values, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables of innovation performance, FDI spillover networks, local spillover networks, Taiwanese business networks, and AC. As the table indicates, the positive and statistically significant correlations among these variables are found. This suggests that both reverse spillover effects and AC can help the Taiwanese enterprises locating in Fujian and Guangdong to promote innovation performance and vice versa.

#### Table 1 Descriptive statistics and correlations among constructs

Table 1 shows the mean values, standard deviations, and correlations for the variables of innovation performance, FDI spillover networks, local spillover networks, Taiwanese business networks, and AC using the data collected from Taiwanese companies in Fujian Province and Guangdong province, as mentioned above. The columns are respectively the variables, their mean values, their standard deviation and the correlation between two of the variables.

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5
1.Innovation perfo	rmance 4.12	1.28	1				
2. FDI spillover ne	etworks 5.31	1.34	0.417**	* 1			
3. Local s	spillover3.90	2.21	0.272**	* 0.51	4** 1		
4. Taiwanese s	spillover2.85	1.49	0.363**	* 0.33	0**0.283*	<b>**</b> 1	
5. AC					9** 0 385 <sup>*</sup>		5** 1

**Note:** \* P<0.10, \*\* P<0.05, \*\*\* P<0.01



#### C. SEM and path analysis

After reliability test, the researchers construct measurement models of the latent variables for CFA to examine the validity of the measurement. All the results meet the goodness-of-fit criteria, and they indicate that the measurement models can be used for further full model analysis. Based on the conceptual model, the researchers sketch up an initial SEM full model using LISREL and try to develop a satisfying model about effect mechanism of reverse spillover networks have on Taiwanese enterprises' AC and innovation performance in Fujian and Guangdong province. Six indices are selected to judge models' goodness of fit, including 2/df, RMSEA, CFI, GFI, IFI and NNFI (Browne & Cudeck, 1992). After several adjustments and modifications, the researchers get an adequate model and the results are presented in Table 2 and summarized below, with the implications being discussed in the following section. As to the estimated structural equation model, the values of 2/df, RMSEA, CFI, GFI, IFI and NNFI are, respectively, 2.213, 0.053, 0.93, 0.95, 0.92 and 0.95, which are within the acceptable ranges and indicate a reasonable fit of the model with the data (Browne & Cudeck, 1992). In short, all fit indices are within the acceptable limit, in other words, the structural model provides good fit with the data.

Path analysis is adopted to explicate the mediating effect of AC on the relationship between reverse spillover networks and innovation performance. The result is



presented in Table 2. FDI spillover networks positively affect AC and innovation performance. The factor loading of FDI spillover networks and AC is 0.51 (p < 0.01), while the factor loading of FDI spillover networks and innovation performance is 0.28 (p < 0.05). Additionally, the factor loading of AC and innovation performance is 0.45 (p < 0.01), which confirms that AC as a partial, rather than full mediator (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

Significant associations are also found in the paths by which Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks are linked to innovation performance (r=0.18, p<0.05), and Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks are linked to AC (r=0.26, p<0.01), and AC is linked to innovation performance (r=0.52, p<0.01). It indicates that AC mediates the relationship between Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks and innovation performance. Local spillover networks also positively affect AC, but the factors loading are lower, respectively 0.13(p<0.10). Whereas the coefficient of local spillover networks and innovation performance are positive but not significant, showing that there is no direct effect of local spillover networks on innovation performance. Overall, in terms of the participating enterprises' AC, local spillover networks are not figured out as a factor with positive association. Obviously, it is reasonable to test the effect of different networks on innovation performance separately.



According to the empirical result, only H4 is not supportive, all the other six hypotheses should be accepted. Obviously, AC has a mediating effect on the relationship between two spillover networks (FDI spillover networks and Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks) and innovation performance.

#### Table 2 Results of structure equation model for research framework

Using the data from Table 1, the results of path analysis are shown in Table 2. Each path is analyzed with respective data to examine the strength of positive relation between former and latter items. We first examine the relations respectively between the three spillover networks and AC and innovation performance. And compared to these to the relation between AC and innovation performance to examine the mediating effect.

	Sta	a T		Test
Path	ndardize	dvalue	Н	results
FDI spillover networks →AC	0.51***	4.29	H1	Support
FDI spillovers networks → Innovation	n0.28**	2.21	H2	Support
Local spillover networks $\rightarrow$ AC	0.13*	1.72	H3	Support
Local spillovers networks → Innovation	n0.03	0.83	H4	Not Supportive
Taiwanese spillover networks →AC	0.26***	2.74	H5	Support
Taiwanese spillover networks → Innovation	n0.18**	2.40	H6	Support
AC → Innovation performance	0.45***	3.76	H7	Support

**Note:** \* P<0.10, \*\* P<0.05, \*\*\* P<0.01



As shown in Table 2, most hypotheses are supported except H4. To test the mediating effect of the AC, we distinguish the overall effect with direct effect and indirect effect. The result is presented in Table 3. Obviously, the sorted by effect of the reverse spillover networks on the Taiwanese enterprises' innovation performance is FDI spillover networks, local spillover networks and Taiwanese spillover networks.

Table 3 Path analysis of latent variables

Using the same data from table 1, table 3 shows both direct and in direct effect FDI, Local and Taiwanese spillover networks have on AC and Innovation performance.

			Dependent variables
Independent	Effect	AC	Innovation performance
macpenaent	Effect		
	Direct effect		0.28**

Page 24



FDI spillover	Indirect effect <sub>0.51</sub> ***	0.51*0.45=0.2295
	Overall effect	0.5095
Local spillover	Direct effect	0.03
	Indirect effect0.13	0.13*0.45=0.0585
networks	Overall effect	0.0885
Taiwanese	Direct effect	0.18**
spillover networks	Indirect effect <sub>0.26</sub> ***	0.26*0.45=0.1170
	Overall effect	0.2970
AC	Overall effect	0.45

**Note:** \* P<0.10, \*\* P<0.05, \*\*\* P<0.01

#### CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

#### A. Conclusion

This paper aims to study the relationship among the reverse spillover networks, AC and innovation performance by focusing the mediating effect of AC. Based on literature review and related theories we analyzed the data of Taiwanese enterprises in Fujian and Guangdong Provinces by structural equation models. We conclude that AC contributes to the positive relation of reverse spillover networks and innovation performance of Taiwanese enterprises. Specifically, this paper reaches the following conclusions: Firstly, international spillover networks and Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks positively affect the innovation performance of Taiwanese enterprises. Taiwanese enterprises should take advantage of their geographical convenience – the earliest areas opening to the world and neighboring FICs, and apply their finance, technology, and manpower to cooperate with FICs, thereby to build horizontal and vertical cooperation networks. Taiwanese



enterprises are more competitive on the imitation, new information integration, high technology, and talents management, which continually bring new information and knowledge and thus promote technology innovation. In addition, with the same foreign investment environment and similar cultural background, habits, language and management concepts, enterprises in the same area are most likely to achieve information sharing between internal networks and external networks. Therefore, Taiwanese enterprises may maintain closer cooperative relationships with each other. Fortunately, Taiwanese entrepreneurs show more desires to seek cooperation, and therefore form a business network in Fujian and Guangdong provinces to build an important platform for innovation activities. Secondly, absorptive capability (AC) positively affects innovation performance of Taiwanese enterprises. When facing with the same information from international spillover networks depriving from FIC like European and American enterprises, Taiwanese enterprises are more capable to transform them into innovation achievements because of their higher adaptability, applicability, and manufacturability. Thirdly, AC makes a mediating effect on the relationship between international spillover networks and the innovation performance of Taiwanese enterprises. Finally, AC plays a mediating role between Taiwan-invested spillover networks and the innovation performance.

In conclusion, different reverse spillover networks differently affect the innovation performance. AC is one of the important factors in Taiwanese enterprises knowledge absorption, application and production.



#### B. Theoretical and practical significance

This study provides reference to the empirical and theoretical research on external learning, reverse technology spillover and innovation performance. From the theoretical aspect, for the studies of FDI reverse technology spillover, the majority of empirical studies start from the national macro-level to analyze the impact on investment in TFP of the home country. However, most of the studies which aim to study firms roughly base on the enterprise-level or cases study. Although taking FICs as samples to study which channels improve their innovation performance is the simplest method, studies applying this method are seldom found. Therefore, this study extends studies on enterprise networks, external learning and innovation activities.

Practically, Taiwanese enterprises should take the service platform seriously which facilitates communication and cooperation with other eternal members, and thus realize the long-term cooperative relationship with other FICs and Taiwanese associations, to acquire the new information and knowledge of eternal business networks. Also, managers of these enterprises should highly value the R&D required by corporate innovation. Meanwhile, they should learn the significance of social capitals and thus continually create and accumulate eternal network capitals to improve the innovation performance of enterprises, for example, making effort



to become suppliers of FICs and building stable relationship with FICs on regular talents exchange.

Secondly, Taiwanese enterprises should act actively in their business associations and keep connections, that will help to obtain new information or policies of production and development. Taiwanese enterprises should also pay attention to the mediating effect of AC, which requires them to acquire knowledge by using international spillover networks and Taiwanese businessmen spillover networks. For instance, they should organize the communication of technology or management experience regularly between headquarters and subsidiaries, across departments or within the department. And senior administrators should make informal communication with technicians and managers periodically; and assign technicians and managers to communicate with cooperative units and research institutions so that Taiwanese enterprises are able to acquire new information efficiently, thereby integrating information into new knowledge and improving innovation performance.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

This paper is supported by "Humanities and social sciences fund of the Ministry of Education (19YJC630230)", "Guangdong Provincial Social Science Fund Project (GD16XYJ34)", and "Guangdong Provincial Natural Science Foundation



(2018A0303070008)". The researchers wish to thank the anonymous reviewers for their helpful comments on earlier drafts of this manuscript.

#### REFERENCES

Ahlin, B., Drnovšek, M., & Hisrich, R. D. (2014). Exploring the moderating effects of absorptive capacity on the relationship between social networks and innovation. Journal for East European Management Studies, 213-235.

Aitken, B. J., & Harrison, A. E. (1999). Do domestic firms benefit from direct foreign investment? Evidence from Venezuela. American economic review, 89(3), 605-618.

Aktamov, S., & Zhao, Y. (2014). Impact of network centrality positions on innovation performance of the firm: evidence from china automobile industry. Business Management and Strategy, 5(1), 164.

Anwar, S., & Sun, S. (2015). Foreign direct investment in R&D and domestic entrepreneurship in China's manufacturing industries. Applied Economics, 47(16), 1633-1651.

Blalock, G., & Gertler, P. J. (2008). Welfare gains from foreign direct investment through technology transfer to local suppliers. Journal of international Economics, 74(2), 402-421.

Blomström, M., & Sjöholm, F. (1999). Technology transfer and spillovers: Does local participation with multinationals matter? European economic review, 43(4-6), 915-923.

Branstetter, L. (2006). Is foreign direct investment a channel of knowledge spillovers? Evidence from Japan's FDI in the United States. Journal of International economics, 68(2), 325-344.

Browne, M. W., & Cudeck, R. (1992). Alternative ways of assessing model fit. Sociological methods & research, 21(2), 230-258.

Burt, R. S. (1984). Network items and the general social survey. Social networks, 6(4), 293-339.





Chang, S. S. (2002). The influence of the networking ties on the competitiveness of a firm: an empirical study of the firm in the Hsin-Chu Scientific Park. unpublished thesis, Chaoyang University, Taiwan (in Chinese).

Charan, P., & Murty, L. S. (2018). Institutional pressure and the implementation of corporate environment practices: examining the mediating role of absorptive capacity. Journal of Knowledge Management, 22(7), 1591-1613.

Charterina, J., Landeta, J., & Basterretxea, I. (2018). Mediation effects of trust and contracts on knowledge-sharing and product innovation: Evidence from the European machine tool industry. European Journal of Innovation Management, 21(2), 274-293.

Chen, S. S., Chen, Y. S., Liang, W. L., & Wang, Y. (2013). R&D spillover effects and firm performance following R&D increases. Journal of Financial and Quantitative Analysis, 48(5), 1607-1634.

Da Silva, L. F., de Hoyos Guevara, A. J., Fernandes, K. R., & Rodrigues, A. M. E. (2014). The power of absorptive capacity and the network for the competitive advantage. International Business Research, 7(9), 1.

Ferraris, A., Santoro, G., & Bresciani, S. (2017). Open innovation in multinational companies' subsidiaries: the role of internal and external knowledge. European Journal of International Management, 11(4), 452-468.

Gao, S., Xu, K., & Yang, J. (2008). Managerial ties, absorptive capacity, and innovation. Asia Pacific Journal of Management, 25(3), 395-412.

Gebreeyesus, M., & Mohnen, P. (2013). Innovation performance and embeddedness in networks: evidence from the Ethiopian footwear cluster. World Development, 41, 302-316.

Gerschewski, S. (2013). Do local firms benefit from foreign direct investment? An analysis of spillover effects in developing countries. Asian Social Science, 9(4), 67-76.

Görg, H., & Greenaway, D. (2004). Much ado about nothing? Do domestic firms really benefit from foreign direct investment? The World Bank Research Observer, 19(2), 171-197.

Haijian, L. I. U., & Chuanming, C. H. E. N. (2009). Corporate organizational capital, strategic proactiveness and firm performance: An empirical research on Chinese firms. Frontiers of Business Research in China, 3(1), 1-26.





- Hsu, J., & Chuang, Y. P. (2014). International technology spillovers and innovation: Evidence from Taiwanese high-tech firms. The Journal of International Trade & Economic Development, 23(3), 387-401.
- Jansen, J. J., Van Den Bosch, F. A., & Volberda, H. W. (2005). Managing potential and realized absorptive capacity: How do organizational antecedents matter? Academy of management journal, 48(6), 999-1015.
- Jie, B. (2011). The impact of absorptive capability on the reverse technology spillover effect [J]. Science Research Management, 12.
- Kathuria, V. (2001). Foreign firms, technology transfer and knowledge spillovers to Indian manufacturing firms: a stochastic frontier analysis. Applied Economics, 33(5), 625-642.
- Kogut, B., & Chang, S. J. (1991). Technological capabilities and Japanese foreign direct investment in the United States. The Review of Economics and Statistics, 401-413.
- Kokko, A. (1994). Technology, market characteristics, and spillovers. Journal of development economics, 43(2), 279-293.
- Kunhardt, J. B. (2013). Mexican OFDI in China-ownership advantages to gain new markets: two case studies. China-USA Business Review, 12(3).
- Lee, C., Lee, K., & Pennings, J. M. (2001). Internal capabilities, external networks, and performance: a study on technology-based ventures. Strategic management journal, 22(6-7), 615-640.
- Lew, Y. K., & Liu, Y. (2016). The contribution of inward FDI to Chinese regional innovation: the moderating effect of absorptive capacity on knowledge spillover. European Journal of International Management, 10(3), 284-313.
- Li M. and Liu S.C. (2012). The geographical effects and threshold of FDI reverse technology spillover –based on threshold regression analysis of China provincial-level data. World Management. 1, 21-32
- Li, X., Liu, X., & Parker, D. (2001). Foreign direct investment and productivity spillovers in the Chinese manufacturing sector. Economic systems, 25(4), 305-321. Liao, S. H., Fei, W. C., & Chen, C. C. (2007). Knowledge sharing, absorptive capacity, and innovation capability: an empirical study of Taiwan's knowledge-intensive industries. Journal of information science, 33(3), 340-359.





Lin, M., & Kwan, Y. K. (2016). FDI technology spillovers, geography, and spatial diffusion. International Review of Economics & Finance, 43, 257-274.

Liu H.J. (2010). Technical innovation of foreign enterprises in FDI agglomerate region: A perspective linking the internal and external factors. International Economics and Trade Research. 12, 41-46.

MacDougall, G. D. A. (1960). THE BENEFITS AND COSTS OF PRIVATE INVESTMENT FROM ABROAD: A THEORETICAL APPROACH 1. Bulletin of the Oxford University Institute of Economics & Statistics, 22(3), 189-211.

Medase, K., & Barasa, L. (2019). Absorptive capacity, marketing capabilities, and innovation commercialization in Nigeria. European Journal of Innovation Management.

Mohnen, P. (1996). R&D externalities and productivity growth. STI review, 17, 39-59.

Nair, S. R., Demirbag, M., & Mellahi, K. (2015). Reverse knowledge transfer from overseas acquisitions: A survey of Indian MNEs. Management International Review, 55(2), 277-301.

Najafi Tavani, S., Sharifi, H., & S. Ismail, H. (2013). A study of contingency relationships between supplier involvement, absorptive capacity and agile product innovation. International Journal of Operations & Production Management, 34(1), 65-92.

Neng X.Y. and Song X.J. (2007). Spillover effects of FDI. World Economy. 12, 13-21.

Paula, F. D. O., & Silva, J. F. D. (2017). Innovation performance of Italian manufacturing firms: The effect of internal and external knowledge sources. European Journal of Innovation Management, 20(3), 428-445. Phung Minh Thu, T., Knoben, J., Vermeulen, P., & Tran, D. T. (2018). Made in Vietnam: Internal, collaborative, and regional knowledge sources and product innovation in Vietnamese firms. European Journal of Innovation Management, 21(4), 581-600.

Potterie, B. V. P. D. L., & Lichtenberg, F. (2001). Does foreign direct investment transfer technology across borders? Review of Economics and Statistics, 83(3), 490-497.





Putnam, R. D., Leonardi, R., & Nanetti, R. Y. (1994). Making democracy work: Civic traditions in modern Italy. Princeton university press.

Scutaru, L. (2015). Stimulating economic growth through foreign direct investment. Academic Research International, 6(2), 147.

Shu, S. T., Wong, V., & Lee, N. (2005). The effects of external linkages on new product innovativeness: an examination of moderating and mediating influences. Journal of Strategic Marketing, 13(3), 199-218.

Smarzynska Javorcik, B. (2004). Does foreign direct investment increase the productivity of domestic firms? In search of spillovers through backward linkages. American economic review, 94(3), 605-627.

Tang, Y., & Zhang, K. H. (2016). Absorptive capacity and benefits from FDI: Evidence from Chinese manufactured exports. International Review of Economics & Finance, 42, 423-429.

Thompson, E. R. (2002). Clustering of foreign direct investment and enhanced technology transfer: evidence from Hong Kong garment firms in China. World Development, 30(5), 873-889.

Tsai, Y. C. (2006). Effect of social capital and absorptive capability on innovation in internet marketing. International Journal of Management, 23(1), 157.

Turulja, L., & Bajgoric, N. (2019). Innovation, firms' performance and environmental turbulence: is there a moderator or mediator? European Journal of innovation management, 22(1), 213-232.

Wolfram, P., Agarwal, N., & Brem, A. (2018). Reverse technology transfer from the East to the West: Evidence from R&D sites of Western multinationals in China. European Journal of Innovation Management, 21(3), 443-455.

Yan, C. H. E. N. (2011). An Empirical Study on China's ODI Reverse Technology Spillover: An Absorptive Capacity Perspective [J]. China Soft Science, 10.

Yan, Y., & Renyong, C. (2013). R&D investment, technology acquisition pattern, and enterprise innovation performance--based on a demonstration of high-tech enterprises in Zhejiang Province. Science Research Management, 34(5), 48-55.

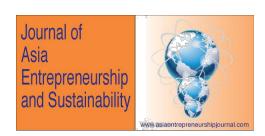
Yang, Y., & You, D. M. (2012). Analysis on composition and operating mechanism of industry association in the process of innovation of industrial clusters. Economic Geography, 5, 018.



Yue-Ming, S. W. (2005). Inter-organizational network and firm performance: The case of the bicycle industry in Taiwan. Asian Business & Management, 4(1), 67-91.

Zheng, M.Q., Yang, C.L, Jiang, W.H. (2015). Reverse spillover networks, R&D, and Taiwan invested companies' innovation performance. Collected Essays on Finance and Economics. 190(1), 92-98.

Ziying, M. (2014). Inward Foreign Direct Investment, Entrepreneurial Behavior, and Outward Foreign Direct Investment: Evidence from China. International Journal of Business and Management, 9(9), 108.



### **Devbhumi – Collective Initiative for Sustainable Livelihood!**

Asish Kumar Panda
Department of Management Studies, Nalsar University of Law
Justice City, Shameerpet, Hyderabad 500101, Telangana, India
asish@nalsar.ac.in\_pandaasish@gmail.com

#### Abstract

The paper goes through the history of formation of a collective enterprise in remote hilly Himalayan area of Garhwal in Uttarakhand, India, to generate livelihood for indigenous people living in almost inaccessible locations. It was conceptualized and initiated by an NGO through formation of a producer organisation. They started working with few locally available produce and slowly kept adding offerings for the market. More and more members were included and the monitoring and control mechanism was established by the NGO. The position of chief executive in the organisation is arranged by the mentoring NGO and they also have their own employee working within the producer organisation. The handholding still continues, which sometimes displays some level of conflict of interest. There is narration of such issues here which puts a dilemma in terms of



creation of sustainable livelihood, which in fact should have been the priority for the mentoring organisation.

This organisation was initiated by Appropriate Technology India (ATI, an NGO working in Himalayan region) in 2007. In fact ATI had been engaged in marketing and promotion of valley produce since 1994.

Devbhumi is an Indian-registered company owned by its producers, primarily rural women from remote villages in the high Himalayas of the Garhwal region of Uttarakhand in India. Organic and Natural products are procured from over 4000 village households. The company board is composed of farmers. The recruited management and staff are professionals with expertise in various aspects of business. There is also an international advisory board of experienced professionals.

Devbhumi is directly involved with its shareholders in organic natural production, hygienic post-harvest handling, and modern processing, packaging, labelling and marketing. The company's product line includes certified organic honey, certified organic spices (including turmeric, ginger, red chillies, coriander and large cardamom), forest silk garments (including oak tasar, mulberry, and eri silks along with silk blends with wool and cotton), certified organic rajma (kidney beans) and



a variety of natural fast dyes using local plant material. The product lines are given below.

Devbhumi Silk Products – Forest Silk and natural Dyes: Natural dyes are obtained from renewable resources and contribute not only to economic security but also to the conservation of Himalayas. The cocoons are completely hand woven spun into yarn and natural dyed by village communities. Creating a most natural fabric of the highest quality. Available in many unique designs and colours designed by prominent designers of India and Europe. Products are stoles, shawls, mufflers and fabric made of Himalayan Oak Tasar Silk, Himalayan Mulberry Silk, Himalayan Eri Silk. Many items are created by blending silk with wool and cotton. Devbhumi has pioneered the use of Eupatorium a base for creating a variety of colour fast natural dyes. Eupatorium is an invasive weed for which no useful purpose has been found and is currently spreading across the forest and fields. It is used in the production of natural dyes and is the first economic use to be found and also has become part of larger conservation efforts to control its spread and harmful regeneration. Other natural ingredients such as indigo, marigold, local wild berries, and plants are mixed with the processed eupatorium base to create a variety of colourful and colour fast dyes. These dyes are used in the creation of silk yarns. All dyes are for sale to other interested parties who want to procure high quality natural dyes for fibre and carpet colours. The dyes are available in a variety of colours and in the dried form.



- Devbhumi Certified Organic honey: DevBhumi Certified organic honey is one of the premium products of DevBhumi which is produced in the high Himalayan range. The honey is produced by the traditional bee "Apis Cerana" the native bee species of Uttarakhand and has been reared by the local people from ancient times. Uttarakhand Himalayas is famous for their richness in floral bio-diversity including a variety of medicinal and aromatic plants in addition to cultivated agriculture crops. This honey is certified as organic by Uttarakhand Organic Certification Agency (USOCA). In addition to the certified organic honey, other Devbhumi Honey range includes single flora litchi honey and multi-flora pure honey which are produced in lower areas. DevBhumi has been marketing honey for last 15 years (even before Devbhumi was created, this was being marketed by ATI) and it has established brand name for premium quality honey across India. Devbhumi honey is the very first certified organic honey in India.
- Devbhumi Certified Organic Spices: DevBhumi organic spices available are Ginger, Garlic, Turmeric, Chili, Coriander, Large cardamom etc. All are from high Himalayan districts and all are certified organic. Certified organic spices are available as whole, fresh, dried and in powder form. These spices are vibrant in colors, flavors and aroma. Devbhumi can offer any of the spices in steam sterilized form. Devbhumi keeps stocks of most of the spices throughout the year. Cleaned graded and packed for retail or bulk sales in



standard or vacuum packing. Some of these spices are available in dehydrated from

• Milk collected from local farmers and supplying through their own outlets

Their producer/shareholder families include beekeepers, Milk producers,
spice and pulses cultivators, silk-worm rearers, silk yarn spinners, and
weavers. Producers are from farm households located throughout the Garhwal
high Himalayan districts in a pristine, pollution and chemical-free
environment

#### **MEMBERSHIP**

The membership is spread across 5 districts of Garhwal region of Uttarakhand in 38 valleys covering 609 villages. There is no restriction in getting more membership and rather the organisation has been planning to spread into more number of districts and grow as big as they can.

The membership is taken through SHG mode where the company encourages formation of SHGs to carry out different activities in villages. Every SHG has a membership between 10 to 20 persons and each SHG member becomes a member/shareholder in Devbhumi. They have currently over 12316 members from about 1015 self-help groups.



#### AREA OF OPERATION

The area of operation spread across 5 Garhwal districts (Rudraprayag, Chamoli, Tehri, Uttarkashi and Pauri) of Uttarakhand State in 38 valleys spanning across 609 villages. The location is tentatively shown in Annexure-B

The regional office and main collection center is located in Guptkashi (Rudraprayag) which acts as a direct link to all the producers. ATI has promoted another organization Usha Math Microfinance (UMM) which provides financial assistance to producers as and when required and they in turn get assisted by NABARD.

The head office and processing facilities are located at Dehradun in the same premises as that of ATI. They have marketing and administrative offices at Dehradun. In addition, they have a marketing office at New Delhi.

#### **ORGANISATION STRUCTURE**

The regional office and main collection centre is headed by a CEO who is appointed through ATI. There are employees who look after each vertical, such as Honey, Silk, Apparel, Spices, Milk etc.

There are valley co-ordinators for each valley who manage the activities of Community Resource Persons (CRP). CRPs take care of all procurements and



payments to members while creating awareness to bring in more members to the fold.

The valley co-ordinators and CRPs work for both Devbhumi and Usha Math Microfinance. They also work for all the verticals of Devbhumi available in their jurisdiction. Even most of the employees at the office also work for both the organisations. All the employees are taken from outside the membership.

A typical working model connecting ATI, UMM and DNPPCL is shown at Annexure- A

#### FULFILLING NEEDS OF LOCAL COMMUNITY

The Community Resources Persons and Valley coordinators are all local persons who try to understand the requirement of people in their area. They take care of their short term finance requirement through UMM and also are responsible for loan repayment. They also coordinate with the regional office in providing other inputs to the producers while taking care of collection of produce.

However, the financing is commercial in nature with higher interest rate charged on short term finance. Much higher penalty is imposed on loan defaulters.

The relationship with producer is mostly commercial, limited to supplying inputs, finance as and when required and collection of produce. Community requirement in terms of better lifestyle, ease of living, assistance in other matters are generally



not carried out. Though many producers are women members, but there is no restriction on men to be members.

#### **USE OF TECHNLOGY**

The farming of spices are organic in all places. Both honey and spices are certified organic.

For making tasar and silk yarns semi-automatic machines are used. For weaving, knitting and making apparels, machines are used. In their Dehradun processing plant, state of the art modern machines and equipment are used for filtration, vacuum packaging etc.

All these machines are managed by ATI personnel and they are directly involved in marketing of items.

Even though there is use of computing systems in regional office and Dehradun office, they are limited to accounting activities and some procurement data entry at some divisions. The MIS is not robust enough to create higher level of transparency.

#### **COMPETITION**

Devbhumi products are available in around 150 high end stores across India. Some major buyers include Fab India, Himjholi, Oberai Chain of five stars hotels.

Devbhumi I also exporting honey and silk products to Europe and United states.



As we can see, they are directly competing with other high end producers. Their marketing office at New Delhi is taking care of competition. In fact it is ATI which is taking active role in marketing of Devbhumi products.

For export market, they are directly in competition with other organic spice and honey exporters. Here they have expanded the market landscape to reach farther segments through ATI.

#### RELATIONSHIP WITH COMMUNITY

Based on the interactions with the people from at least 50 villages spread across 5 districts, I could feel the lack of ownership sense in members. Almost all of them do not even know that they are shareholders of the company.

In many places they complained about the company giving them less price. This was further evident when I was invited to one of their Board Meeting in presence of a NABARD official where even the directors (who are members and many of them are women) expressed their displeasure of getting lower price for honey etc. They have no idea that they are owners of the organisation. It might be because the company has not started making profit on books and hence no profit are being shared with the members. But some of the employees of the company (on the conditions of anonymity) stated that the pricing and marketing are controlled by ATI and hence they don't have much margin to play with while deciding procurement price. They also said that staffing is managed by ATI where the



employees have to work for multiple organisations where sometimes conflicts of interest crop in. As ATI is taking care of pricing and marketing and they have processing plants at their Dehradun facility, the margin Devbhumi gets is minimal.

The intent to grow big has brought in many more geographical regions to their fold which actually made people compete with other regions and this has given ATI handle to bargain while collecting produce. People from one region are not connected within others and hence the unity of entire company on the whole is primarily missing.

In addition, being spread far and wide, the company has attracted political interest and now the chairman is permanently from political background, where many members complain that the resources including people are used for campaigning and other related activities during elections.

However, even if the relationship within regions were not found very strong, but within SHGs and villages, the bonding is found to be very strong. People are helping in nature and try to go out of their normal way to fulfil needs of a fellow villager in case of trouble. Many times people travel several kilometres in hilly area to carry people to hospitals.

#### TOP MANAGEMENT TEAM

The Board consists of members but headed by a political leader. The board sits formally as scheduled but most of the decisions are carried out as per ATI

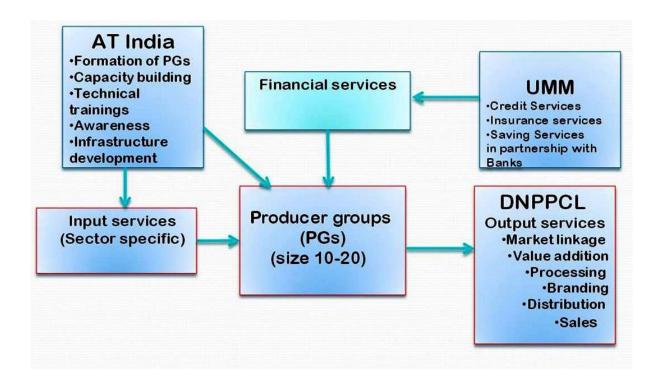


directives. The Chief Executive Officer for the company is appointed by ATI who is located at the Guptkashi regional office while marketing and finance are taken care of from Dehradun office. Marketing is led by one of the directors of ATI.

When I talked to the CEO, he was very positive and described many plans to help the community. But he was of the opinion that, unless he gets a free hand and freedom on procurement price, margin, dividends etc, it will be very difficult to create sense of ownership within members and to carry out community needs fulfilment.



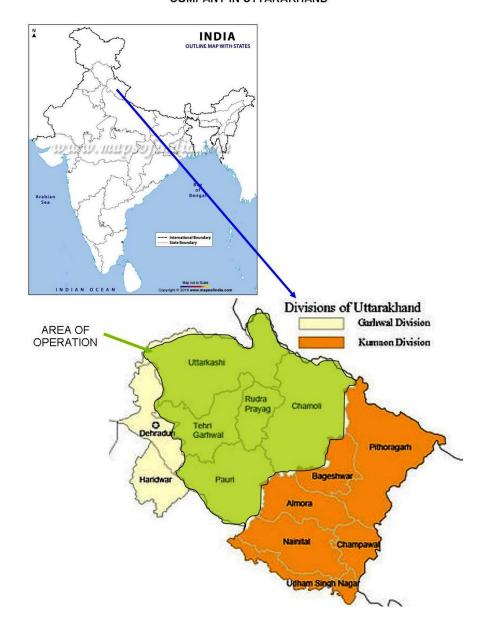
Appendix I





## APPENDIX II

# AREA OF OPERATIONS OF DEVBHUMI NATURAL PRODUCTS PRODUCERS COMPANY IN UTTARAKHAND



Page 47



# A review of literature in entrepreneurial intention Research: Global perspectives and Vietnamese perspectives

Cuong Nguyen
Faculty of Business Administration, Industrial University of Ho Chi Minh City,
Hi Chi Minh City, Vietnam
nguyenquoccuong@iuh.edu.vn

#### Abstract:

The current knowledge in entrepreneurial intention research is enormous and rapidly growing. The primary purpose of this paper is to offer a relatively holistic review of literature in entrepreneurial intention research by concentrating on two perspectives: global studies and Vietnamese studies. Researchers in the field of entrepreneurial intention can utilize this paper to predict the influences of a variety of factors on the entrepreneurial intention among undergraduates and postgraduates. With 111 references, the content focus on the literature review of the constructs of Entrepreneurship and Entrepreneurial Intention; Entrepreneurial Intention Research Models; Vietnamese Entrepreneurial Research and Conclusion. The entrepreneurial intention literature is vast, so the limitation of this paper only reviews some deliberately chosen samples of the literature in global perspectives and Vietnamese perspective.



#### 1. Introduction

Entrepreneurship and new venture formation have been recognized as a strategic driver for economic and social development across many countries and territories worldwide. Since Schumpeter's theory on entrepreneurship (Schumpeter, 1934), entrepreneurship has been conducted to assess the importance of entrepreneurship and propose strategic recommendations for government policymakers to promote healthy entrepreneurial activities worldwide. Acs and Szerb (2010) report that entrepreneurship an important mechanism for economic development through employment, innovation, and welfare. Kressel and Lento (2012) also confirm that entrepreneurship is essential to a growing economy in large part because its innovations create demand for new products and services that were not previously available. There are many fields of entrepreneurship research but entrepreneurial intention- the decision to become an entrepreneur - is increasingly pervasive among business graduates worldwide (Urban, 2012). Liñán and Fayolle (2015) report that entrepreneurial intention is a rapidly evolving field of academic research. A growing number of studies use entrepreneurial intention as a robust theoretical framework. The literature of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intention is vast, and across many approaches, so it is quite challenging for researchers to review the literature systematically. Hence, the main objective of this study is to review the existing studies in the field of entrepreneurial intention. Researchers in the field of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intention can utilize the literature to predict the influence of a variety of factors on the



entrepreneurial intention among undergraduates and postgraduates. Besides, Vietnamese researchers also can benefit from a literature review of entrepreneurship in the Vietnamese context. The structure of the literature review includes the constructs of Entrepreneurship and Entrepreneurial Intention; Entrepreneurial Intention Research Models; Vietnamese Entrepreneurial Research and Conclusion.

### 2. Entrepreneurship and Entrepreneurial Intention

Since Schumpeter's theory on entrepreneurship (Schumpeter, 1934), the construct of entrepreneurship has been scientifically enriched by many academicians worldwide. Many theoretical and empirical pieces of research were conducted on the entrepreneurship. Hence, the concept of entrepreneurship has been defined differently. Schumpeter (1947) states the defining characteristics of an entrepreneur as "the doing of new things or the doing of things that are already being done in a new way." Generally, the entrepreneur is the person who establishes his/her firm (Gartner, 1988). Van Gelderen et al. (2010) define entrepreneurship is an attitude that reflects an individual's motivation and capacity to identify an opportunity and to pursue it, in order to produce new value or economic success. Entrepreneurs play a key role in creating jobs, promoting innovation, creating economic wealth, and thus increasing the general health and welfare of the economy (Morrison et al. ,2003; Poutziouris, 2003). Therefore,



entrepreneurs are crucial for national and regional economic development (Sadler-Smith et al., 2003). Henley (2007) points out that entrepreneurship is an intentional activity, in that for many, those intentions are formed at least a year in advance of new venture creation suggesting a link between entrepreneurship and intention. In the case of business graduates, Rwigema (2004) defines graduate entrepreneurship as a process taken by a graduate to start a business in terms of individual career orientation.

Moreover, Henderson and Robertson (2000) posit that the future working environment will depend on the creativity and individuality of the young, especially graduates. Hence, the entrepreneurial intention is the first step to understand the whole process to start up a new venture. Bodewes et al. (Bodewes, 2010) state that entrepreneurial intentions are central to understanding the entrepreneurship process because they form the underpinnings of new organizations. The entrepreneurial intention is one's willingness in undertaking an entrepreneurial activity, or in other words, become self-employed. The opposition of self-employed is becoming a waged or salaried individual (Tkachev, 1999). Pihie defines intention as a state of mind or attitude, which influences entrepreneurial behaviour (Pihie, 2009). Choo and Wong (2006) define entrepreneurial intention as a search for information that can be used to help fulfil the goal of venture creation. Entrepreneurial intentions can generally be defined as conscious awareness and conviction by an individual that they intend to set up a new business venture and plan to do so in the future (Bird, 1988; Thompson,



2009). Entrepreneurial intention can be understood as a construct that establishes future entrepreneurial capacity. In this perspective, the entrepreneurial intention seems to be similar to the concept of latent entrepreneurship. Vesalainen and Pihkala (1999) define latent entrepreneurship as a conscious state of mind that directs attention (and therefore experience and action) toward a specific object (goal) or pathway to achieve it (mean).

## 3. Entrepreneurial Intention Research Models

## 3.1 Demographic Approach

Research methodologies used to explain entrepreneurial intention have been evolved over the years (Linan, 2005). Ashley-Cotleur (Ashley-Cotleur, 2009) state that some individual factors motivate a person's decision to become an entrepreneur. These factors are categorized as demographic variables or attitudes, values or psychological factors. From the beginning, researchers believe that entrepreneurs share a common set of personal traits, so they attempted to explain the determinants of entrepreneurial intention by a group of personality traits or demographics (McClelland, 1961). Kristiansen and Indarti (2004) studied the differences in personality traits to compare entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs. In this sense, it is assumed that those who prefer to create their own business might have different personality traits than those who choose to be employed (Kolvereid, 1997). From this approach, "need for achievement," "locus of control" and "risk-taking propensity" can be examples of most commonly studied personality traits of



entrepreneurial behaviour (Phan H.P., 2002). Personality traits are inculcated in the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and analyze the mediation of perceived behaviour control (PBC) and attitude toward entrepreneurship (Farrukh et al., 2018). These three personality traits are usually associated with entrepreneur behaviour (Begley, 1987; Hornaday, 1971). From this point of view, entrepreneurs are expected to have higher levels of "need for achievement," "internal locus of control" and "risk-taking propensity" in comparison with non-entrepreneurs. Recently, Munir (2019) uses three personality traits (risk-taking propensity, proactive personality and internal locus of control) as antecedents to Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), the results reveal a stronger influence of personality traits among Chinese students. Besides, the literature considers the big five personality traits and entrepreneurial self-efficacy (ESE) to be important individual-level factors that determine entrepreneurial intention. The outcomes of the analyses demonstrate that a high level of entrepreneurial intention can be realized through multiple configurations of the big five personality traits and ESE (Sahin, 2019). Despite being widely used, this approach faces many criticisms because it has low explanatory power, low predictive validity and moreover inconsistent with many findings from other researchers. As a result, this approach does not lead to a satisfactory result in explaining entrepreneurship (DePillis, 2007; Krueger and Carsrud, 2000). Another trait of personality which has been studied is self-efficacy. In Bandura's social learning theory (1977), self-efficacy describes an individual's belief in their ability to succeed in a given task. Many studies



confirmed that increased self-efficacy yields greater entrepreneurial intentions (Boyd, 1984; Carr, 2007; Kristiansen, 2004; Zhao, 2005). From another perspective, entrepreneurial intention can be measured on socio-demographic variables such as age, gender, education background, prior employment experience, level of education and the role models (Ohanu and Ogbuanya, 2018; Ayalew and Zeleke, 2018). Demographic factors such as age and gender have been proposed to have an impact on entrepreneurial intention (Kristiansen and Indarti, 2004). In term of age, the search shows that people mostly decide to establish their firms between the ages of 25 to 34 (Choo, 2006; Delmar, 2000). Hatak et al. (2015) confirm that age is associated with a lower likelihood of having an entrepreneurial intention. Inversely, Chaudhary (2017) does not support age is inversely related to entrepreneurial inclination. Nguyen (2018) also report that age levels show practically no impact.

Researchers also paid attention to gender differences in entrepreneurial intention. Crant (1996) found that men are more likely than women to express an intention or preference for starting their businesses. Also, it is argued that females are less likely to establish their own business than men (Phan et al., 2002). This paper confirms that socialization conditions both men and women in their choice of university studies. Nguyen (2018) also show evidence of somewhat higher entrepreneurial intention in male students than female students in Vietnam. Delgado et al. (2019) report that gender and university degree subject choice are shown to be linked, and both affect entrepreneurial intention. In contrast, some





studies showed no meaningful difference between men and women in terms of intentions to start businesses (Kourilsky and Walstad, 1998; Shay and Terjensen, 2005; Wilson et al., 2007; Smith et al., 2016a, b; Chaudhary, 2017; Fernandes et al., 2018). These results challenge past research findings which ranked female students lower on entrepreneurial dimensions compared to male students. Remarkably, Daim et al. (2016) provide insight into the entrepreneurial intention of students in terms of genders and country of residence differences. The paper explores perceived feasibility and desirability for students in 10 countries. The entrepreneurship role is gender tested against desirability and feasibility. The results indicate that gender impacts entrepreneurship intention and the way it impacts is influenced by which country the students are from (Daim et al., 2016). In a recent study of Brazilian women's entrepreneurial profile, the behavioural categories tested in the model that most influence Brazilian women's entrepreneurial profile are planning, identifying opportunities, sociability, and leadership, corroborating the results of other international studies. Behaviours connected with persistence did not correlate to Brazilian women's entrepreneurial profile. The hypothesis that women's entrepreneurial profile positively influences their entrepreneurial intention was confirmed (Krakauer et al., 2018). A comparative study of women entrepreneurship in China and Vietnam, Zhu and Zhu (2019) report that women entrepreneurs are motived to earn more income in both China and Vietnam. Vietnamese businesswomen value intrinsic rewards, such as gaining personal satisfaction and freedom. They also take business ownership as a



way to reduce work-family conflict. Demonstrating the ability and gaining public recognition play a more important role when Chinese women entrepreneurs decide to establish their businesses. Both Chinese and Vietnamese women agree that good management skills are essential to achieve their goals. Women entrepreneurs in both countries share similar challenges, such as the inability to recruit and retain employees, severe competition, a weak economy and limited access to financial capital.

Education backgrounds are found to have impacts on entrepreneurial intention. Van der Sluis and Van Praag (2004) report that the effect of general education, measured in years of schooling, on entrepreneur performance is positive (Van der Sluis, 2004). Some studies show that educational background plays a vital role in creating entrepreneurial skills (Murphy, 2005; Sharab et al., 2018; Ayalew and Zeleke, 2018). Dickson (Dickson, 2008) also found that entrepreneurship education is related to becoming an entrepreneur and entrepreneurial success. Business training is also useful for the performance of people who have applied for microfinance to start their own business (Kuratko, 2005). Ayalew and Zeleke (2018) confirm that entrepreneurial education/training and entrepreneurial attitudes significantly predict students' self-employment intention. On the level of education, many studies are finding a positive attitude of university students towards enterprise and small business (Birdthistle, 2008). However, the relationship between university education in general and entrepreneurship is not so strong and contested (Galloway, 2002; Pittaway, 2007). Nguyen (2018) report that education



levels have no impact on entrepreneurial intention. Besides, Davidsson and Honig (2003) confirm that while education can help a person discover new opportunities, it does not necessarily determine whether he or she will create a new business to exploit the opportunity. Moreover, Franke and Lüthje (Franke, 2004) found that students who assess the university environment as being insufficient or negative to encourage the entrepreneurship have significantly lower entrepreneurial intentions than those who have positive perceptions. Inversely, Quan (2012) confirms that advanced educational background has a positive impact on one's impulsive entrepreneurship intention and one's deliberate entrepreneurship intention. Ayalew and Zeleke (2018) also report that education is a significant predictor of entrepreneurial intention.

Prior experiences in the establishment of different firms will provide the entrepreneur with the opportunity of knowing the risks and problems associated with new venture formation (Barringer, 2005). Entrepreneurial experience or previous ownership is the number one of involvements and role of the entrepreneur in new venture creation (Lee, 2001). This type of experience is also expected to have a positive impact on entrepreneurial intentions (Phan et al., 2002; Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999). Also, Basu and Virick (2008) evaluated entrepreneurial intentions and their antecedents. Their findings highlight that education and prior experience does have a positive and significant impact on entrepreneurial behaviour. Ayalew and Zeleke (2018) confirm that prior business experience with family is a significant predictor of entrepreneurial intention. From the role models,





role modelling refers to learning by examples rather direct experience. In role modelling, the individual adopts the behaviour by informal and unintentional observation (Tkachev and Kolvereid, 1999). Raijman (2001) examined the role of social networks in which individuals are embedded in predicting entrepreneurial intent. The finding reported that having close relatives who are entrepreneurs increases the willingness to be self-employed. In a family, entrepreneurial parents form a role model and create management know-how for the individual entrepreneur (Papadaki, 2002). Furthermore, the children of entrepreneurs learn the factors involving in running a business and consider establishing a new organization as a natural career choice option (Cooper, 1994; Sandberg, 1987). Drennan et al. (2005) reported that those who found a favourable view of their family's business experience perceived starting a business as both desirable and feasible (Drennan, 2005). Alsos et al. (2011) also indicate that a family business has a role to play in enhancing the development of entrepreneurship among family members. Crant (1996) found that being raised in a family that is entrepreneurial significantly impacts individuals' intentions to start their businesses. Besides, Fairlie and Robb (2007) showed that entrepreneurs tended to have a self-employed mother or father in their family history. Mueller (2006) concludes parental role modelling to be the most significant familial factor on entrepreneurial intention. Through the socialization process of children, exposure to entrepreneurship experience in the family business constitutes a significant intergenerational influence on entrepreneurship intentions (Carr and Sequeira, 2007; Ayalew and



Zeleke, 2018). Remarkably, Drennan et al. (2005) report that those who found a positive view of their family's business experience perceived starting a business as both desirable and feasible (Drennan et al., 2005). Having role models is also a significant factor in wanting to start a business as pointed out by Birley and Westhead (Birley, 1994) and having self-employed parents tend to be especially relevant as mentors and guides for children starting their businesses as highlighted by Matthews and Moser (Matthews, 1995). Alsos et al. (2011) also indicate that a family business has a role to play in enhancing the development of entrepreneurship among family members. Recently, Chaudhary (2017) confirms that a self-employed family background will have a positive relationship with entrepreneurial intent. Ohanu and Ogbuanya (2018) also revealed that there is a positive relationship between parents' occupation and entrepreneurial intentions of Electronic Technology Education undergraduate students. Nguyen (2018) report that students whose parents are self-employed score higher entrepreneurial intention, but the difference is not statistically significant.

# 3.2 Environmental Influences Approach

Environmental influences are another approach to entrepreneurial intention research. Some scholars studied the impact of environmental context on entrepreneurial intention. One of the essential factors they looked at was the accessibility of capital for entrepreneurial activities. Access to capital is doubtless





one of the crucial factors in establishing a new business (Kristiansen and Indarti, 2004). Many studies have pointed out that considerable numbers of people have given up on their nascent entrepreneurial careers because of an inability to access capital (Marsden, 1992; Meier, 1994). Tran et al. (2017) suggest that contextual elements are considered as antecedents of personal attitude, and in return, it is expected to have an influence on entrepreneurial intention. Nguyen et al. (2019) investigate the significant and direct relationship between subjective norms and entrepreneurial intention in the transitional economic context of Vietnam. Another critical factor for creating a new venture is business information. In this sense, the ready availability of business information is crucial to starting a new venture and achieving sustained growth (Kristiansen and Indarti, 2004). Besides, the availability of business information, therefore, is an essential element in an entrepreneurial venture (Minniti & . 1999). In a study conducted in India, Singh and Krishna found that the desire to seek out information is a primary characteristic of entrepreneurs (Singh, 1994). Moreover, business environment and government supporting programs also have strong influences on entrepreneurship and start-up activities. There is evidence to prove strong effects on firm dynamics from interaction with state institutions (Hansen et al., 2009). According to Ojiaku et al. (2018), government support is a significant predictor of entrepreneurial intention. Enterprises which have the state sector as their primary customer perform better. This trend is so for both survival and growth. Furthermore, temporary tax exemptions during firm start-up had a separate and positive



influence on long-run growth for non-household enterprises, and initial credit support seems to benefit rural firms. In Vietnamese context, Nguyen et al. (2009) report that where defective market factors and inadequate institutional support mechanisms are evident, the state must pursue a more entrepreneurial role in facilitating the development of SMEs. Further, the social networks and private credit for the development of SMEs in the early stages of Vietnam's journey towards a market economy still plays a vital role.

Despite some limitations, these non-psychological approaches did not provide satisfactory results (DePillis, 2007; Krueger and Carsrud, 2000). The low explanatory power of non-psychological approaches leads to new trends of research based on behavioural intention models focusing on "attitude approach" or "psychological approach" that go beyond demographics and personality traits determining the "conscious" and "voluntary" act of new venture creation (Bui, 2011). According to Ajzen (1991), researchers using these models believe that the actual behaviour is determined by intentions to perform entrepreneurial behaviour which much depend on the personal attitudes towards this behaviour. The more level of favourable attitude would increase the intention to be an entrepreneur. As a result, the "attitude approach" is much more rigorous to predict entrepreneurial intention than the demographic and personality trait approach (Krueger, and Carsrud, 2000). The research works based on psychological approach apply two distinct models: Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event model and Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour.



# 3.3 Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event

The theory of the entrepreneurial event considers firm creation as the result of the interaction among contextual factors, which would act through their influence on the individual's perceptions. In Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event, three dimensions determine entrepreneurial intention, namely "Perceived desirability," "Perceived feasibility" and "propensity to act." Based on this model, Shapero tried to show the importance of perception in predicting the intention to act in some specific ways. The perception requires that the behaviour must be desirable and feasible and an apparent propensity to act the behaviour. The three components of Entrepreneurial Event are explained as follows:

- Perceived desirability refers to the degree to which he/she feels attraction for a given behaviour (to become an entrepreneur).
- Perceived feasibility is defined as the degree to which people consider
  themselves personally able to carry out specific behaviour. The presence of
  role models, mentors or partners would be a decisive element in establishing
  the individual's entrepreneurial feasibility level.
- The propensity to act refers to an individual's willingness to act on the decision.

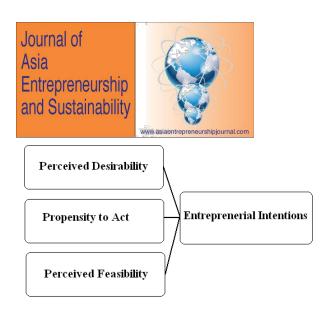


Figure 1- Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event-source: (Shapero, 1975)

All three perceptions are determined by cultural and social factors, through their influence on the individual's values system(Shapero, 1975). Many academicians have confirmed the usefulness of this model in predicting entrepreneurial intention. To test Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event model, Krueger (1994) confirmed that three components of this model explained approximately 50 per cent of the variance in entrepreneurial intentions. The best predictor in that research was perceived feasibility. Furthermore, Krueger (Krueger and Carsrud, 2000) added two more components into Shapero' model, such as specific desirability and perceived self-efficacy. Krueger tried to explain the significance to understand the self-efficacy about entrepreneurial intention, and he also concluded that entrepreneurial usually ignore the concept of Self-efficacy in entrepreneurial research. Self-efficacy theory explains what peoples' beliefs about their capabilities to produce effects are. A strong sense of self-efficacy strengthens human accomplishments and personal well-being in many ways (Bandura, 1977).



Texierira et al. (2018) confirm that significant determinants of the entrepreneurial intention in the countries studied were: "perceived capacity"; "entrepreneurial intention" itself which will influence the "rate of nascent entrepreneurship"; "governmental and political factors" concerning the respective "financing for the entrepreneur"; and "basic education and training" in entrepreneurship which influences "research and development". Krueger and Shapero's model is illustrated in the following figure.

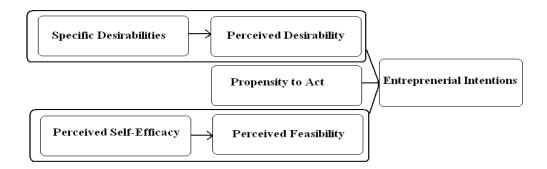


Figure 2- Krueger and Shapero's Entrepreneurial Event-source: (Krueger, 1994; Shapero, 1975)

# 3.4 Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour

The model of Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB) is the most used to research on entrepreneurial intention (Linen, Chen, 2009). Nguyen (2018) confirm the validity of TPB in the term of explaining entrepreneurial intention among business students



and in term of the actual experiences of small business owners, as they perceive and the situations of their start-ups. According to this model, there are three conceptually independent determinants of intention towards entrepreneurship, namely attitudes towards entrepreneurship, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour control (Ajzen, 1991). This model is illustrated in the following figure:

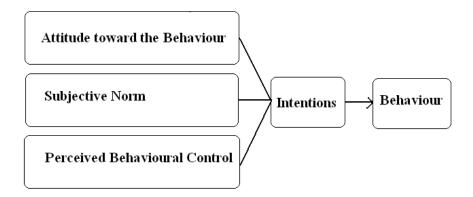


Figure 3-Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour-source: (Ajzen, 1991)

Attitude towards performing behaviour refers to perceptions of personal desirability to perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). It depends on the expectations and beliefs about the personal impacts of outcomes resulting from the behaviour. According to Ajzen, a person's attitude towards behaviour represents the evaluation of the behaviour and its outcome. In the context of entrepreneurship, attitude towards entrepreneurship refers to the personal desirability in becoming an entrepreneur (Kolvereid, 1996). As a result, the more expectations and beliefs towards self-employment reflect a favourable attitude towards entrepreneurship.



Many academicians found a positive relationship between attitude and behavioural intention (Autio et al., 2001; Gelderen et al., 2008, 2008; Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger et al., 2000. Research by Autio et al. (2001) confirmed that each attitude measured had strongly influenced entrepreneurial intention. This find is supported by Kolvereid (1996), Krueger et al. (2000). According to Gelderen et al. (2008), financial security was the most outstanding variable that made up for the attitude towards entrepreneurial intention (Bodewes, 2010). Moreover, Yang (2013) confirms that attitude represented the most useful predictor of entrepreneurial intention. Tran et al. (2017) confirm that attitude is the most influential factor that impacts the intention. In contrast, Zhang et al. (2015) confirm that attitude fails to generate a significant impact on entrepreneurial intention. Recently, Bach et al., (2018) suggest that personal attitudes towards entrepreneurship, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control are positively related to one's entrepreneurial intentions. The innovative cognitive style has also been found to be significant in creating one's intention to become an entrepreneur.

Subjective norms refer to the person's perception of the social pressures for or against performing the behaviour in question (Ajzen, 1991). According to Ajzen, subjective norm reflects an individual's perception that most people of importance think that he or she should or should not perform the behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). The Theory of Planned Behaviour assumes that subjective norm is a function of beliefs. In this sense, when a person believes that his or her referents think that behaviour should be performed, and then the subjective norm will influence his or her



intention to perform that particular behaviour. Many academicians found that subjective norm was found to be positively related to intention (Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Autio et al., 2001; Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger et al., 2000(Wu, 2008).

According to Ajzen and Driver (1992), the results showed that subjective norm is significantly related to the intention of engaging in recreational activities.

Kolvereid also found that subjective norm significantly influences intention towards entrepreneurship. (Kolvereid, 1997). However, Nguyen (2017) report that subjective norms fail to generate a significant impact on entrepreneurial intention in research conducted in Viet Nam. Furtheremore, Do, and Dung (2020) shows that subjective norms did not have a direct effect on entrepreneurial intention; however, it had a strong indirect influence on entrepreneurial intention through entrepreneurial self-efficacy, attitude toward entrepreneurship, and perceived behavioural control. This fact calls for further research to test the impacts of subjective norms on entrepreneurial intention in the Vietnamese context.

Perceived behaviour control reflects the perceived ability to execute target behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). It relates to a person's perception of the degree of easiness and difficulties in performing such behaviour, and it is assumed to reflect experience as well as anticipated obstacles (Ajzen & Driver, 1992). This factor is influenced by perceptions of access to necessary skills, resources, and opportunities to perform the behaviour. If a person feels that he or she has control over the situational factors, he or she may promote the intention to perform the particular behaviour. In contrast, if that person does not have control over the



circumstances, he or she may not have any or less intention to perform the particular behaviour. As a result, we can say that perceived behaviour controls and influences the intention to perform the behaviour. Many researchers found an association between perceived behaviour control and behavioural intention (Ajzen & Driver, 1992; Mathieson, 1991). Many studies have shown significant associations between perceived behaviour control and entrepreneurial intention (Autio et al., 2001; Gelderen et al., 2008; Kolvereid, 1996; Krueger et al., 2000; Souitaris et al., 2006). Kolvereid (1996) later found that perceived behaviour control emerged as among the most significant influence on self-employment intentions among master degree students in Norway(Kolvereid, 1997). In 1995, Davidsson added a new concept of "entrepreneurial conviction" to Ajzen's model. According to Davidsson, the result found that perceived behaviour control (or entrepreneurial conviction) is the most important influence on intention among Swedes to go into business (Davidsson, 1995). Perceived capacity". Texierira et al. (2018) report perceived behaviour control influence the "rate of nascent entrepreneurship." In contrast, Phong et al. (2020) confirm that perceived behavioural control toward entrepreneurship does not significantly influence the entrepreneurial intent of business students. Their findings suggest that if business students in Vietnam lack confidence in their ability to start new businesses, they should be trained/educated in developing soft-skills rather than focusing only on textbook knowledge.



### 4. Vietnamese Entrepreneurial Research

The important role of entrepreneurs has recently been emphasized in term of job creation, to which the private sector is considered to have the biggest contribution (Gerbing, 1988). Dana (1994) contended that the institutional environment in Vietnam was insufficiently supportive to entrepreneurship development, and Vietnam was A Marxist mini-dragon which lacks entrepreneurial infrastructure. In 2005, a study assessed the motivations, perceived success factors and business problems experienced by entrepreneurs in Vietnam (Benzing et al., 2005). It also compares the results between the northern and southern regions of the country. Using data from a survey of 378 Vietnamese entrepreneurs in Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, results show that Vietnamese entrepreneurs are motivated by the ability to provide jobs for themselves and family members, to gain public recognition, and to prove they can successfully run a business of their own. Important perceived entrepreneurial success factors include friendliness toward customers and a good product at a good price while significant business problems include too much competition, unreliable employees and the inability to obtain both short-term and long-term capital. Results also show some city/regional differences in motivation, success factors, and perceived success. Implications for policymakers in Vietnam and other emerging economies are also presented. Nguyen (2011) focused on exploring the levels of three dimensions of entrepreneurial orientations among Vietnamese entrepreneurs which are risk-taking propensity, innovativeness, and reactiveness. The research findings recommend that different levels of



entrepreneurial orientations across the demographic factors. Remarkably, Bui (2011) studied entrepreneurial intention among Vietnamese business students. The goal of that research was trying to identify key factors influencing their intention of new venture formation. According to Bui (2011), 76 per cent of respondents have the intention to become self-employed in which 23 per cent have a strong intention, and 29 per cent have a firm intention to open their own business in the future. In the concern about obstacles to go into self-employment, the result showed that financial difficulties, including "lack of capital" and "lack of financial support. Other obstacles include "complex administrative procedure" and "unfavourable economic climate" (Bui, 2011). Nguyen and Phan (2014) report that young Vietnamese have strong entrepreneurship traits of Enthusiasm, Openmindedness, Responsibility and Materialism and relatively low in Risk-taking and Trust. Needs and motives for entrepreneurship of young people include both physical and mental needs. Nguyen (2015) conclude that attitude toward entrepreneurship, subjective norm and perceived behaviour control are positively related to entrepreneurial intention. Khuong and An (2016) report that prior entrepreneurial experience, external environment, and perceived feasibility were the three independent variables that significantly affected the positive perception toward entrepreneurship and consequently, they had a positive indirect effect on entrepreneurship intention. On the other hand, perceived feasibility and personal trait significantly affected the negative perception toward entrepreneurship and provided a negatively indirect effect on the entrepreneurship intention.



Furthermore, Nguyen and Mort (2016) confirm that Vietnam, with a transitional economy, has been emerging as a theoretically rich context for researchers over the last few decades. Painful reforms have been undertaken in the country to transform the rigid central planning apparatus into a market economy, breaking the longstanding barriers to the private sector and SMEs development. In this context, entrepreneurship has become an essential driving force of economic development. Shifting from a de-entrepreneurship to pro-entrepreneurship stance, a more supportive policy setting has cultivated the quest for prosperity among businesses, grounding on a more levelled playing field for all, old and new, economic sectors. Besides, Tran et al. (2017) report that attitude is found to be the strongest factor that impacts the intention, followed by the subjective norm. Contextual elements are considered as antecedents of personal attitude, and in return, it is expected to influence entrepreneurial intention. The study makes theoretical contributions to the body of literature by proposing and validating the effect of contextual elements on the attitude, which in turn impact intention. Practically, the study provides useful knowledge for policymakers to improve the entrepreneurial wave in Viet Nam. Nguyen et al. (2019) employ a meta-analytic path analysis with a sample of 2218 students at 14 universities in Vietnam in order to show that although structural support has a positive effect on attitude towards entrepreneurship and perceived behavioural control, it also has a negative influence on subjective norms and entrepreneurial intention. Nguyen et al. (2019) conducted an online survey was conducted in 1600 youths from ten provinces including Hai Duong, Nghe An, Da



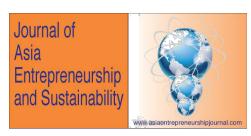
Nang, Ben Tre, Dong Thap, Binh Dinh, Ho Chi Minh City, Bac Ninh, Ha Noi and Bac Giang. Results show that desire for success and challenge, attitude toward entrepreneurship, perceived behavioural control, experiences with entrepreneurship, and creativity was positively correlated with the entrepreneurial intentions among Vietnamese youths. Duong et al. (2020) investigate the relationship between entrepreneurial attitude, self-efficacy, social capital, country norms and entrepreneurial intention. The result of this research indicates that a large proportion of students only study and only a small percentage of them study and run their own business. Recently, Phong et al. (2020) conducted a study using a cross-sectional data set from a sample of 396 business students. The findings reveal that attitude and social norms toward entrepreneurship and proactive personality significantly influence the entrepreneurial intent of business students.

#### 5. Conclusion

The entrepreneurial intention literature is vast, so the primary objective of this paper is to help researchers to have an overview of this field. In spites of 111 references have been cited, the limitation of this paper only reviews some deliberately chosen samples of the literature in global perspectives and Vietnamese perspective. In this sense, there are five main themes of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intention literature, which are The constructs of Entrepreneurship and Entrepreneurial Intention; Entrepreneurial Intention Research Models. The originality of this paper is to help researchers in the field of entrepreneurial



intention can utilize this paper to predict the influences of a variety of factors on the entrepreneurial intention among undergraduates and postgraduates. In the Vietnamese perspective, Vietnam has strategized to be a start-up nation since 2016 (VnExpress International, 2020). Afterwards, The Vietnamese government has built many action programs to promote entrepreneurship, innovation and start-up movement; especially among the Vietnamese youth and SMEs community. The Vietnamese government is willing to make changes in regulations to facilitate timely funding of startups. Addressing at the Youth Startups Forum 2018, Current Prime Minister Nguyen Xuan Phuc acknowledged the challenges that Vietnamese startups have highlighted, saying that it is the task of authorities to find a breakthrough solution for creative entrepreneurs to start and run a business (VnExpress International, 2020). Vietnamese policymakers have shown a strong commitment to creating more favourable conditions for startups by making changes in the legal framework and economic policies. "We need a breakthrough innovation in policies from government bodies to help startups succeed with their ideas," said by Current Prime Minister Nguyen Xuan Phuc. With all the constructive support from the Vietnamese government, entrepreneurship and startup movement can significantly contribute to the nation's socio-economic development in the near future.



#### References

- 1. Acs, Z. J., & Szerb, L. (2010). The global entrepreneurship and development index (GEDI). Opening Up Innovation: Strategy, Organization and Technology", Imperial College, London.
- 2. Ajzen, I. (1991). The Theory of Planned Behaviour. Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Process, 50(2), pages 179-121.
- 3. Alsos, G. A., Carter, S., Ljunggren, E. and Welter, F. (2011). "Developing synergies between entrepreneurship and agriculture". Handbook on Entrepreneurship in Agriculture and Rural Development, Edward Elgar, Cheltenham and Northampton, MA, pp. 6-7.
- 4. Anand Singh, K., & Krishna, K. V. S. M. (1994). Agricultural entrepreneurship: the concept and evidence. The Journal of Entrepreneurship, 3(1), 97-111.
- 5. Ashley-Cotleur, C., King, S., & Solomon, G. . (2009). Parental and gender influences on entrepreneurial intentions, motivations and attitudes. [Online] Available:

  <a href="http://usasbe.org/knowledge/proceedings/proceedings/Docs/USASBE">http://usasbe.org/knowledge/proceedings/proceedings/Docs/USASBE</a> 2003 proceedings-12pdf.
- 6. Autio, K., Klofsten, Parker and Hay. (2001). Entrepreneurial Intent among Students in Scandinavia and in the USA. Enterprise and Innovation Management Studies
- 7. Ayalew, M. M., & Zeleke, S. A. (2018). Modeling the impact of entrepreneurial attitude on self-employment intention among engineering students in Ethiopia. Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship, 7(1), 8.
- 8. Ayalew, M. M., & Zeleke, S. A. (2018). Modeling the impact of entrepreneurial attitude on self-employment intention among engineering students in Ethiopia. Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship, 7(1), 8.
- 9. Bandura, A. (1977). Social Learning Theory. New York: General Learning Press.
- 10. Barringer, B. R., Jones, F.F and Neubaunm, D.O. (2005). A Quantitative Content Analysis of the Characteristics of Rapid-Growth Firms and Their Founders. Journal of Business Venturing, Vol.20, No. 5, 663-687.



- 11. Basu, A., and Virick, M. (2008). Assessing Entrepreneurial Intentions Amongst Student: A Comparative Study, Peer Reviewed Paper. San Jose State University.
- 12. Begley, T. M. a. B., D.P. (1987). Psychological Characteristics Associated with Performance in Entrepreneurial Firms and Smaller Business. Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 2(No. 1), 79-93.
- 13. Benzing, C., Chu, H.M. and Callanan, G., 2005. A regional comparison of the motivation and problems of Vietnamese entrepreneurs. Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, 10(01), pp.3-27.
- 14. Bird, B. (1988). "Implementing entrepreneurial ideas: the case for intention". Academy of Management Review, Vol. 13 No. 3, pp. 442-453.
- 15. Birdthistle, N. (2008). "An examination of tertiary students' desire to found an enterprise". Education and Training, Vol. 50 No. 7, pp. 552-567.
- 16. Birley, S., and Westhead, P. (1994). A taxonomy of business start-up: reasons and their impact on firm growth and size. Journal of Business Venturing, 9, 7-31.
- 17. Bodewes, W., Van Gelderen, Marco, Brand, Maryse J., Van Praag, Mirjam, Poutsma, Erik and Van Gils, Anita, . (2010). Explaining Entrepreneurial Intentions by Means of the Theory of Planned Behaviour. Career Development International, Vol. 13(No. 6), pp. 538-559.
- 18. Boyd, N. G. V., G. S. (1984). "The Influence of Self-Efficacy on the Development of Entrepreneurial Intentions and Actions. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, Vol. 18(4), pp. 63-77.
- 19. Bui, H., Thi Lan. (2011). "Entrepreneurial Intention among Vietnamese Business Students: Identifying Key Factors Influencing Their Intention of New Venture Formation. International Vision, CFVG, Vol. 15.
- 20. Carr, J. C. S., J.M. . (2007). Prior family business exposure as intergenerational influence: A mediation test of family support, entrepreneurial self-efficacy, and entrepreneurial intent. Journal of Business Research, 60(10), 1090-1098.
- 21. Chaudhary, R. (2017). Demographic factors, personality and entrepreneurial inclination: A study among Indian university students. Education+ Training, 59(2), 171–187.





- 22. Choo, S. a. W. M. (2006). Entrepreneurial intention: triggers and barriers to new venture creations in Singapore. Singapre Management Review, Vol.28 ì, pp 47-64.
- 23. Chu, H. M., . Kara, O., Fiorentino, C. (2011). "Bulgarian Entrepreneurship: an exploratory study". International Journal of Business and Public Administration, Vol. 8(No. 1), pp. 89-105.
- 24. Cooper, A. C., Gimeno-Gascon, F.J and Woo, C.Y. (1994). Initial human and financial capital as predictors of new venture performance. Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 9(No. 5), 371-395.
- 25. Crant, J. M. (1996). The Proactive Personality Scale as a Predictor of Entrepreneurial Intentions. Journal of Small Business Management, 34(3), 42-49.
- 26. Daim, T, Dabic, M, Bayraktaroglu, E. (2016). Students' entrepreneurial behaviour: International and gender differences. Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship, 5(1), 1–22.
- 27. Dana, L. P. (1994). A Marxist mini-dragon? Entrepreneurship in today's Vietnam. Journal of Small Business Management, 32(2), 95.
- 28. Davidsson, P. (1995). Determinants of Entrepreneurial Intentions. Paper presented at the RENT IX Workshop in Entrepreneur Research, Piacenza, Italy.
- 29. Delmar, F. D., P. (2000). Where do they come from? Prevalence and characteristics of nascent entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 12, pp. 1-23.
- 30. DePillis, E. a. R., KK. (2007). "The influence of personality traits and persuasive messages on entrepreneurial intentiton". Career Development International, 12, 4, 382-396.
- Do, Q., & Dung, P. (2020). Exploring entrepreneurial intention of full-time students at transport universities in Vietnam. Management Science Letters, 10(7), 1409-1416.
- 32. Drennan, J., Kennedy, J. and Renfrow, P. (2005). "Impact of childhood experiences on the development of entrepreneurial intentions". Entrepreneurship and Innovation, Vol. 6 No. 4, pp. 231-238.



- 33. Duong, C., Nguyen, H., Ngo, T., Nguyen, V., & Nguyen, T. (2020). The impact of individual and environmental characteristics on students' entrepreneurial intention. Management Science Letters, 10(3), 599-608.
- Fairlie, RW, & Robb, A. (2007). Families, human capital, and small business: Evidence from the characteristics of business owners survey. ILR Review, 60(2), 225–245.
- 35. Farrukh, M., Alzubi, Y., Shahzad, I. A., Waheed, A., & Kanwal, N. (2018). Entrepreneurial intentions: The role of personality traits in perspective of theory of planned behaviour. Asia Pacific Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship, 12(3), 399-414.
- 36. Fernandes, C., Ferreira, J. J., Raposo, M., Sanchez, J., & Hernandez–Sanchez, B. (2018). Determinants of entrepreneurial intentions: an international cross-border study. International Journal of Innovation Science, 10(2), 129-142.
- 37. Franke, N., & Lüthje, C. (2004). Entrepreneurial intentions of business students—A benchmarking study. International Journal of Innovation and Technology Management, 1(03), 269-288.
- 38. Galloway, L. a. B., W. (2002). "Entrepreneurship education at university: a driver in the creation of high growth firms". Education and Training, Vol. 44 Nos 8/9, pp. 398-405.
- 39. Gartner, W. B. (1988). "Who is an entrepreneur?" is the wrong question. American Small Business Journal, 12(4), pp. 11-31.
- 40. Gerbing, D. W., Anderson, J.C. (1988). An updated paradigm for scale development incorporating unidimensionality and its assessment. Journal of Marketing Research, 2(25), 186-192.
- 41. Hatak, I, Harms, R, Fink, M. (2015). Age, job identification, and entrepreneurial intention. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 30(1), 38–53.
- 42. Henderson, R., & Robertson, M. (2000). Who wants to be an entrepreneur? Young adult attitudes to entrepreneurship as a career. Career Development International, 5(6), 279-287.
- 43. Henley, A. (2007). Entrepreneurial aspiration and transition into selfemployment: Evidence from British longitudinal data. Entrepreneurship and Regional Development, 19(3), 253-280.



- 44. Hornaday, J. A. a. A., J. (1971). Characteristics of Successful Entrepreneurs. Personnel Psychology, Vol. 24 No. 2 141-153.
- 45. Khuong, M.N. and An, N.H. (2016). The factors affecting entrepreneurial intention of the students of Vietnam national university—a mediation analysis of perception toward entrepreneurship. Journal of Economics, Business and Management, 4(2), pp.104-111.
- 46. Kolvereid, L. (1997). Prediction of employment status choice intentions, Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 21.
- 47. Kourilsky, M. L. a. W., W.B. . (1998). "Entrepreneurship and female youth: knowledge, attitudes, gender differences, and educational practices".

  Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 13, pp. 77-88.
- 48. Krakauer, P. V. D. C., de Moraes, G. H. S. M., Coda, R., & Berne, D. D. F. (2018). Brazilian women's entrepreneurial profile and intention. International Journal of Gender and Entrepreneurship, 10(4), 361-380.
- 49. Kressel, H., & Lento, T. V. (2012). Entrepreneurship in the global economy: Engine for economic growth. Cambridge University Press.
- 50. Kristiansen, S., & Indarti, N. (2004). Entrepreneurial intention among Indonesian and Norwegian students. Journal of enterprising culture, 12(01), 55-78.
- 51. Krueger, N. F. J. a. B., D.V. (1994). Entrepreneurial Potential and Potential Entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 18(3), pp. 91-104.
- 52. Krueger, N. F. J. R., M.D and Carsrud, A.L. (2000). Competing Models of Entrepreneurial Intentions. Journal of Business Venturing, 15, 411-432.
- 53. Kuratko, D. F. (2005). "The emergence of entrepreneurship education: development, trends, and challenges". Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, Vol. 29 No. 5, pp. 577-598.
- 54. Lee, D. Y. a. T., E. W. K. . (2001). The effects of entrepreneurial personality, background and network activities on venture growth. Journal of Management Studies, 38, pp. 583–602.
- 55. Liñán, F., & Chen, Y.-W. (2009). Development and Cross-Cultural Application of a Specific Instrument to Measure Entrepreneurial Intentions.



- Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice, 33(3), 593-617. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2009.00318.x
- 56. Liñán, F., & Fayolle, A. (2015). A systematic literature review on entrepreneurial intentions: citation, thematic analyses, and research agenda. International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 11(4), 907-933.
- 57. Liñán, F., Nabi, G., & Krueger, N. (2013). British And Spanish Entrepreneurial Intentions: A Comparative Study. La Intención Emprendedora En Reino Unido Y España: Un Estudio Comparativo.(33), 73-103.
- 58. Linan, F., Rodriguez-Cohard, J.R., Rueda-Cantuche, J.M.R., . (2005). "Factors affecting entrepreneurial intentions levels". Paper presented at the 45th Congress of the European Regional Science Association, Amsterdam.
- 59. López-Delgado, P., Iglesias-Sánchez, P. P., & Jambrino-Maldonado, C. (2019). Gender and university degree: a new analysis of entrepreneurial intention. Education+ Training.
- 60. Marsden, K. (1992). "African entrepreneurs pioneers of development". Small Enterprise Development, Vol. 3 No. 2,, pp. 15-25.
- 61. Matthews, C. H., & Moser, S. B. (1995). Family background and gender: implications for interest in small firm ownership. ENtrepreneurship and Regional Development, 7(4), 365-377.
- 62. McClelland, D. C. (1961). Achieving society (No. 15). Simon and Schuster.
- 63. Meier, R. a. P., M. . (1994). "Policy-induced constraints on small enterprise development in Asian developing countries". Small Enterprise Development, Vol. 5 No. 2, pp. 66-78.
- 64. Minniti, M., & Bygrave, W. (1999). The microfoundations of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 23(4), 41-52.
- 65. Morrison A., B., J. and Ali, S. . (2003). Small Business Growth:Intention, Ability and Opportunity Journal of Small Business Management, Vol. 41(No. 4), pp.417-425.
- 66. Munir, H., Jianfeng, C., & Ramzan, S. (2019). Personality traits and theory of planned behaviour comparison of entrepreneurial intentions between an



- emerging economy and a developing country. International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research.
- 67. Murphy, F. H. (2005). "ASP, 'The art and science of practice: elements of a theory of the practice of operations research: expertise in practice'". Interfaces, Vol. 35 No. 4, pp. 313-322.
- 68. Nguyen Q.A., Mort G.S. (2016) Economic Reform and Entrepreneurship in Vietnam: A Policy Perspective. In: Ateljević J., Trivić J. (eds) Economic Development and Entrepreneurship in Transition Economies. Springer, Cham
- 69. Nguyen, A. T., Do, T. H. H., Vu, T. B. T., Dang, K. A., & Nguyen, H. L. (2019). Factors affecting entrepreneurial intentions among youths in Vietnam. Children and Youth Services Review, 99, 186-193.
- 70. Nguyen, C. (2015). Entrepreneurial intention in Vietnam: Same as everywhere?. Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability, 11(4), 108.
- 71. Nguyen, C. (2017). Entrepreneurial intention of international business students in Viet Nam: a survey of the country joining the Trans-Pacific Partnership. Journal of Innovation and Entrepreneurship, 6(1), 7.
- 72. Nguyen, C. (2018). A qualitative study of factors that influences entrepreneurial intentions among business students and small business owners. Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability, 14(1), 3-27.
- 73. Nguyen, C. (2018). Demographic factors, family background and prior self-employment on entrepreneurial intention-Vietnamese business students are different: why?. Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research, 8(1), 10.
- 74. Nguyen, M., & Phan, A. (2014). Entrepreneurial Traits and Motivations of the Youth-an Empirical Study in Ho Chi Minh City-Vietnam. International Journal of Business and Social Science, 5(5).
- 75. Nguyen, M., Thi Tuyet. (2011). An Exploratory Investigation into Entrepreneurial Orientation In Vietnam: A Study Across Types of Ownership, Firm Sizes, and Entrepreneur's Genders. International Vision, CFVG, 15.
- 76. Nguyen, T. V., Bryant, S. E., Rose, J., Tseng, C.-H., & Kapasuwan, S. (2009). Cultural Values, Market Institutions, And Entrepreneurship



- Potential:: A Comparative Study Of The United States, Taiwan, And Vietnam. Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship, 14(1), 21-37.
- 77. Nguyen, T.H., Alam, Q., Perry, M. and Prajogo, D., 2009. The entrepreneurial role of the state and SME growth in Vietnam. Journal of Administration & Governance, 4(1), pp.60-71.
- 78. O'Gorman, C. (2019). Entrepreneurial Intentions and Entrepreneurial Behaviour. In Entrepreneurial Behaviour (pp. 17-37). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham.
- 79. Ohanu, I. B., & Ogbuanya, T. C. (2018). Determinant factors of entrepreneurship intentions of electronic technology education students in Nigerian universities. Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research, 8(1), 36.
- 80. Ojiaku, O. C., Nkamnebe, A. D., & Nwaizugbo, I. C. (2018). Determinants of entrepreneurial intentions among young graduates: perspectives of push-pull-mooring model. Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research, 8(1), 24.
- Papadaki, E. a. C., C. (2002). Growth Determinants of Micro-Business in Canada. Paper presented at the Industry Canada Small Business Policy Branch, Ottawa.
- 82. Phan H.P., W., P.K and Wang, C.K. (2002). Antecedents to Entrepreneurship among University Students in Singapore: Belief, Attitudes and Background. Journal of Enterprising Culture, Vol. 10(No. 2), 151-174.
- 83. Phong, N. D., Thao, N. T. P., & Nguyen, N. P. (2020). Entrepreneurial intent of business students: Empirical evidence from a transitional economy. Cogent Business & Management, 7(1), 1747962.
- 84. Pihie, Z. A. L. (2009). "Entrepreneurship as a career choice: An analysis of entrepreneurial self-efficacy and intention of university students". European Journal of Social Sciences, Vol. 9(No. 2), pp. 338-349.
- 85. Pittaway, L., & Cope, J. (2007). Entrepreneurship education: A systematic review of the evidence. International small business journal, 25(5), 479-510.



- 86. Poutziouris, P. (2003). The strategic orientation of owner-managers of small ventures. International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research.
- 87. Quan, X. (2012). Prior experience, social network, and levels of entrepreneurial intentions. Management Research Review, 35(10), 945–957.
- 88. Raijman, R. (2001). "Determinants of entrepreneurial intentions: Mexican immigrants in Chicago". Journal of Socio-economics, Vol. 30 No. 5, pp. 393-411.
- 89. Rwigema, H., & Venter, R. (2004). Advanced Entrepreneurship. (3rd ed.): Cape Town: Oxford University Press
- 90. Sadler-Smith, E., Y.Hampson, I. Chaston and B. Badger. (2003). Managerial Behaviour, Entrepreneurial Style and Small Business Firm Performance. Journal of Small Business Management, Vol. 1, pp.47-67.
- 91. Şahin, F., Karadağ, H., & Tuncer, B. (2019). Big five personality traits, entrepreneurial self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention: A configurational approach. International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research.
- 92. Sandberg, W. R. a. H., C.W. (1987). Improving New Venture Performance: The Role of Strategy, Industry Structure, and the Entrepreneur. Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 2(No. 1), 5-28.
- 93. Schumpeter, J. A. (1934). The Theory of economic development Harvard University Press, Cambridge, MA.
- 94. Schumpeter, J. A. (1947). The creative response in economic history. The journal of economic history, 7(2), 149-159.
- 95. Shapero, A. (1975). "The displaced, uncomfortable entrepreneur". Psychology Today, Vol. 9 No. 6, pp. 83-88.
- 96. Shay, J. a. T., S., & . (2005). "Entrepreneurial aspirations and intentions of business students: a gendered perspective". Paper presented at the the Babson Entrepreneurship Conference, Boston, MA.
- 97. Smith, B. R., Cronley, M. L., & Barr, T. F. (2012). Funding Implications of Social Enterprise: The Role of Mission Consistency, Entrepreneurial Competence, and Attitude Toward Social Enterprise on Donor Behaviour.



- Journal of Public Policy & Marketing, 31(1), 142-157. doi: 10.1509/jppm.11.033
- 98. Souitaris, V., Zerbinati, S., & Al-Laham, A. (2007). Do entrepreneurship programmes raise entrepreneurial intention of science and engineering students? The effect of learning, inspiration and resources. Journal of Business Venturing, 22(4), 566-591. doi: 10.1016/j.jbusvent.2006.05.002
- 99. Teixeira, S. J., Casteleiro, C. M. L., Rodrigues, R. G., & Guerra, M. D. (2018). Entrepreneurial intentions and entrepreneurship in European countries. International Journal of Innovation Science, 10(1), 22-42.
- 100. Thompson, E. R. (2009). Individual Entrepreneurial Intent: Construct Clarification and Development of an Internationally Reliable Metric. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, Vol. 33(Issue 3), pp. 669-694.
- 101. Tkachev, A., & Kolvereid, L. (1999). Self-employment intentions among Russian students. Entrepreneurship & Regional Development, 11(3), 269-280.
- 102. Tran, D. G. T., Bui, T. Q., Nguyen, H. T., & Mai, M. T. T. (2017, June). The antecedents of entrepreneurial intention a study among graduate students in Ho Chi Minh City. In International Conference on the Development of Biomedical Engineering in Vietnam (pp. 403-410). Springer, Singapore.
- 103. Urban, B. (2012). A metacognitive approach to explaining entrepreneurial intentions. Management Dynamics: Journal of the Southern African Institute for Management Scientists, 21(2), 16-33.
- 104. Van der Sluis, J. a. V. P., M. . (2004). "Economic returns to education for entrepreneurs: the development of a neglected child in the economics of education". Swedish Economic Policy Review, Vol. 11 (No. 2), pp. 183-225.
- 105. Van Gelderen, M., Brand, M., Van Praag, M., Bodewes, W., Poutsma, E., & van Gils, A. (2008). Explaining entrepreneurial intentions by means of the theory of planned behaviour. Career Development International, 13(6), 538-559.
- 106. Van Praag, C.M. and Versloot, P.H., 2007. The economic benefits and costs of entrepreneurship: A review of the research. Foundations and Trends® in Entrepreneurship, 4(2), pp.65-154.





- 107. Vesalainen, J., & Pihkala, T. (1999). Motivation structure and entrepreneurial intentions. Frontiers of entrepreneurship research, 19, 73-87.
- 108. Vietnam strategizes to be a start-up nation VnExpress International. (2020). Retrieved 20 July 2020, from https://e.vnexpress.net/news/business/vietnam-strategizes-to-be-a-start-up-nation-3419755.html
- 109. Vietnamese government will share risks with startups, PM assures VnExpress International. (2020). Retrieved 20 July 2020, from https://e.vnexpress.net/news/business/economy/vietnamese-government-will-share-risks-with-startups-pm-assures-3847136.html
- 110. Zhang, P, Wang, DD, Owen, CL. (2015). A study of entrepreneurial intention of university students. Entrepreneurship Research Journal, 5(1), 61–82.
- 111. Zhu, L., Kara, O., & Zhu, X. (2019). A comparative study of women entrepreneurship in transitional economies. Journal of Entrepreneurship in Emerging Economies.



# Social Entrepreneurial Education and development of Social Entrepreneurial Intent

Vivek Ahuja
Academics and Peer Learning, Young India Fellowship
Ashoka University, India
vahuja15@gmail.com

# Purpose

While there exists substantial research on entrepreneurship education, the field of social entrepreneurship (SE) education research still remains in a nascent stage and lacks much evidence. Probing into the effectiveness of SE education appears imperative in context of a developing country like India which is also one of the largest social entrepreneurial environments in the world. The purpose of this paper is to examine whether exposure to social entrepreneurial education affects students' opinion to become a social entrepreneur.

# Design/methodology/approach

Using quantitative research design, data was collected from 561 management students using a structured questionnaire. The survey was conducted in reputed



universities in the National Capital Region of India. The responses of students with prior exposure to social entrepreneurial education were compared to responses of those with no such exposure using t-test.

### **Findings**

The findings of the study reveal that prior exposure to social entrepreneurial education affects attitude towards becoming a social entrepreneur, perceived behavioural control and subjective norms in becoming a social entrepreneur.

# Originality/value

The present study is one of the first studies in National Capital Region of India to have empirically evaluated the effect of SE education on the students' opinion towards social entrepreneurship as a career option. The results of the study will be useful in developing and designing entrepreneurship education policies and curriculum in a developing country like India and other geographies with similar socio-economic and socio-cultural environments.



#### Introduction

Over the years, the world has seen promotion of entrepreneurship education to encourage entrepreneurial activity (Peterman and Kennedy, 2003). Literature suggests that, to a certain extent, entrepreneurship education programs have been successful in encouraging venture creations and in some cases have improved performance of existing entrepreneurs (Peterman and Kennedy, 2003). Matlay (2008) conducted a longitudinal study and surveyed graduates who studied a course on entrepreneurship and actually turned into entrepreneurs over a course of time. To pursue entrepreneurship, students need to be equipped with imperative entrepreneurial skillsets. Neck and Greene (2011) suggest that entrepreneurship education should be able to foster requisite knowledge and skills in students. Entrepreneurship education promotes creativity among students and helps them explore new business opportunities (DeTienne and Chandler, 2004; Hussain and Norashidah, 2015).

Bae, Qian, Miano and Fiet (2014) conducted a survey and found a positive effect of entrepreneurship pedagogy on entrepreneurial intention. Another study conducted by Moses and Akinbode (2014) in Nigeria stressed upon the need for developing appealing pedagogical content so as to attract students towards entrepreneurship courses. Fayolle and Gailly (2015) have also argued that an individual's entrepreneurial intention is positively affected by exposure to entrepreneurial experience or entrepreneurial education. Adelekan et al. (2018)



state that knowledge about entrepreneurship helps in checking ascertaining feasibility of the opportunities before investing money into it.

There has been a tremendous increase in entrepreneurial activity in India in the last few decades. Many Universities and colleges in India have started teaching entrepreneurship courses to promote entrepreneurship among youth (Tiwari et al. 2017). In fact, a heavy investment by the government and private players has also gone into setting up of incubation centres in educational institutions and also independent business incubators. However, little emphasis has been given to exploring the relation between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intentions (Tiwari et al., 2018). Piperopoulos and Dimov (2014) state that a remarkable rise in acceptance of entrepreneurship education as an academic area over the last many years could be based on the proposition that it can contribute towards formation of attitudes towards entrepreneurship and hence may lead to a rise in individual intentions.

The relationship between entrepreneurial education and opinion about entrepreneurship as a career option stands uncertain (Ernst, 2011). In fact, the authors would like to argue that the literature has witnessed mixed results. While there exist studies that have failed to establish the influence of entrepreneurship education over intentions to create own venture (e.g. Pittaway & Cope, 2007; Walter & Dohse, 2008; Praag et al., 2008; Ruhle et al., 2010), there are others which have shown confirmatory results too (e.g., Franke & Lüthje, 2004; Peterman



& Kennedy, 2003; Pittaway & Cope, 2007; Souitaris et al., 2007; Matlay, 2008; Walter & Dohse, 2009). While, these are studies related largely to entrepreneurial education, similar research in the field of social entrepreneurship is still lacking substantiality.

In this light, it appears valuable to conduct further research on whether any prior exposure to social entrepreneurial education exerts an influence on social entrepreneurial intent formation.

# Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses development

As per Kirby and Ibrahim (2013), young people will develop interest in pursuing social entrepreneurship if they are educated about the concept of social entrepreneurship and its significance for the society. In a recent study, Chang and Wannamakok (2019) found the highest level of social entrepreneurial intentions among non-business students who received entrepreneurship education. In their study, Tiwari et al. (2018) found a positive relationship between these two and validated the need for developing more courses in the field of entrepreneurship. As per Chang and Wannamakok (2019), entrepreneurial education is significant for creation of new business. Exploring these relationships, Trivedi (2016) also maintained that students' interest and capabilities develop with a well-designed entrepreneurship education curriculum.



Social entrepreneurship as a career option may be of interest to many. However, like in case of other career options, there may exist an interplay of a variety of factors that may lead to formation of intention to pursue social entrepreneurship as a career option. Measurement of intentions have been an area of great interest to scholars over the last few decades. This is due to the premise that intentions lead to actions and behaviours. While there has been considerable research over the years that has led to development of a number of models to conceptualize intention formation, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB), developed by Icek Ajzen in 1991, has been by far the most successful and cited model in the area of entrepreneurial intentions research. According to the TPB, there are three determinants of intentions, namely, 'attitude towards the behaviour', 'subjective norm' (SN) and 'perceived behavioural control' (PBC).

Kedmenec et al. (2017) explored the relationships between entrepreneurship education and perceived desirability and feasibility of creating a social enterprise among students. They were successful in establishing a positive influence of the awareness generated by social entrepreneurship education over both perceived desirability and feasibility. Barton et al. (2018) also examined the relationship between entrepreneurship education and self-efficacy, and found a positive relation between the two. In an attempt to develop a comprehensive conceptual model of social entrepreneurship intention formation, Ahuja et al. (2019) reviewed extensive



literature and narrowed down the key factors that influence the intentions. In their review process, they found that perceived desirability could be treated as similar to ATB and SN of the TPB while perceived feasibility of a venture could be treated the same as PBC. They further state that the concept of self-efficacy also largely relates with PBC. These equivalencies have also been stressed upon and explained by Kruger and Deborah Brazeal (1994). Mueller (2011) also states that the split up of perceived desirability into ATB and SN is actually an advantage of the TPB as it also provides additional insights into the relationships between variables.

Therefore, in the present study, we try to measure the opinion towards social entrepreneurship as a career through three constituents of the theory of planned behaviour – attitude towards behaviour, subjective norms, and perceived behaviour control (Figure 1).

In a study conducted by Ernst (2011), a positive relationship was found between exposure to social entrepreneurial education and all the three constituents of the TPB. Further, Hockerts (2015) also found that those students who intended to become a social entrepreneur chose to enrol for courses in the area of social entrepreneurship.



The present study draws a comparative analysis between ATB, PBC and SN of the students who have studied social entrepreneurship and those who have not. The values of significant differences between these two groups of students could be insightful in determining that whether the students who underwent Social entrepreneurial education possess a higher level of attitude towards choosing social entrepreneurship as a career option, a higher degree of perceived behavioural control towards the idea of creating a social enterprise in future, and a higher level of subjective norms. These differences will prove the effect of social entrepreneurship education on the three constructs of TPB which in turn lead towards intentions formation. Hence, the following hypothesis of difference have been proposed -

Ho<sub>1</sub>: There is no significant difference in the value of Attitude towards becoming a Social Entrepreneur between people with and without prior exposure to Social Entrepreneurship Education.

Ho<sub>2</sub>: There is no significant difference in the value of Perceived Behavioural Control on becoming a Social Entrepreneur between people with and without prior exposure to Social Entrepreneurship Education.



Ho<sub>3</sub>: There is no significant difference in the value of Subjective Norms on becoming a Social Entrepreneur between people with and without prior exposure to Social Entrepreneurship Education.

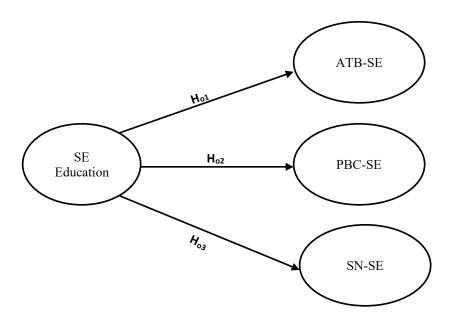


Figure 1 Conceptual Framework

#### Data collection and measures

Master level and final year Bachelor level students in the Delhi NCR region in India who are approaching end of their studies and are near to making a career choice in their lives comprise the population of this study. Business students are more likely to become entrepreneurs than students from others fields. According to



Shinnar et al. (2012), students of business education can be considered as a step before becoming self-employed. Also, the students who are approaching the end of their studies face career decisions and have a broad range of ideas (Krueger et al., 2000). Many researchers have taken student samples for studying intentions in entrepreneurship due to these aspects (Autio et al., 2001; Franke & Luthje, 2004; Goethner et al., 2009; Guerrero et al., 2008; Krueger et al., 2000; Ruhle et al., 2010; Appolloni & Sagiri, 2009; Soetanto et al., 2010; Linan et al. 2011). Hence, final data was collected from 561 final year students enrolled in undergraduate and post graduate business programs in various universities and colleges in the NCR of India. As the respondents required for the study were specifically students of business courses, the sampling technique used was purposive sampling.

A close-ended questionnaire was employed for collecting the data. The scales for ATB, PBC and SN were mostly adopted from Ernst (2011). However, the wordings of the items were changed to make these items easier to understand by the students in the region and also to suit the needs of the study. These items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (ranging from 1= totally disagree to 5= totally agree / 1=harmful to 5=beneficial / 1=unenjoyable to 5=enjoyable / 1=bad to 5=good). The item related to social entrepreneur education 'Have you studied any course or received any formal training in social entrepreneurship?' was answered in Yes/No.



	ATB_	For me, becoming a social entrepreneur after completing my
AT B	1	studies is - Harmful/Beneficial
	ATB_	For me, becoming a social entrepreneur after completing my
	2	studies is - Unenjoyable/Enjoyable
	ATB_	For me, becoming a social entrepreneur after completing my
	3	studies is - Bad/Good
	ATB_	A career as a social entrepreneur is attractive to me
	4	
	PBC_1	It would be easy for me to become a social entrepreneur
	PBC_2	I am sure I would be successful if I become a social entrepreneur
PBC	PBC_3	I believe I could handle the creation of a social enterprise
	PBC_4	If I tried to become a social entrepreneur, I would have a high
		probability of succeeding
	PBC_5	If I became a social entrepreneur, it would be very likely that my
		company would be successful
	PBC_6	I can control the creation process of a social enterprise



	SN_1	If you decided to become a social entrepreneur, would people in
		your close environment approve of that decision? - Your close
		family
	CNI 2	If you doolded to become a good outnomer yould meetle in
	SN_2	If you decided to become a social entrepreneur, would people in
		your close environment approve of that decision? - Your Friends
	SN_3	If you decided to become a social entrepreneur, would people in
		your close environment approve of that decision? - Your fellow
		students
SN	CNI 4	
	SN_4	Those people who are important to me would want me to become
		a social entrepreneur
	SN_5	Those people who are important to me think I should become a
		social entrepreneur
	SN 6	Most people important to me would approve of my becoming a
	_	social entrepreneur
		social endepreneur
	SN_7	The people important to me would think it was desirable if I
		became a social entrepreneur

Table 1 Scale items for ATB, PBC and SN



### Description of the sample

The respondents were asked whether they had enrolled in and studied any course related to social entrepreneurship, or have been exposed to any training related to the field in the past, or are currently undergoing the same. This information is important to check whether there is any effect of the exposure to social entrepreneurial education or training on the variables under study. Interestingly, around 41% of the students responded in positive. This also gives us an indication that social entrepreneurship as an academic area is picking up interest in educational institutions. However, in this sample, 59% of the respondents did not have any prior exposure to social entrepreneurial education or training.

Categories	Frequencies	%
Yes	230	41
No	331	59
Total	561	100

Table 2 Exposure to Social Entrepreneurial Education



# Analysis

Cronbach's alpha reliability test was used to check the reliability of the scale items.

The reliability of each of the scales was found to be acceptable –

Cronbach's alpha for each scale

S. No.	Variable	Cronbach's α	No. of Items
1	ATB_SE	0.859	4
2	PBC_SE	0.846	6
3	SN_SE	0.822	7

Table 3 Reliability of Scale Items

't-test' was applied in SPSS to determine the significant difference in the value of latent variables among the two types of respondents – (a) those who had exposure to Social Entrepreneurial Education, and (b) those who did not have exposure to Social Entrepreneurial Education before filling the survey.



Table 4 details the results of the t-test for equality of means conducted in SPSS. The following hypotheses of differences were framed to test the significant difference –

Table 4 Exposure to Social Entrepreneurship Education

			Exposure to Social Entrepreneurship Education			
			Yes		No	
Variables	t value	p-value	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
ATB	-2.705	0.007	3.704	0.853	3.431	0.849
PBC	-1.178	0.041	3.207	0.774	3.102	0.740
SN	-1.967	0.034	3.308	0.820	3.128	0.738

## Results and Discussion

The results of the t-tests reveals that p-value of ATB, PBC and SN is less than 0.05, hence, the hypotheses Ho<sub>1</sub>, Ho<sub>2</sub>, and Ho<sub>3</sub> stand rejected. This means that there is a significant difference between the respondents with and without exposure to Social Entrepreneurial Education in terms of the values of attitude towards



becoming a social entrepreneur, perceived behavioural control, and subjective norms.

Based on the mean scores, it is found that the mean values of ATB in respondents with exposure to Social Entrepreneurial Education is 3.704 whereas the mean value of respondents without any such exposure is 3.431 (Table 4). The mean values are lower in case of respondents who had no exposure to Social Entrepreneurial Education at the time of filling this survey. Thus, it can be interpreted that the educational exposure to Social Entrepreneurship has an effect on attitude to become a social entrepreneur.

Similarly, the mean score of PBC and SN in case of students with exposure to social entrepreneurial education (3.207 and 3.102) is higher than those without any such exposure (3.308 and 3.128) respectively. Therefore, it can be asserted that studying the courses in social entrepreneurship influences an individual's perception of their control over the process of social enterprise creation (PBC), and at the same time also exerts positive influence on their perception about what people in their close network (SN) such as family, friends, etc. might feel about them getting involved in the phenomena of social entrepreneurship.

The results of this study stand similar to that of Tiwari et al. (2018) and Ernst (2011) who found a positive relationship between exposure to social entrepreneurial education and attitude towards becoming a social entrepreneur,



perceived behavioural control in becoming a social entrepreneur, and subjective norms concerning this process.

#### Conclusion

The results of the study signify that social entrepreneurial education is an important indicator of formation of intentions to choose career of social entrepreneur. Various scholars in the last two decades have highlighted the significance of including education as an independent variable in the entrepreneurial intentions models (Liñán et al., 2011; Peterman & Kennedy, 2003; Tiwari et al., 2018). This study marks its contribution by adding to the growing body of literature on social entrepreneurship and specifically social entrepreneurial intentions. As India continue to lead the forefront in being one of the largest social entrepreneurship ecosystems, it becomes important for the higher education institutions to consider including more courses in the field of social entrepreneurship leading towards a specialized curriculum in the area. This will result in many benefits including establishment of social entrepreneurship as an independent academic discipline as well as encouraging more and more students to pursue social entrepreneurial education.



#### References

Adelekan, S. A., Williamson, M., & Atiku, S. O. (2018). Influence of social entrepreneurship pedagogical initiatives on students' attitudes and behaviours. Journal of Business and Retail Management Research, 12(3). Ahuja, V., Akhtar, A., & Wali, O. P. (2019). Development of a comprehensive model of social entrepreneurial intention formation using a quality tool. Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research, 9(1), 41.

Ajzen, I. (1991). Theory of planned behaviour. Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes, 50, 179-211.

Appolloni, A., & Gaddam, S. (2009). Identifying the effect of psychological variables on entrepreneurial intentions. DSM Business Review, 1(2).

Autio, E., H. Keeley, R., Klofsten, M., GC Parker, G., & Hay, M. (2001).

Entrepreneurial intent among students in Scandinavia and in the USA. Enterprise and Innovation Management Studies, 2(2), 145-160.

Bae, T. J.; Qian, S., Miao, C., & Fiet, J. O. (2014). The relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial intentions: A meta-analytic review. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 38(2), 217-254.

Barton, M., Schaefer, R., & Canavati, S. (2018). To be or not to be a social entrepreneur: Motivational drivers amongst American business students. Entrepreneurial Business and Economics Review, 6(1), 9-35.

Chang, Y. Y., & Wannamakok, W. (2019, August). Understanding Social Entrepreneurial Intentions: Entrepreneurship Education, Academic Major, and Planned Behaviors. In 2019 Portland International Conference on Management of Engineering and Technology (PICMET) (pp. 1-11). IEEE.

DeTienne, D. R., & Chandler, G. N. (2004). Opportunity identification and its role in the entrepreneurial classroom: A pedagogical approach and empirical test. Academy of management learning & education, 3(3), 242-257.

Ernst, K. (2011). Heart over mind—An empirical analysis of social entrepreneurial intention formation on the basis of the theory of planned behavior. 1–309.

Ernst, K. (2018). Heart over mind—An empirical analysis of social entrepreneurial intention formation on the basis of the theory of planned behaviour (Doctoral dissertation, Universität Wuppertal, Fakultät für



Wirtschaftswissenschaft/Schumpeter School of Business and Economics» Dissertationen).

Fayolle, A., & Gailly, B. (2015). The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial attitudes and intention: Hysteresis and persistence. Journal of small business management, 53(1), 75-93.

Franke, N., & Lüthje, C. (2004). Entrepreneurial intentions of business students—A benchmarking study. International Journal of Innovation and Technology Management, 1(03), 269-288.

Goethner, M., Obschonka, M., Silbereisen, R. K., & Cantner, U. (2009).

Approaching the agora: Determinants of scientists' intentions to purse academic entrepreneurship (No. 2009, 079). Jena economic research papers.

Guerrero, M., Rialp, J., & Urbano, D. (2008). The impact of desirability and feasibility on entrepreneurial intentions: A structural equation model. International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 4(1), 35-50.

Hockerts, K. (2015). The social entrepreneurial antecedents scale (SEAS): A validation study. Social Enterprise Journal.

Hussain, A., & Norashidah, D. (2015). Impact of entrepreneurial education on entrepreneurial intentions of Pakistani Students. Journal of Entrepreneurship and Business Innovation, 2(1), 43-53.

Kedmenec, I., Rebernik, M., & Tominc, P. (2017). Social entrepreneurship education and its association with perceived desirability and feasibility of social entrepreneurship among business students. Croatian Journal of Education, 18(4), 1035–1065.

Kirby, D. A., & Ibrahim, N. (2013). Entrepreneurship Education Policies in the MENA Region (1): Challenges and Opportunities. American Journal of Entrepreneurship, 6(2).

Krueger Jr, N. F., & Brazeal, D. V. (1994). Entrepreneurial potential and potential entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurship theory and practice, 18(3), 91-104.

Krueger Jr, N. F., Reilly, M. D., & Carsrud, A. L. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. Journal of business venturing, 15(5-6), 411-432.

Liñán, F., Rodríguez-Cohard, J. C., & Rueda-Cantuche, J. M. (2011). Factors affecting entrepreneurial intention levels: A role for education. International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, 7(2), 195–218.





Matlay, H. (2008). The impact of entrepreneurship education on entrepreneurial outcomes. Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development, 15(2), 382–396. Moses, C., & Akinbode, M. (2014). Entrepreneurship Curriculum and Pedagogical Challenges in Captivating Students' Interest towards Entrepreneurship Education. Research Journal of Economics and Business Studies, 4(1), 1-10.

Mueller, S. (2011). Increasing entrepreneurial intention: Effective entrepreneurship course characteristics. International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business, 13(1), 55–74.

Mueller, S. (2011). Increasing entrepreneurial intention: Effective entrepreneurship course characteristics. International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business, 13(1), 55–74.

Neck, H. M., & Greene, P. G. (2011). Entrepreneurship education: known worlds and new frontiers. Journal of small business management, 49(1), 55-70. Peterman, N. E., & Kennedy, J. (2003). Enterprise Education: Influencing Students' Perceptions of Entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, 28(2), 129–144.

Piperopoulos, P., & Dimov, D. (2014). Burst bubbles or build steam. Entrepreneurship Education, Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy, and Entrepreneurial Intentions [-J~. Journal of Small Business Management. 2014: n/~ n/a.

Pittaway, L.,Cope, J. (2007): Entrepreneurship Education: A Systematic Review of the Evidence. International Small Business Journal, Vol. 25 (5), P. 479-510 Ruhle, S., Mühlbauer, D., Grünhagen, M., & Rothenstein, J. (2010). The heirs of Schumpeter: An insight view of students' entrepreneurial intentions at the Schumpeter School of Business and Economics (No. 2010-004). Schumpeter discussion papers.

Salamzadeh, A., Azimi, M. A., & Kirby, D. A. (2013). Social entrepreneurship education in higher education: insights from a developing country. International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business, 20(1), 17-34.

Shinnar, R. S., Giacomin, O., & Janssen, F. (2012). Entrepreneurial perceptions and intentions: The role of gender and culture. Entrepreneurship Theory and practice, 36(3), 465-493.





Soetanto, D. P., Pribadi, H., & Widyadana, G. A. (2010). Determinant Factors of Entrepreneurial Intention Among University Students. IUP Journal of Entrepreneurship Development, 7.

Souitaris, V., Zerbinati, S., & Al-Laham, A. (2007). Do entrepreneurship programmes raise entrepreneurial intention of science and engineering students? The effect of learning, inspiration and resources. Journal of Business venturing, 22(4), 566-591.

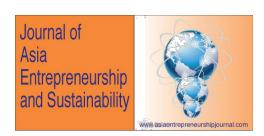
Tiwari, P., Bhat, A. K., & Tikoria, J. (2017). Predictors of social entrepreneurial intention: An empirical study. South Asian Journal of Business Studies, 6(1), 53–79.

Tiwari, P., Bhat, A. K., & Tikoria, J. (2017a). Relationship between Entrepreneurship Education and Entrepreneurial Intentions: A Validation Study. Tiwari, P., Bhat, A. K., & Tikoria, J. (2018). Factors affecting individual's intention to become a social entrepreneur. In Social Entrepreneurship and Sustainable Business Models (pp. 59-98). Palgrave Macmillan, Cham. Trivedi, R. (2016). Does university play significant role in shaping entrepreneurial intention? A cross-country comparative analysis. Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development, 23(3), 790–811. https://doi.org/10.1108/JSBED-10-2015-0149.

Van der Sluis, J., Van Praag, M., & Vijverberg, W. (2008). Education and entrepreneurship selection and performance: A review of the empirical literature. Journal of economic surveys, 22(5), 795-841.

van Praag, C.M., Vijverberg W., van der Sluis, J. (2008). Education and Entrepreneurship selection and performance: a review of the empirical literature. Journal of Economic Surveys, 22, (5), P.795-841.

Walter, S. G., & Dohse, D. (2009). The interplay between entrepreneurship education and regional knowledge potential in forming entrepreneurial intentions (No. 1549). Kiel working paper.



# Towards an Integrative Framework of Intrapreneurship by Focusing on Individual Level Competencies

Ekta Sinha
Jamnalal Bajaj Institute of Management Studies,
University of Mumbai, India
<a href="mailto:ektasinha26@gmail.com">ektasinha26@gmail.com</a>

#### Abstract

The individual intrapreneurial behavior (IIB), has become significant for the organizational growth. However, the extant literature on it is diffuse and there is an exigency for an integrated review of the competencies of intrapreneurial employees. Earlier research focused on the organizational level constructs, such as, top management support and structure; yet inquiries about focusing on individual level competencies are uncommon. Thus, there exists a lack of understanding on the observed variations in IIB levels between employees exposed to similar organizational conditions. This study by conducting a systematic review of literature presents an integrative framework of intrapreneurship (entrepreneurship within an organization), by focusing on individual competencies. Further, unlike existing literature which focus only on individuals' cognitive competence, it



identifies three broad categories of individual competencies- cognitive, actionoriented and affective- that lead to IIB. The framework presented takes into
account identified individual-level competencies, organizational-level factors and
organizational outcomes. By knowing more on IIB, we can identify the theoretical
and methodological limitations of the existing stream of literature and provide new
insights in addressing these limitations and moving the research agenda forward.
The findings of the study indicate that the intersection (soft-spot), of all the three
competencies (cognitive, affective and action-oriented) leads to IIB within
organizations and organizations must nurture the soft-spot to help employees work
on their novel ideas and display intrapreneurship. The study builds a ground for
further testing the linkages between factors of IIB and organizational dimensions.
Based on the results, it suggests a few future research directions and some ways to
nurture the soft-spot in order to encourage employees to innovate, adapt, create,
take risks, and to be proactive - in short: display Intrapreneurship for
organizational growth.

#### Introduction

Today, businesses feel the need for profound and rapid changes due to the dynamic environment in which they operate. There are numerous examples where organizations have enjoyed a large market share due to their innovations, but lost it. An example is Nokia, which came into being in 1865 and moved from



producing paper to tires and gum-boots and then to mobile phones (Lukes, 2012). Nokia - a Finland firm - led the cell phone revolution and within no time grew to have one of the best known and highest value brands around the globe. At its peak Nokia enjoyed a global market share of over 40 percent in mobile phones. While Nokia's rise to the top was quick, the reverse was similar. Nokia's CEO Jorma Ollila was progressively worried that fast development had resulted in a loss of flexibility and entrepreneurship. And in 2013, it all culminated in the sale of its mobile phone business to Microsoft. Nokia had probably failed to reinvent itself in the fast-changing market dynamics.

The probable answers to surviving in today's dynamic and competitive environments are adaptability, creativity, risk-taking abilities, proactivity, and innovativeness - in short: Intrapreneurship (Morris and Kuratko, 2002; Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001). Consequently, employees showing intrapreneurial conduct have been centrally positioned, as it has been underscored that certain individual competencies lead to IIB, which in turn leads to the firm's growth and strategic renewal (Veenker, Pvd Sijde, During & Nijhof, 2008). This emphasizes upon employees actively seeking opportunities and taking risks to introduce change (Ross, 1987). Most of the existing studies have discussed organizational factors which affect intrapreneurship, such as sponsorship, organizational culture, structure, support of top management (Block and MacMillan, 1993; Sharma and Chrisman, 1999) etc., but there has been comparatively less research on individual factors which lead to intrapreneurship within an organization. Also, there are a lot



of inconsistencies regarding the individual competencies which promote IIB, prompting the requirement for a systematic examination focused at this level. In view of the possibility that intrapreneurial employees and their human capital are keys to the organizational growth, individual competencies leading to IIB have been examined in close proximity in this work.

As the idea of intrapreneurship is based on varying theoretical concepts and viewpoints, the offerings in the field are splintered and utilize different definitions (e.g. Turro, Alvarez & Urbano, 2016). Thompson (1999) and Covin and Miles (1999), refer to Intrapreneurship as the set of actions that lead to opportunity identification and the creation of a new organization(s), by value addition which leads to competitive advantage. Sharma and Chrisman (1999), define intrapreneurship – also known as corporate entrepreneurship (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001) – as the procedure whereby an employee or a group of employees, in association with an existing organization, create a new organization or instigate renewal or innovation within that organization. Zahra (1991); Miles and Covin (2002) identify it as acquiring of procedures to restore and revive firms through the search and formation of business, creating or spearheading new products, services or procedures to guarantee increased income or benefit. There is no accord about the components of intrapreneurship, its antecedents or its determinants and conditions (Farrukh, Chong, Mansori & Ramzani, 2017; Urban and Wood, 2017). However, innovation and risk propensity remain common in all the definitions and most of the existing studies look at intrapreneurship as a result of individuals'



cognitive competence only, such as, innovation, risk taking and proactiveness (Morris and Kuratko, 2002; Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001; Miller, 1983). However, looking at IIB only through the lens of cognitive competence limits its scope and understanding. Further, it also restricts our understanding on the observed variations in IBI levels between employees exposed to similar organizational conditions. Therefore, research progress remains limited and diffused, and is still in its theoretical exploratory stage (Wiseman and Skilton, 1999). This study is an attempt to fill this gap by presenting a more comprehensive framework of IIB in order to further the understanding of individual intrapreneurship.

The contribution of this study is threefold. First, it focuses on the individual-level perspective, and centres on a domain which has been nearly dismissed in research as a different realm up to this point. The research reported in this paper investigates intrapreneurial employees and consequently gives an information base in this field of research. Second, due to the fragmented nature of the existing literature, there is a requirement for an integrative definition and framework that lay out a comprehensive view of intrapreneurship, how it is facilitated (by individual and organizational level factors) and related to organizational outcomes. By doing a systematic literature review (SLR), the study intends to fill this gap. Third, the research brings up ways for future comprehensive research approaches in this field.



## Research objectives:

- 1. To present a comprehensive framework for individual intrapreneurial behavior (IIB)
- 2. To further the understanding of intrapreneurship by providing a new overarching definition and presenting an integrated framework of it.
- 3. To present researchers with a ground to test and validate the linkages between dimensions of intrapreneurship on the basis of the integrative framework.
- 4. Based on the findings and existing practices, suggest some ways to nurture the soft-spot

The paper is further structured as follows: The methodology section gives the details about the hunt and determination of the articles utilized in this SLR. The next segment is sorted into five parts: (1) Importance and theoretical foundation of intrapreneurship, (2) Individual level competencies for intrapreneurship, (3) Identification of the soft-spot, (4) The integrative framework of intrapreneurship, (5) The analysis of the different definitions of intrapreneurship. Then the paper presents the future research directions and discusses the ways to nurture the soft-spot based on research findings and existing practices.

## Methodology



This study is based on the systematic review of extant literature. This review has been conducted to provide a grounding from which a framework can be developed that covers the dimensions and characteristics of IIB which lead to intrapreneurship. The initial readings helped in making decisions about the suitability of material to be considered in the review (Cooper, 1988). The literature review was based on the steps proposed by Tranfield, Denyer & Smart (2003), which included: (1) distinguishing proof of research, (2) choice of studies, (3) evaluation of the nature of the papers, (4) information extraction and (5) synthesis of information.

#### Motivation for the Research

The author was working on a project on intrapreneurship. While searching the literature the author came across certain works (e.g. Covin and Miles, 1999; Misra and Kumar, 2000; Zampetakis, Beldekos & Moustakis, 2009a), which identified some characteristics (such as: emotional intelligence, networking, rejuvenation and dissatisfaction from status-quo) which were related to individual intrapreneurial behavior leading to intrapreneurship. However, these characteristics appear as inconsequential while discussing IIB and intrapreneurship in the extant literature. Exploring the contribution of these individual-level competencies was necessary to further the understanding on the observed variations in MI levels between employees exposed to similar organizational conditions. This emerged as a gap (Table I). Hence, this study.

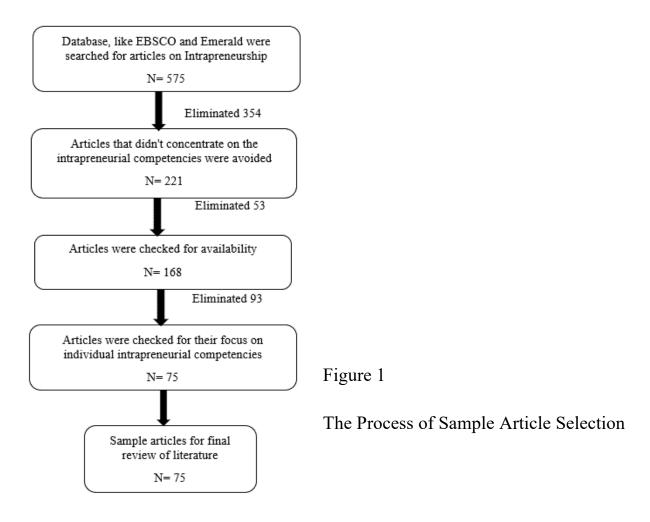


## Keyword Search

To fill the gap (Table I), literature was searched using composite-words like-"emotional-intelligence and intrapreneurship", "emotional capabilities and intrapreneurship", "networking and intrapreneurship" etc., with the Boolean operator 'and'. Also, to understand the existing knowledge on IIB, keywords like, "intrapreneur" OR "corporate entrepreneur" OR "employee entrepreneurial behavior" OR "professional entrepreneur", were also searched. Databases like Web of science, Emerald, EBSCO, Google Scholar and ResearchGate were used to search the articles. Total 575 articles were identified. The articles described intrapreneurship either as an organizational-level issue or an individual-level issue. To meet the research objectives of this study, only those articles that related this issue to individual employee competencies were included. Articles that did not concentrate on the intrapreneurial competencies were avoided. The rejected articles tended to focus on either (1) corporate entrepreneurship on an organizational level, i.e., innovative action in the organization in general without reference to the individual representation, (2) the connection between a parent organization and its auxiliaries, (3) the procedure of entrepreneurship in organizations, (4) business visionaries or CEOs or (5) privately-owned companies or family business. After this round, 221 articles remained. Another 53 articles had to be rejected as the full papers were not accessible in the open space. Finally, 168 articles were taken up for a full paper check, in which they were examined for significance. During this procedure another 93 articles were rejected due to the fact that they did not



concentrate on the individual intrapreneurial competencies and discussed more of environmental impact on organizational entrepreneurship. Finally, 75 articles were utilized for detailed investigation. The investigation of these 75 articles was utilized to present a comprehensive framework of IIB and an integrated model of intrapreneurship (Figure 1) and to define intrapreneurship. These 75 articles displayed high relevance and research rigor.



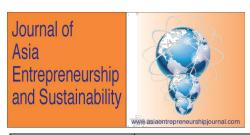
Page 114



These articles appeared in top journals such as, Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice, Management Decision, Entrepreneurship Research Journal and Journal of Business Venturing to name a few. Some notable works have been listed in Table I.

Table I: List of Major Works and Gap Identification

Notable work	Characteristics Mentioned as	Emphasis	Gap
	related to IIB		
Miller (1983)	Proactiveness, risk and innovation	Emphasis on considers cognitive competence	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies
(Kuratko and Montagno (1989)	Risk and innovation	Emphasis on cognitive competence	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies
Zahra (1991)	innovate, take risk, and seize opportunities	Emphasis on cognitive competence	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies
Lumpkin and Dess (1996)	autonomy, innovativeness, risk taking, proactiveness, and competitive aggressiveness	competency	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies
Covin and Miles (1999)	Innovation and the rejuvenation and redefinition	Focus shifts to actions but still lacks affective element	Missing affective competence
Sharma and Chrisman (1999)	Innovation	Emphasis on cognitive competence	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies
Antoncic and Hisrich, (2001)	Proactiveness, risk, innovation and self-renewal	Emphasis on cognitive	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies
Miles and Covin (2002)	Innovation, risk and focus	Emphasis on cognitive competence	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies
Morris and Kuratko (2002)	Adaptability, creativity, risk-taking abilities, proactivity, and innovativeness	Emphasis on cognitive competence	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies
Felicio, Rodrigues & Caldeirinha, (2012)	Innovation, risk propensity, proactiveness, competitive energy and autonomy	Emphasis on cognitive competence	Missing affective and action-oriented competencies



Chen, Chang, &	Creativity, risk-taking and ability to	Emphasis on cognitive	Missing affective
Chang, 2015	form social network	and action-oriented	competence
		competence	
Neessen, Caniels,	1 1 2	1 0	C
Vos & de Jong,	proactiveness, opportunity	and action-oriented	competence
(2018)	recognition and networking	competence	

## Descriptive Analysis

After determining the suitability of the articles, they were summarized and major themes (such as characteristics of IIB, organizational factors affecting intrapreneurship and organizational outcomes of intrapreneurship) were recorded in an Excel sheet in order to present the data in a meaningful way (Jesson, Matheson & Lacey, 2011; Webster and Watson, 2002). From a methodology perspective, the articles were segregated into those covering qualitative or quantitative research. While 22 articles reported qualitative research, most articles (53), reported the use of a quantitative method and most often utilized questionnaire technique, sometimes employing an existing database.

#### Results

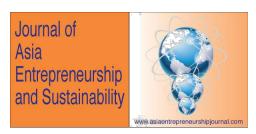
Importance of Intrapreneurship for Organizations

IIB includes all the activities related to discovery, assessment and exploitation of entrepreneurial opportunities (Cornwall and Perlman, 1990; Kuratko et al., 2005), within organizations by individuals, which lead to intrapreneurship.



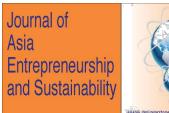


Intrapreneurship helps in building competitive advantage through radical or incremental innovation (Covin and Miles, 1999), thus, helps firms to achieve a premium on their stock prices. Covin and Miles (1999), also suggested that activities of intrapreneurship help in organic as well as inorganic growth of the organizations which lead to strategic renewal, scope redefinition, organizational rejuvenation and sustained regeneration for the firm (Covin and Miles, 1999). Small ideas when implemented in large numbers within organizations, help in building long-term capacity, which can be difficult to copy. Intrapreneurship is not only about investing heavily on products or services, but novel ideas can bring positive change(s) to any part of the value chain (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001). While, there is a lot that we know about what intrapreneurship can do to the organizations (Table III describes the organizational output), there is comparatively less knowledge about individual level factors which add up to it, and how organizations can nurture such behavior among individuals working for them. Thus, it is important to understand those factors which influence IIB. The study adds to the body of literature by presenting IIB as an integration of cognitive, affective and action-oriented competencies, and puts forth a framework (Figure 2), which has a better capacity to explain the phenomenon of individual intrapreneurial behavior. The outcome has further been used to present an integrative framework of intrapreneurship, and helped the author to re-define it for better understanding of the construct.



# Theoretical Perspective on Intrapreneurship

Sample articles included in the study employed diverse theoretical frameworks and viewpoints to examine IIB. Most of the articles rested on more than one theoretical model. Only three sample studies lacked a clarification of the theoretical framework. Some of the articles were rooted in the seminal work of Pinchot (1985) and some used the work of Antoncic and Hisrich (2003), as they explained the concept of intrapreneurship and built a framework for it, just as elements of organizational-level intrapreneurship. Some studies used the work of Kanter (1984), as she underscored the importance of individual intrapreneurial initiatives within organizations. Some the articles used for analysis applied varied lenses and theories to examine intrapreneurship. Five theories presented here were applied in most of the studies: 1) The Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB)- this theory by Ajzen (1985, 1991), is relevant for analyzing employees' intrapreneurial intensions. It is assumed that intentions predict human behavior. In view of the assumption that attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioral controls impact intentions, intrapreneurship research has endeavored to summarize intrapreneurial intentions (Douglas and Fitzsimmons, 2013; Tietz and Parker, 2012). 2) Motivation Theories- sample articles examined the role of motivational factors for encouraging innovative behavior amongst individuals within established organizations (Bicknell, Francis-Smythe, & Arthur, 2010). Additionally, different motives, e.g. financial and independence, have been probed with regard to individual intrapreneurial behavior. 3) Social learning theory-Bandura (1986),



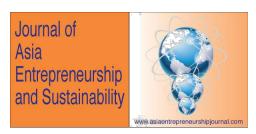


proposed this theory which suggests that the learning of innovative behavior is a cognitive procedure rooted in a social setting and happens through observation and emulation of others. The theory advocates that there is a mutual and complimentary connection between cognition, behavior and environment (Blanka, 2019). An individual's perceived ability to display certain behaviors or realize certain assignments is influenced by prowess, skills, their application and the response on applying these skills. 4) Complexity theory- according to this theory (Stacey, 1995), stability, instability and bounded instability are, the fundamental properties of innovative and creative systems. Organizations are complex systems, with established hierarchies and systems. However, they do change over time (from stability to instability to bounded instability) in order to respond to the changing internal and external environment. And innovations which try to set new standards within existing systems are also complex procedure. Thus, to display intrapreneurial conduct, individuals must operate away from equilibrium. They must learn to embrace the state of paradox where stability and instability come together (Stacy, 1995). 5) Human capital theory-this theory was proposed by Becker (1964), and examines general (skills, knowledge and experiences) and specific (refers to context-specific situation) human capital related to individual intrapreneurial behavior. Parker (2011) showed that general human capital heads to entrepreneurial activities within and outside organizations. Bjornali and Støren (2012), showed that while professional/creative competencies and communicative/championing competencies enhance the individuals' likelihood of



instigating novelty at work, competencies related to efficiency and productivity do not (Neessen et al., 2019; Urbano and Turro, 2013), suggested that specific human capital like ability to recognize opportunity differentiates intrapreneurs from normal employees (Martiarena, 2013).

Besides these theoretical frameworks, the researchers also employed different definitions of intrapreneurship. Considering the lack of a common definition, journal articles examined and specified intrapreneurship differently (Blanka, 2019). Most (57) of the sample studies looked at intrapreneurship within the organizational context by defining it as "entrepreneurship within existing organizations" or "entrepreneurial activities within the organizational context". This is in line with Pinchot's argument which suggests that organizational context in particular differentiates entrepreneurship from intrapreneurship (Neessen et al., 2019). A further criterion is the origin of intrapreneurial initiatives (Blanka, 2019; Neessen et al., 2019). In this regard, some research (29) distinctly posited intrapreneurship as a "bottom-up" approach, demonstrating that intrapreneurial pursuits emerge from individuals/employees themselves. These studies posited that employees play an important role in accomplishing intrapreneurial activities. Other studies (14) underline the relevance of individuals to intrapreneurship without using the term "bottom up".



## Individual Intrapreneurial Behavior

In today's competitive world it is very necessary for organizations to cope up with the changing consumer preferences and demands. Thus, the display of entrepreneurship within organizations- be it public sector, private or any other- is a vital and comprehensive necessity (Thompson, 1999). Intrapreneurship is an arduous concept to pin point, due to the lack of a comprehensive framework to describe and predict the actual phenomena whose primary feature is business creation (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000). It is a process by which individuals within an organization pursue economic opportunities (Shane and Venkataraman, 2000), regardless of the firm's size, area of function, and activities involved (Miller, 1983; Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001). According to the research conducted by Covin and Miles (1999), display of entrepreneurial behavior at the organization level can be regarded as a new competitive advantage. While there is a lot that has been studied about how organizational factors like sponsorship, organizational culture, structure, support of top management (Block and MacMillan, 1993; Sharma and Chrisman, 1999) etc. affect intrapreneurship, less works put forth the variation in competencies of individual employee's intrapreneurial behavior underlying the "bottom-up" process of executing new ideas and innovations (Neessen et al., 2019). It could be asserted that IIB precedes organizational-level intrapreneurship (Ajzen 1991; Fellnhofer, Puumalainen & Sjogren, 2016). Amongst the scant studies dedicated towards discussing individual-level competencies of intrapreneurship, and regardless of whether the definition was



individually based or organizationally based (Neessen et al., 2019), most of them look at intrapreneurship, only as a result of cognitive competency such as, innovation, risk-taking and pro-activeness (Miller, 1983; Brzozowski, Cucculelli, & Peruzzi, 2018), which is a restricted view. The present study fills this gap by combining "affective" and "action-oriented" competencies along with cognitive competency (Figure 2), and using it as a proper lens to understand individual intrapreneurial behavior (IIB), and intrapreneurship.

Individual-level factors promoting intrapreneurship: Identifying the Soft-Spot

The challenge for today's organizations is to gain competitive advantage that must be additionally recreated through the inception and execution of new ideas or else they may lose the market hold; like Nokia profited for many years from an innovative advantage, but was replaced by a better innovation- Apple.

Intrapreneurship has always been considered as a set of activities which require risk-taking behavior, proactiveness and innovation (Miller, 1983). These characteristics when viewed as individuals' abilities, represent Cognitive competence which requires creative thinking, making inferences, coordination of multiple views etc. (Sun & Hui, 2006). However, focusing only on an individual's cognitive competency may not lead to the desired and long-lasting results. An organization is a place where everything is ordered, under managerial control. Developing and identifying entrepreneurial opportunities in such a controlled and ordered environment is a complex task. According to complexity theory





(Anderson, 1999; Lewin, 1999; Stacey, 1995), stability (ordered hierarchical structure, rules, procedures etc.), instability (patterns of behavior that are unpredictable because of environmental uncertainties) and bounded instability (organizational behavior may not be possible to predict in advance, over the long term it develops uniformity or structure) are the fundamental properties of innovative and creative systems and "In order to produce creative, innovative, continually changeable behavior, individuals within systems must operate far from equilibrium where they are driven by negative and positive feedback to paradoxical states of stability and instability, predictability and unpredictability" (Stacey, 1995, p. 478). Thus, IIB requires much more than risk-taking behavior, proactiveness and innovation. Some authors have probed demographic factors anticipating the intrapreneurial conduct of the individual employee. However, research relating demographic factors and IIB showed somewhat vague results. Such as, studies based on education and age showed negative relationship with innovation (Camelo-Ordaz, Fernandez-Alles, Ruiz-Navarro & Sousa-Ginel, 2012), conversely, other study showed that significant levels of education increased the probability of intrapreneurship (Urbano and Turro 2013). One approach used personality traits to examine IIB (Williamson, Lounsbury & Han, 2013). Sinha and Srivastava (2013), inspected the influence of personality traits and work values on IIB (the authors call it intrapreneurial orientation). Their research showed positive association between intrapreneurial orientation and extraversion, while a negative association was prominent between neuroticism and intrapreneurial orientation



(Neessen et al., 2019). Research based on entrepreneurial value revealed that the work values of altruism, persistence, creativity, optimism and risk-taking can influence IIB (Camelo-Ordaz et al., 2012; Zhu, Djurjagina & Leker, 2014). The limitation of such research focusing on personality is the static character of traits (Blanka, 2019). Bjornali and Støren (2012), showed that while creative competencies and championing competencies increased the employees' probability of introducing innovations at work, competencies related to efficiency and productivity did not (Neessen et al., 2019). They also highlighted the relevance of a third competency, i.e. brokering. Employees with brokering competencies were able to combine knowledge with organizational knowledge, social capital and networking skills (Neessen et al., 2019). Urbano and Turro (2013), suggested that the ability to recognize opportunity differentiates intrapreneurs from normal employees (Martiarena, 2013). Besides competence like risk-taking, proactiveness, innovation, ability to recognise opportunity and networking skills, some of the sample studies (12), pointed out the importance of emotional intelligence (EI) in displaying IIB. Research by Bahadori (2012), showed that individuals who have a good understanding of emotions can use it in order to act intrapreneurial (Sinha, 2017). Foo (2011), stated that emotions influence risk perceptions and preferences which are associated with entrepreneurial behavior. Zampetakis, Kafetsios, Bouranta, Dewett & Moustakis, (2009b), showed that emotional self-efficacy is positively related to proactivity (Crant, 1996) and creativity (Amabile et al., 2005), and all these traits in turn are related to entrepreneurial intentions. Emotional



intelligence was likewise identified with condition of affectivity and emotional reactivity well beyond personality traits (Mikolajczak, Luminet & Menil, 2006). In addition, there is proof that positive temperaments increment mindfulness and improve the extent and adaptability of reasoning (Isen, 1999), which has been found as a necessary condition of intrapreneurship.

While all entrepreneurial processes begin with an idea of creating something new (Schumpeter, 1934)- cognitive competency- it is difficult to execute it without managing one's emotional arousal (Goleman, 1998)- affective competency- and individual's intensions and actions (Misra and Kumar, 2000)- action-oriented competency. Only the intersection- the soft-spot- of all these three competencies (Figure 2), would result into a long-lasting culture of IIB, thus leading to intrapreneurship and making business sustainable and profitable (Felicio, Rodrigues & Caldeirinha, 2012).



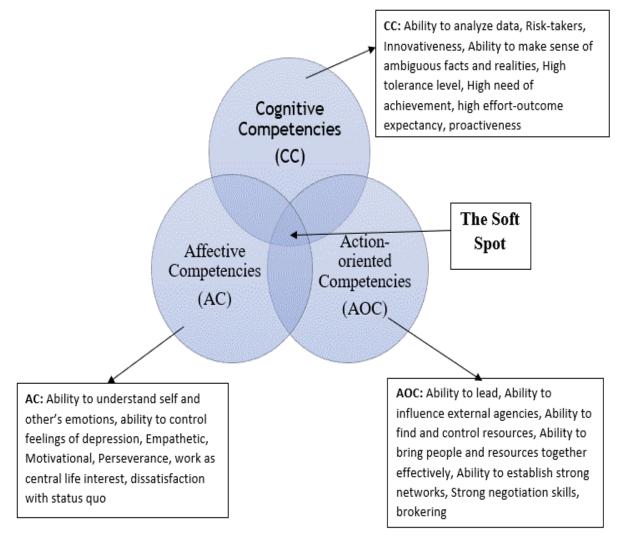


Figure 2: Individual-level Factors Leading to Individual Intrapreneurship Behavior and The 'Soft-spot'. Source: Adapted from Misra and Kumar, 2000



The first competency which leads to IIB is cognitive competency which refers to the effective management of one's beliefs, expectations and thought processes. According to Schumpeter (1934), all entrepreneurial processes begin with an idea of creating something new, and high expectancies lead to noteworthy exertion while low hope causes the opposite (Vroom, 1964). While information about the market(s), stakeholders (customer, suppliers etc.) is scattered in the environment, not everyone is able to analyze and make sense of it. Individuals with cognitive competence have the ability to analyze and make sense of large volumes of information (Misra and Kumar, 2000). Unlike most of us, who feel that there exist not many entrepreneurial opportunities, because if they did someone would have already seen them; entrepreneurs possess a unique perspective and see opportunities worth pursuing (Misra and Kumar, 2000). Also, risk taking ability and tolerance to uncertainty are two of the important components of cognitive competence. Colton and Udell (1976), discovered that as for the probability of beginning a business, the risk scale is a superior indicator compared to n'Ach and internal locus of control. The right amount of risk taken by individuals leads to increased returns for organizations (Birkinshaw, Bouquet, & Barsoux, 2011).

The affective competency is the second competency which leads to IIB. It refers to the management of one's emotional arousal. Simon (1987) suggested that under stress, our primitive urges take control of our behavior. Beglay and Boyd (1985) found that entrepreneurs are driven by the competitive desire to excel and succeed. According to Dubin (1956), work-oriented central life interest motivates



individuals to carry out their activities in given institutional settings, which helps them display intrapreneurial behavior. Also, dissatisfaction or frustration with the status quo leads to intrapreneurship (Brockhaus, 1982). Such dissatisfaction allows individuals to persevere at their goal, face hostile environments and overcome barriers to start with (Misra and Kumar, 2000). Hence, management of one's emotional arousal becomes very important in order to channelize energy towards innovation and new venture creation.

The third competency is action-oriented competency. This refers to the management of individual intensions and actions that lead to IIB. The job of an entrepreneur calls that she or he interconnect with various outside agencies like suppliers, government, resellers and investors, as networking abilities will help in finding and obtaining the necessary resources vital for venture survival (Birley, 1985). Within organizations, individuals should be able to allocate scarce resources properly and should be able to interact and network with various internal and external agencies in order to cultivate entrepreneurial behavior. Also, ability to take charge and lead employees in addition to being the driving force behind the creation and establishment of a new venture within the organization are important components of action-oriented competency (Misra and Kumar, 2000). Individuals with this competency may take control of the strategic resources (such as capital and raw materials) necessary for driving new venture creation within the organization, thus displaying IIB (Dollinger, 1995). The person's very own network (Urbano and Turro 2013), networking skills (Gwynne and Wolff, 2005)



and connections outside the organizations' limits (Bicknell et al., 2010) appear to be important individual competencies of individual intrapreneurs.

The above discussion clearly indicates that the intersection of all the three competencies (the soft- spot), is important to add actual value to the processes within organizations to make them innovative and sustainable.

Organizations must understand that in addition to "cognitive" competency, they must also nurture "affective" and "action-oriented" competencies of individuals/employees. Organizations must pay due attention to developing a conducive environment where emoting, initiating change(s) and conducting the first experiment may become easy for individuals/employees. By extending support to intrapreneurs so that they are able to connect with various outside agencies like the suppliers, government, resellers and investors, organizations could ensure skillful networking abilities, which would help in locating and acquiring the vital resources important for venture survival (Birley, 1985). Hence, organizations must make sure that they provide their employees with opportunities to lead, support them in their ideas and provide them with necessary resources to work with, hence extending organizational support to individuals.

An organizational-level lens on intrapreneurship

In light of the assumption that individual-level enterprises, are as important as organizational-level methodologies to empower intrapreneurship (Åmo and



Kolvereid 2005), a second stream of investigation offers an organizational-level focal point on intrapreneurship (Table II). One of the categories is management support. Receiving management support is vital to the employees ready to pursue intrapreneurial exercises as it encourages and advances intrapreneurship (Marvel, Griffin, Hebda & Vojak, 2007; Sebora, Theerapatvong & Lee, 2010). It supports and empowers employees and acknowledges that their intrapreneurial pursuits include some risk-taking (Kelley and Lee, 2010; Kuratko, Montagno & Hornsby, 1990), and standardization within the organization (Garcia-Morales et al., 2014). Moreover, organizational-related promoters offer a fitting physical condition that makes for physical proximity and invigorates different facets of collaboration, besides a diminished red tape culture to guarantee information sharing and collaborative ideation (Menzel, Aaltio & Ulijn, 2007). Menzel et al. (2007), also highlighted the need for action-orientated methods as prominent tools in preparing employees for intrapreneurship. Parker (2011), asserts that potential intrapreneurs do not show enthusiasm in entrepreneurship until the management, for instance, presents a fitting opportunity.

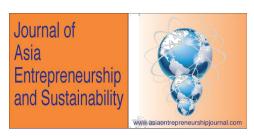


Table II: Organizational-Level Factors Influencing Intrapreneurship

Organizational-Level factors	Associated Variables	Notable Work
Management Support	Permission, managerial support, encouragement	Åmo and Kolvereid 2005; Sebora, Theerapatvong & Lee, 2010
Organizational Structure	Flexibility, organizational structure, support, formalization	Marvel, Griffin, Hebda & Vojak, 2007; Globocnik and Salomo 2015
Organizational Culture	Recognition, empowerment, experimentation, freedom to think, risk-taking culture	Hagedorn and Jamieson 2014; Kirby 2006
Rewards and Recognition	Rewards, cash, promotions, bonus, appreciation	Kuratko and Montagno 1989; Urban and Nikolov 2013
Work Autonomy	Employee discretion, Job autonomy, Work design	Hornsby, Kuratko, Shepherd & Bott, 2009; Kelley and Lee 2010
Resources	Time and financial support, availability	Neessen et. al., (2019); Marvel et al. 2007

The second sub-category is organizational structure. When the organizational structure is flexible, it allows open flow of communication throughout the organization, giving systems that permit ideas to be assessed, chosen and executed, that are emphatically identified with intrapreneurship (Castrogiovanni, Urbano, & Loras, 2011; Marvel et al., 2007). The degree of formalization due to organizational structure is seen as firmly related to job satisfaction and self-efficacy (Duygulu and Kurgun, 2009; Globocnik and Salomo, 2015). However, Kuratko and Montagno (1989), referred that numerous standards may also repress IIB. Also, the level of autonomy given to employees in their work influences the IIB. Providing the employee, the opportunity to structure his/her work and to decentralize the decision-making process increasingly brings about IIB (Sebora et al., 2010), and increases the self-efficacy of employees (Globocnik and Salomo,



2015). The role of middle managers has also been found to be important in influencing IIB within organizations (Sinha, 2017).

Organizational culture is also very important to promote intrapreneurship. Authors have posited that the expansion of an intrapreneurial ethos permits organizations to encourage an intrapreneurship culture and further uplifts organizational growth (Hagedorn and Jamieson, 2014). It is important to encourage a broad mindset in intrapreneurs, so that they can collaborate and produce ideas across organizational limits. And for this the culture required is characterized by experimentation, a creative outlook and opportunities for continuous learning and nonstop refinement (Hagedorn and Jamieson, 2014; Kirby, 2006; Menzel et al., 2007).

Similarly, rewards and reinforcement should also resonate with organizational goals and should be result-driven (Marvel et al., 2007; Sebora et al., 2010). Reinforcement & rewards enhances the readiness of an individual/employee to exhibit intrapreneurial conduct (Monsen, Patzelt & Saxton, 2010; Urban and Nikolov, 2013). Besides being predictors of job satisfaction (Van Wyk and Adonisi, 2008), rewards also increase employee commitment (Brazeal, 1993).

Availability of right resources such as time and financial resources (Neessen, Caniels, Vos & de Jong, 2019), is also very crucial besides management support, organizational structure, autonomy and rewards/reinforcements. Puech and Durand (2017) suggested that the quality of time is of higher importance than the real amount of time, particularly during the probing phase in which it is not always



clear what activities the intrapreneur ought to embrace (Neessen et al., 2019). Other antecedents at the organizational level also included propensity to absorb risk, and climate within the organization.

An organizational outcome lens on intrapreneurship

The next segment of research which emerged in the field of intrapreneurship applied an outcome perspective on it (Table III). Many studies have identified possible outcomes of intrapreneurial conduct. These outcome variables included strategic renewal, innovation, organizational performance and individual growth (e.g. Baggen, Lans, Biemans, Kampen & Mulder, 2016; Rigtering and Weitzel, 2013). Table III, lists those outcome variables that this study used more than once in the data set. Based on earlier work, Rigtering and Weitzel (2013) developed a two-step model of intrapreneurship. According to the model, to begin with intrapreneurship is invigorated by the organization, as employees can distinguish and create opportunities (intrapreneurial behavior). As a subsequent step, the employees are effectively associated with novel ideas (intrapreneurship). While investigating formal and non-formal work settings, the authors put forth that horizontal aspects of work participation, resource availability and vested trust in employees lead to significant levels of IIB. They showed that work context indirectly affects intrapreneurship, namely through individual-level factors, such as innovative workplace behavior and personal initiative (Neessen et al., 2019; Blanka, 2019). Most of these outcome variables were estimated on an individual



level (in 13 sample studies), for instance, by inquiring as to whether the participants are right now attempting to set up a venture or have been engaged with the advancement of projects (Urbano and Turro, 2013; Urbano, Alvarez & Turro, 2013). Another instance is from Baggen et al. (2016), who explored the connection between the activities undertaken by an intrapreneurial employee and the number of the participant's ideas adopted by management. Bager, Ottósson & Schott (2010), further segmented intrapreneurs into four subcategories: project intrapreneurs, venture intrapreneurs, spin-off entrepreneurs and independent entrepreneurs. (Neessen, et al., 2019). Their outcomes showed that intrapreneurs are increasingly experienced and growth oriented and they rapidly accomplish better performance than their independent counterparts (Blanka, 2019). In addition, the authors estimate that these four sub-categories need further examination and that management support appears to play a key role (Neessen et al., 2019).



Table III: Organizational Outcomes Due to Intrapreneurship

Notable Work	Organizational Outcomes due to Intrapreneurship
Hornsby, Kuratko & Zahra, 2002	Product Innovation
Guth and Ginsberg, 1990	Strategy Renewal
Damanpour, 1991	New Market exploration
Sharma and Chrisman, 1999	Rejuvenation and Restructuring
Zahra, 1991	Productivity and Growth
Covin and Miles, 1999	Sustained Competitive Advantage
Kakati, 2003	New Venture Creation
Shane and Venkataraman, 2000	Premium on Stock Prices

All of these studies concentrated on either individual-level intrapreneurial outcomes or organizational-level outcomes and failed to institute a relationship between individual-level outcomes and organizational-level outcomes. Such outcomes show that the link between IIB and the outcomes of such behavior has not yet been explored in depth (Neessen et al., 2019). However, these results do posit that the intrapreneurial-level outcomes reflected in the various definitions of intrapreneurship (new business venturing, new product innovation, rejuvenation and restructuring and self-renewal etc.) are, though restricted, also used in investigation (Neessen et al., 2019).

Defining intrapreneurship and presenting an integrative framework for it



Intrapreneurship, a term popularized by Pinchot (1985) is a multifaceted construct. Three of the most widely recognized situations that are frequently seen as instances of intrapreneurship include circumstances where (1) an "established" organization enters a new business; (2) an individual or individuals espouse new product ideas within a corporate context; and (3) an "entrepreneurial" philosophy pervades a whole organization's outlook and operations (Covin and Miles, 1999). These phenomena are not fundamentally unrelated constructs, but may exist together as discrete components of entrepreneurial activity inside a single organization. However, this study focuses on only individuals and their competencies which lead to intrapreneurship. The study presents an integrative framework of Intrapreneurship (Figure 3), which incorporates all the three individual level competencies along with organizational level factors, necessary to achieve desired organizational outcomes and display resilience in the uncertain environment in which businesses operate.



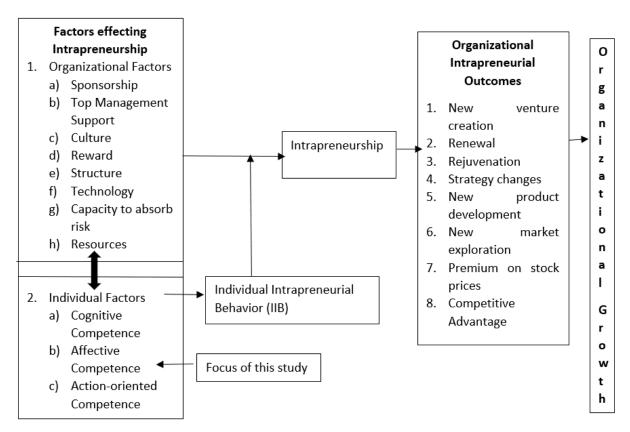


Figure 3: The Integrative Framework of Intrapreneurship

This was imperative as many authors have been paying a lot of attention to intrapreneurship (e.g. Pinchot, 1985; Guth & Ginsberg, 1990; Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001), but unfortunately there has been a lack of consistency in the manner in which this activity has been defined, especially with regard to the individual dimensions necessary for it. According to Pinchot (1985), Intrapreneurs





are any of the "dreamers who do.", those who accept hands-on responsibility for nurturing novelty of any kind inside an organization. They might be the makers or inventors yet are consistently the dreamers who make sense of out how to transform an idea into a gainful reality. However, "Increased consensus has been attained on the concept of intrapreneurship as the process of uncovering and developing an opportunity to create value through innovation and seizing that opportunity without regard to either resources (human and capital) or the location of the intrapreneur—in a new or existing company" (Churchill 1992, p. 586). Fischer (2011), characterizes intrapreneurship as a procedure of corporate renewal in established firms, while many other investigators depict the construct as bottomup, proactive work-related activities of individual employees who can transform ideas into business success (Moriano, Molero, Topa & Mangin, 2014; Pinchot, 1987). While all of these definitions primarily focus on innovation, they are indicative towards the outcome of intrapreneurship (e.g. creating innovation, new venture etc.), rather than focusing on individual dimensions. And, strikingly all the definitions lay emphasis on the cognitive competence of individuals, thus presenting a constrained view. Also, it is important to understand that while individual competencies are important to display intrapreneurship, organizational factors like sponsorship, organizational culture, structure, support of top management (Block and MacMillan, 1993; Sharma and Chrisman, 1999) etc. also play an important role. The combination of these two would lead to sustained



competitive advantage (Figure 3), through intrapreneurship. Hence, on the basis of the discussion presented above, the study attempts to define intrapreneurship as:

Intrapreneurship is the process in which with the help of cognitive, affective and action-oriented competencies, individuals (employees), create value for their existing organizations. The integration of these three individual competencies in combination with organizational factors (e.g. top management support, organizational structure etc.), results into innovation, self-renewal, new venture creation and sustained competitive advantage for organizations.

The above new definition accentuates the contrast between the organizational and individual angles which lead to intrapreneurship. By combining the individual-level and organizational-level outcomes of intrapreneurship, this definition reflects the multifaceted nature of it.

## Future research agenda

This systematic literature review (SLR), revealed that research related to intrapreneurship is a rising field. Extant studies have barely centered around the individual intrapreneur's perspective. To close this research gap, this paper used a focused approach with emphasis on intrapreneurship at the individual level. The findings of the study elicited competencies of an individual which lead to



individual intrapreneurial behavior. The study also elicited those organizational constructs that encouraged and supported the employee to act intrapreneurially. These outcomes were utilized to define intrapreneurship and build an integrative model for it. Future research should add to testing this model. In light of the SLR, the following research directions have been discussed.

First of all, the findings of this SLR should be used by the researchers to examine the connections among the factors recognized in the models (Figure 2 and Figure 3). Both the models provide a comprehensive overview of issues that could be further taken up in an empirical study. The models put forth IIB and intrapreneurship as multifaceted constructs. It would be compelling to investigate the relationship between competencies of IIB and the intrapreneurial outcomes. The extant literature shows no explicit validation of how IIB guides to intrapreneurial outcomes on an individual level and eventually on an organizational level, despite the fact that the link between the intrapreneur and the organization is the thing that makes an intrapreneur an intrapreneur (Neessen et al., 2019). From previous research, it has been found that organizational performance is significantly related to the organization-level factors (Covin, Green, & Slevin, 2006; Wiklund and Shepherd, 2005). However, the sample articles either researched the connection between IIB and individual discharge, or between IIB and organizational performance, but not the synthesis of IIB, individual output and organizational intrapreneurial outcomes.



Second, this research presented an overarching view of individual-level competencies (Cognitive, affective and action-oriented), which lead to IIB. Future research may investigate the impact of organizational-level factors on the individual competencies (Figure 2) identified in this study, which lead to IIB. Researchers may also want to know the moderating role of organizational-level factors between the individual competencies and IIB. The organizational-level factors are mostly job resources (Neessen et al., 2019), however there is very limited research that is related to job demands, such as stress, work pressure, emotional demands, uncertainty and burnout, in relation to intrapreneurship. Such job demands may be threatening to IIB.

Third, comprehensive research can be carried out in order to identify the antecedents of intrapreneurship based on this SLR findings. It is possible that the individual's attitude, satisfaction, motivation, emotional self-efficacy etc. may influence the amount of intention someone may have to display intrapreneurial behavior. As per the sample studies these variables have been associated with intrapreneurship at an organizational level (Antoncic and Antoncic, 2011; Giannikis and Nikandrou, 2013).

Fourth, a future direction can be to develop a measurement tool which focuses on individual-level intrapreneurship, as according to Neessen et al. (2019), organizational factors are already incorporated into a measurement tool called the Corporate Entrepreneurship Assessment Instrument (CEAI), a measurement



instrument constructed by Hornsby, Kuratko & Zahra (2002). Some researchers have already combined the three behaviors – innovativeness, proactiveness and risk-taking – in one measurement scale (Moriano et al., 2014). However, based on this review, it can be concluded that these three constructs only constitute cognitive competence and thus, alone they are not enough to measure the IIB. The other two competencies- affective and action-oriented- should be included in the measurement scale in order to get the comprehensive picture. Also, there is a need to develop a generalized scale to measure the construct of intrapreneurship, which can be used in the cross-cultural studies (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2001).

Fifth, research agenda could be to further the comprehension of intrapreneurship within firms, by adopting the integrated view that focuses on intrapreneurship in union with corporate entrepreneurship. This can provide interesting perspectives into how these two concepts strengthen individual intrapreneurial behavior within firms. This approach can lead to a better understanding of the top-down and bottom-up approach of intrapreneurship.

Sixth, based on the results of this study the impact of coaching and simulation can be studied on the three individual competencies which lead to IIB. Sample studies in our data set showed that developmental support in the form of coaching, mentoring and advice is an important promoting factor (e.g. Neessen et. al., 2019) of individual intrapreneurial behavior. This enables individuals to think across organizational barriers to push strategic renewal and innovation. Pinchot (1985)



posited that individuals' capability to deliberate across distinct organizational unit boundaries is critical.

### Ways to nurture the soft-spot

On the basis of the study findings and the existing practices, the author would like to suggest some ways that can be adopted and practiced by the organizations in order to nurture the soft-spot (intersection of three individual competencies) to foster individual intrapreneurial behavior to promote Intrapreneurship. They are discussed below: -

# Build capabilities

Today organizations face scarcity of resources and they concentrate on areas which have sufficient resource allocation. This can be reversed in order to build organizational capabilities. They can do a systematic analysis of their resources (such as: financial and human) and focus on areas which lack adequate amounts of required inputs. This exercise will help them find new ways to work with limited resources and overcome time and cost constraints. This may not appear to be a very good idea for large organizations but one should not underestimate the fact that it takes dedicated time, and financial and human resources to build a promising idea into a viable product, and those resources are often already accounted for on other projects (Altringer, 2013). So, it is important for



organizations to systematically analyze their resources and then proceed with viable ideas.

Develop a good fit between existing systems and targeted ones

New systems (related to new businesses) within organizations work in highly ambiguous environments, where the full range of alternatives and outcomes isn't known, leading to many possible directions and evolutionary paths. Such situations call for risk-taking behavior and because of this corporate budgeting systems often show a slant towards already set businesses because they generally come up with higher tangible returns in known markets. In a comparable ethos, organizations device HR systems to develop managers whose operational capabilities resonate with the needs of mature businesses—not the strategic, conceptual, and innovative abilities that start-ups require (Gravin and Levesque, 2006). To overcome this block and strike a balance between the new and the old systems, managers must begin with narrowing the playing field and start with assumptions about what will work and what won't; then, they should look out for ways of approving or disapproving their presumptions by combining 'open-minded opportunism' with 'disciplined planning' (Gravin and Levesque, 2006).

# Provide the right environment

Various studies have concentrated on organizational climate and its influence on creativity and innovation (Baer and Frese, 2003). The right environment consists of



availability of resources for development and implementation of new ideas, support of discussion about new ideas, top-management support and the use of rewards for good ideas (Hunter, Bedell & Mumford, 2007). For example, the Facebook 'Like' button was first prototyped in one of Facebook's infamous hacka-thons. Also, when in the late 80's Ken Kutaragi, one of Sony's junior engineers, came up with a better version of his daughter's gaming console, he faced firm obstruction from Sony's top management in light of the fact that, in those days no one knew the fate of the gaming business. But the group CEO Norio Ohga, upheld the venture and in 1994 when the first PlayStation was floated, it was a hit. Besides top management support, diversity, shared perception, safety to experiment, methods and training to innovate available for employees (Birkinshaw et al., 2011) also make the organizational environment right for intrapreneurship. They nurture the soft-spot and allow employees to think out of the box and push their own limits.

# Recognize and reward efforts

This would help in creating a healthy competitive environment within organizations. Organizations and managers should decide on project-based milestones, such as: marketplace acceptance, ecosystem development, external perception etc. and as and when such milestones are achieved, the individuals and teams should be adequately rewarded. But such rewards should not eliminate the possibilities of continuous improvement. Numerous organizations presently are



rewarding employees for attempts which probably failed but lead to learning: Both Google's lab X and at WPP's Grey Group in New York incentivize failures that provide insight (Ahuja, 2016).

Be flexible and fix high power distance

To foster organizational entrepreneurship, it is important for managers to be flexible and reduce systemic barriers such as, power distance and bureaucratic routine reporting. Such barriers slow down information flow for quick and efficient decision making. Standard rules and procedures are necessary to achieve efficiency in the key areas of businesses, but at times this creates rigidity and comfort zones, which lowers the tendency of innovation. Thus, flexibility at the system levels (formal reporting, bureaucracy etc.), strategic levels (vision, support of top management etc.), behavioral levels (decision making, team-work etc.) and political levels (power distance, bottom-up communication etc.) is necessary to foster the soft-spot. For example, Google lets its engineers spend one day per week on their own projects. This exercise has fructified into some of Google's most popular services, such as Gmail and Google News. In fact, Google claims that half of new product launches have originated from the 20% of innovation time off (Lukes, 2012).



### Open to communicate

Rewards at times may introduce peer rivalry and diluted interpersonal relationships. Sometimes some great ventures never take off because they were never discussed or communicated. Managers must ensure that people communicate freely about their ideas to their peers, subordinates, managers and management. Sufficient social embeddedness is necessary for any venture to succeed and lack of it shows unfavorable results (Biniari, 2012). Communication helps in opportunity identification and stabilizes negative emotional arousal, thus, leading to value addition within the organization.

## Open to challenge the status-quo

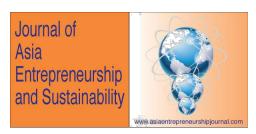
It is a well-known fact that organizations design their systems to ensure the success of their established businesses as they account for major revenue share. Thus, many a times working environments are unsurprising, and executives strive for efficiency, stability, and making the most of incremental growth (Gravin and Levesque, 2006). But to foster the soft-spot it is important to challenge the statusquo. When an employee comes forward with some novel business idea, it is important to support him/her to develop a prototype to test his/her hypothesis — with just one client who is assumed to be well served by the solution. If that solitary client utilizes the solution and prescribes it to other people, at that point it turns out to be simple for organizations to scale it up to a bigger group of customers so as to gather more information. One instance of this approach in real



life is a product idea called "Shop Owner", launched by an Intuit worker in Bangalore. He discovered that store clerks in rural-area were unable to keep track of sales by depending on their memory to provide cost estimates and make transcribed sales slips. Most did not have access to computers or cash registers with integrated accounting features, however, almost everyone had smart phones. So, he came up with a solution in the form an app that packaged point-of-sale accounting, simple stock management, and printed receipts. In view of that plan, he and his team developed and tested a prototype — in less than a week. Their first client was the café located inside Intuit's own Bangalore office. It was a hit. From that point, the model was considered sufficient to scale-up for further testing and discovery (Ahuja, 2016).

## Support, don't control

One of the most important factors to nurture the soft-spot is to allow employees to make some substantial decision on their own and take responsibility for it. The sense of autonomy increases engagement at work and motivates employees to work towards their passion (Ahuja, 2016), to improve the process and add value to the existing venture(s) or create value in the form of new venture(s). In addition, the sense of accountability pushes them to eliminate unwanted triggers and allows them to take calculated risk(s). Organizations can also support the idea(s) by encouraging the collaboration of various departments (such as, HR, marketing, finance etc.). When heads of departments take decisions in solace or considering



only their department's work processes, they deviate from shared goals and discourage organizational entrepreneurship/intrapreneurship.

#### Give constructive feedback

In order to give constructive feedback, managers must suspend judgement temporarily. While developing new organizational ventures individuals and teams would face many uncertainties; with constructive feedback managers can ensure that they move in the right direction. Also, studying various other organizations may help managers to take calculated risks and set-up new workable ventures within organizations. GE and 3M, put "mature turks"—managers who are already successful at running larger businesses but are also known for their willingness to challenge convention—in charge of new businesses (Gravin and Levesque, 2006), so that mistakes could be avoided and constructive feedback could help individuals achieve goals.

# Help employees unwind

New venture idea(s) require innovation, deep thinking and passion. These are the qualities of engaged and dedicated employees- the mavericks. But theses mavericks are already engaged in existing business processes. It becomes difficult for them to balance between new and existing work. Also, striking a balance between work and personal life becomes challenging. So, managers must pay attention to develop and organize programs which allow employees to interact in



an informal setting and spend time with their loved ones. Such environments where intrapreneurs come together in one place, not only allow cross-functional interaction, but also help the organization to keep innovation focused at issues that are in-line with the organization's vision and employees' passion.

Don't hesitate to acquire capabilities if required

Leaders of the new businesses should refrain from building every capability from ground up. Organizations must understand that not all competencies are best developed from scratch, some can be acquired from outside. The choice whether to build or buy skills must depend on the internal (organization)/external (open market) availability of skills, the time required for internal development, and the ease with which outside capabilities can be adopted into the organization (Gravin and Levesque, 2006).

# Learn from past experiences

Last but not the least, it is important to learn from past experiences when there is a lot at stake. Organizations must look back and try to avoid mistakes committed in the past. Such deep understanding comes from interaction with many potential customers via surveys. For example, in 2004, P&G marketers spent more than ten hours a month in consumers' homes, watching them cook and clean, before launching new products.

Implications of the study



## Theoretical Implications

The study holds some important theoretical implications. First, it presented an overarching view of individual competencies needed to display intrapreneurial behavior. Second, it set forth a comprehensive framework of intrapreneurship by focusing on individual-level factors which lead to individual intrapreneurial behavior. Also, based on the framework it defined intrapreneurship relating it to individual-level competencies, organizational-level competencies and organizational intrapreneurial outcomes. Thus, making up for existing inconsistencies related to intrapreneurship. It presents researchers a ground for further studies and validation.

# **Practical Implications**

The research has some major practical implications for practitioners. The research sets some future agendas for investigation, notwithstanding the recommendations made by the articles evaluated. Further, the study adds to the field of intrapreneurship in practice by underlining pertinent issues related to individual-level competencies. When organizations are familiar with the process of how IIB leads to intrapreneurship, and subsequently to organizational outcomes, then only can the organizations take measures to invigorate that process (Neessen et al, 2019). The study suggests some practical ways to nurture the soft-spot in order to



encourage employees to innovate, adapt, create, take risks, and to be proactive - in short: display Intrapreneurship for organizational growth.

## Limitations of the study

This study has put forth a comprehensive framework for IIB and presented an integrative framework for intrapreneurship as well. However, there are some limitations of this study. First, though the study used ISI- certified journals to ensure quality of the articles, it is possible that some good quality articles were missed. However, the conclusions deduced in the study are good enough to set a direction for future research. Second, the present work adopts a qualitative approach to study intrapreneurship, future studies may consider different methodologies such as longitudinal and cross-sectional research to study changes in time and at time of possible interventions.

#### Conclusion

This study focused on the intrapreneurial employee- an individual. Via a systematic literature review the research proposed an integrated framework of intrapreneurship that combines the definition, individual level antecedents and determinants of intrapreneurship. It likewise incorporates the organizational level factors that impact the IIB. In light of the analysis of the various definitions of intrapreneurship found in the extant literature, the study additionally proposes a new definition that



incorporates the various facets of intrapreneurship and put forth the significance of the multifaceted character of intrapreneurship. This review establishes the strategic significance of IIB and intrapreneurship for organizations and their growth. The study establishes that individual intrapreneurial behavior is very important for intrapreneurship within organizations. However, innovation does not happen only with an individual's effort. It is a collective responsibility of everyone in the organization. Companies that wish to succeed with organizational entrepreneurship must understand that businesses should be fostered through a progression of activities in careful control that integrate innovation and disciplined management, short- and long-haul thinking, calculated risk and freedom to experiment. Top management must consider changing the organizational culture to foster novelty and set up integrated and supporting systems which nurture the soft-spot in order to display intrapreneurship to create value for organization.



## References

Ahuja, B. S. (2016), "How Intuit Built a Better Support System for Intrapreneurs", Harvard Business Review, Retrieved from <a href="https://hbr.org/2016/04/how-intuit-built-a-better-support-system-for-intrapreneurs on 12.03.2020">https://hbr.org/2016/04/how-intuit-built-a-better-support-system-for-intrapreneurs on 12.03.2020</a>

Ajzen, I. (1991), "The theory of planned behaviour", Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Vol. 50, pp. 179–211.

Altringer, B. (2013), "A New Model for Innovation in Big Companies", Harvard Business Review, Retrieved from <a href="https://hbr.org/2013/11/a-new-model-for-innovation-in-big-companies">https://hbr.org/2013/11/a-new-model-for-innovation-in-big-companies</a> on 21.04.2020.

Amabile, T.M., Barsade, S.G., Mueller, J.S. and Staw, B.M. (2005), "Affect and creativity at work", Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 50, pp. 367-403.

Åmo, B. W. and Kolvereid, L. (2005), "Organizational strategy, individual personality and innovation behavior", J Enterp Cult, Vol. 13, pp. 7–19.

Anderson, P. (1999), "Complexity theory and organization science", Organization Science, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 216–232.

Antoncic, J. A., & Antoncic, B. (2011), "Employee satisfaction, intrapreneurship and firm growth: a model", Industrial Management & Data Systems, Vol. 111, No. (3–4), pp. 589–607

Antoncic, B. and Hisrich, R.D. (2001), "Intrapreneurship: construct refinement and crosscultural validation", Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 16, No. 5, pp. 495-527.

Antoncic B., Hisrich R. D. (2003), "Clarifying the intrapreneurship concept" J Small Bus Enterp Dev, Vol. 10, pp. 7–24.

Baer, M. and Frese, M. (2003), "Innovation is not enough: Climates for initiative and psychological safety, process innovations, and firm performance", Journal of Organizational Behavior, Vol. 24, pp. 45-68.

Bager, T., Ottósson, H. and Schott, T. (2010), "Intrapreneurs, entrepreneurs and spin-off entrepreneurs: similarities and differences", Int J Entrep Small Bus, Vol. 10, pp. 339–358.

Baggen, Y., Lans, T., Biemans, H. J. A., Kampen, J., & Mulder, M. (2016), "Fostering entrepreneurial learning on-the-job: evidence from innovative small and





medium-sized companies in Europe", European Journal of Education, Vol. 51, No. 2, pp. 193–209.

Bahadori, M. (2012), "The Effect of Emotional Intelligence on Entrepreneurial Behavior: A Case Study in a Medical Science University", Asian Journal of Business Management, Vol. 4, No. 1, pp. 81-85.

Beglay T. M. and Boyd, D. P. (1985), "The Relationship of the Jerkins Activity Survey to Type A Behaviour and Business Executives", Journal of Vocational Behaviour, XXVII.

Becker, G. (1964), "Human Capital: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis, with Special Reference to Education", New York, Columbia University Press.

Bicknell A., Francis-Smythe J., & Arthur, J. (2010), "Knowledge transfer: deconstructing the entrepreneurial academic", Int J Entrep Behav Res, Vol. 16, pp. 485–501.

Biniari, M. G. (2012), "The emotional embeddedness of corporate entrepreneurship: The case of envy", Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice, Vol. 36, pp. 141-170.

Birkinshaw, J., Bouquet, C. and Barsoux, J. L. (2011), "The 5 myths of innovation", MIT Sloan Management Review, Vol. 52, No. 2, pp. 43-50.

Birley, S. (1985), "The Role of Networks in the Entrepreneurial Process", Journal of Business Venturing, Vol 1, No. 1, pp. 107-117.

Bjornali E. S. and Støren L. A. (2012), "Examining competence factors that encourage innovative behaviour by European higher education graduate professionals", J Small Bus Enterp Dev, Vol. 19, pp. 402–423.

Blanka, C. (2019), "An individual-level perspective on intrapreneurship: a review and ways forward", Review of Managerial Science, Vol. 13, pp. 919–961.

Block, Z., & MacMillan, I.C. (1993), "Corporate venturing: Creating new businesses within the firm", Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Brazeal, D. V. (1993), "Organizing for internally developed corporate ventures", Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 8, No. 1, pp. 75–90.

Brockhaus, R.H. (1982), "The Psychology of the Entrepreneur", In, C.A. Kent, D.L. Sexton and K.H. Vespers (eds), Encyclopaedia of Entrepreneurship, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.





Brzozowski, J., Cucculelli, M. and Peruzzi, V. (2018), "Firms' Proactiveness During the Crisis: Evidence from European Data", Entrepreneurship Research Journal, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp. 1-14.

Camelo-Ordaz C. Fernandez-Alles, M. Ruiz-Navarro J. and Sousa-Ginel E. (2012), "The intrapreneur and innovation in creative firms", Int Small Bus Journal, Vol. 30, pp. 513–535.

Castrogiovanni, G. J., Urbano, D., and Loras, J. (2011), "Linking corporate entrepreneurship and human resource management in SMEs", International Journal of Manpower, Vol. 32, No. 1, pp. 34–47.

Chen, M. H., Chang, Y. Y., & Chang, Y. C. (2015), "Entrepreneurial orientation, social networks, and creative performance: middle managers as corporate entrepreneurs", Creativity and Innovation Management, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 493–507.

Churchill, N.C. (1992), "Research issues in entrepreneurship", In D.L. Sexton and J.D. Kasarda, eds. The State of the Art of Entrepreneurship, Boston, MA: PWS-KENT.

Colton, R. and Udell, G. G. (1976), "The National Science Foundation's Innovation Centre: An Experiment in Training Potential Entrepreneurs and Innovators", Journal of Small Business Management, Vol. 21, No. 3, pp. 11-20. Cooper H. M. (1988), "Organizing knowledge syntheses: A taxonomy of literature reviews", Knowledge in Society, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 104–126.

Cornwall, J.R., and Perlman, B. (1990), "Organizational entrepreneurship", Homewood, IL: Boston-Irvin.

Covin J. G. and Miles, M. P. (1999), "Corporate entrepreneurship and the pursuit of competitive advantage. Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice, Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 47-64.

Covin, J. G., Green, K. M., & Slevin, D. P. (2006), "Strategic process effects on the entrepreneurial orientation—sales growth rate relationship", Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice, Vol. 30, No. 1, pp. 57–81.

Crant, M. J. (1996), "The Proactive Personality Scale as a Predictor of Entrepreneurial Intention", Journal of Small Business Management, Vol. 34, No. 3, pp. 42-50.



Damanpour, F. (1991), "Organizational innovation: a meta-analysis of effects of determinants and moderators", Academy of Management Journal, Vol. 34, No. 3, pp. 555-90.

Dollinger, J. M. (1995), Entrepreneurship: Strategies and Resources (Boston, MA: Irwin).

Douglas, E. J., Fitzsimmons, J. R. (2013), "Intrapreneurial intentions versus entrepreneurial intentions: distinct constructs with different antecedents", Small Bus Econ, Vol. 41, pp. 115–132.

Dubin, R. (1956), "Industrial Workers Worlds: A Study of the Central Life Interests of Industrial Workers", Social Problems III

Duygulu, E., and Kurgun, O. A. (2009), "The effect of managerial entrepreneurship behavior on employee satisfaction: hospitality managers' dilemma", African Journal of Business Management, Vol. 3, No. 11, pp. 715–726. Farrukh, M., Chong, W. Y., Mansori, S., & Ramzani, S. R. (2017), "Intrapreneurial behaviour: the role of organizational commitment", World Journal of Entrepreneurship Management and Sustainable Development, Vol. 13, No. 3, pp. 243–256.

Felicio, A. J., Rodrigues, R. and Caldeirinha, R. V. (2012), "The effect of intrapreneurship on corporate performance", Management Decision, Vol. 50, No. 10, pp. 1717-1738.

Fellnhofer, K., Puumalainen, K., and Sjogren, H. (2016), "Entrepreneurial orientation and performance - are sexes equal? International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research, Vol.22, No. 3, pp. 346–374.

Fischer, A. (2011), "Recognizing opportunities: initiating service innovation in PSFs", Journal of Knowledge Management, Vol. 15, No. 6, pp. 915–927.

Foo, M.D. (2011), "Emotions and entrepreneurial opportunity evaluation", Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice, Vol. 35, pp. 375-393.

Garvin, A. D. and Levesque, C. L. (2006), "Meeting the Challenge of Corporate Entrepreneurship", Harvard Business Review, Retrieved from <a href="https://hbr.org/2006/10/meeting-the-challenge-of-corporate-entrepreneurship">https://hbr.org/2006/10/meeting-the-challenge-of-corporate-entrepreneurship</a> Retrieved on 3.3.2020.

Giannikis, S., & Nikandrou, I. (2013), "The impact of corporate entrepreneurship and high-performance work systems on employees' job attitudes: empirical





evidence from Greece during the economic downturn", International Journal of Human Resource Management, Vol. 24, No. 19, pp. 3644–3666.

Globocnik, D., and Salomo, S. (2015), "Do formal management practices impact the emergence of bootlegging behavior? Journal of Product Innovation Management, Vol. 32, No. 4, pp. 505–521.

Goleman, D. (1998). Working with emotional intelligence. New York: Bantam. Guth, W. D., and Ginsberg, A. (1990), "Guest editors' introduction: Corporate entrepreneurship", Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 11, pp. 5-15.

Gwynne, P. and Wolff, M. F. (2005), "Introducing women to intrapreneurial thinking", Res Technol Management, Vol. 48, pp. 4–5.

Hagedorn, R. A. and Jamieson, D. W. (2014), "Intrapreneurial sensemaking: the case of a reenvisioned school of professional studies", Int J Entrep Innov Manag, Vol. 18, pp. 425–437.

Hornsby, J.S., Kuratko, D.F. and Zahra, S.A. (2002), "Middle managers' perception of the internal environment for corporate entrepreneurship: assessing a measurement scale", Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 17, pp. 253-73.

Hornsby, J. S., Kuratko, D. F., Shepherd, D. A., & Bott, J. P. (2009), "Managers' corporate entrepreneurial actions: examining perception and position", Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 24, No. 3, pp. 236–247.

Hunter, S. T. Bedell, K. E. and Mumford, M. D. (2007), "Climate for creativity: A quantitative review", Creativity Research Journal, Vol. 19, No. 1, pp. 69-90. Isen, A.M. (1999), Positive affect and creativity, in Russ, S.W. (Ed.), Affect, Creative Experience, and Psychological Adjustment, Brunel/Mazel, Philadelphia, PA, 3-17.

Jesson J., Matheson L. and Lacey F.M. (2011), "Doing your literature review: traditional and systematic techniques", Los Angeles & London: SAGE Publications.

Kakati, M. (2003), "Success criteria in high-tech new ventures", Technovation, Vol. 23, pp. 447-57.

Kanter, R. M. (1984), The change masters. Simon and Schuster, New York Kelley, D., and Lee, H. (2010), "Managing innovation champions: the impact of project characteristics on the direct manager role", Journal of Product Innovation Management, Vol. 27, No. 7, pp. 1007–1019.





Kirby, D. (2006), "Creating entrepreneurial universities in the UK: applying entrepreneurship theory to practice", J Technol Transf, Vol. 31, pp. 599–603. Kuratko, D. F., and Montagno, R. V. (1989), "The intrapreneurial spirit", Training and Development Journal, Vol. 43, No. 10, pp. 83–85.

Kuratko, D.F., Montagno, R.V. and Hornsby, J.S. (1990), "Developing an intrapreneurial assessment instrument for effective corporate entrepreneurial environment", Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 11, No. 5, pp. 49-58.

Lewin, A. Y. (1999), "Application of complexity theory to organization science", Organization Science, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 215.

Lukes, M. (2012), "Supporting Entrepreneurial Behavior and Innovation in Organizations", Central European Business Review, Vol. 1, No. 2, pp. 29-36. Martiarena, A. (2013). "What's so entrepreneurial about intrapreneurs?, Small Bus Econ. Vol. 40, pp. 7–39.

Marvel, M. R., Griffin, A., Hebda, J., and Vojak, B. (2007), "Examining the technical corporate entrepreneurs' motivation: voices from the field", Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, Vol. 31, No. 5, pp. 753–768.

Menzel, H. C., Aaltio, I. and Ulijn, J. M. (2007), "On the way to creativity: engineers as intrapreneurs in organizations", Technovation, Vol. 27, pp. 732–743. Mikolajczak, M., Luminet, O. and Menil, C. (2006), "Predicting resistance to stress: incremental validity of trait emotional intelligence over alexithymia and optimism", Psicothema, Vol. 18, pp. 79-88.

Miles, M.P. and Covin, J.G. (2002), "Exploring the practice of corporate venturing: some common forms and their organizational implications", Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice, Vol. 26, No. 3, pp. 21-40.

Miller, D. (1983), "The correlates of entrepreneurship in three types of firms", Management Science, Vol. 29, No. 7, pp. 770-791.

Misra S., Kumar E. S., (2000), "Resourcefulness: A Proximal Conceptualisation of Entrepreneurial Behaviour", The Journal of Entrepreneurship, Retrieved from <a href="http://www.ediindia.org/dstfdp/16.%20Resourcefulness....pdf">http://www.ediindia.org/dstfdp/16.%20Resourcefulness....pdf</a> on 10.8.2016 Monsen, E., Patzelt, H., and Saxton, T. (2010), "Beyond simple utility: incentive design and trade-offs for corporate employee-entrepreneurs", Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, Vol. 34, No 1, pp. 105–130.





Moriano, J. A., Molero, F., Topa, G., & Mangin, J. P. L. (2014), "The influence of transformational leadership and organizational identification on intrapreneurship", International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 103–119.

Morris, M. H. and Kuratko, D. F. (2002), Corporate entrepreneurship - entrepreneurial development within organizations. Fort Worth, Texas: Harcourt, Inc.

Neessen, C. M. P., Caniels, C. J. M., Vos, B. and de Jong, P. J. (2019),

"The intrapreneurial employee: toward an integrated model of intrapreneurship and research agenda", International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal, Vol. 15, pp. 545-571.

Parker, S. C. (2011), "Intrapreneurship or entrepreneurship?", J Bus Venturing, Vol. 26, pp. 19–34.

Pinchot, G. III (1985), Intrapreneuring. New York: Harper & Row.

Pinchot, G. (1987), "Innovation through intrapreneuring", Research Management, Vol. 30, No. 2, pp. 14–17.

Puech, L., and Durand, T. (2017), "Classification of time spent in the intrapreneurial process", Creativity and Innovation Management, Vol. 26, No. 2, pp. 142–151.

Rigtering, J. P. C. and Weitzel, U. (2013), "Work context and employee behaviour as antecedents for intrapreneurship", Int Entrep Manag J, Vol. 9, pp. 337–360.

Ross, J. (1987), "Corporations and entrepreneurs: paradox and opportunity", Business Horizons, Vol. 30, No. 4, pp. 76–80.

Schumpeter, J.A. (1934), The Theory of Economic Development. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Sebora, T. C., Theerapatvong, T., and Lee, S. M. (2010), "Corporate entrepreneurship in the face of changing competition a case analysis of six Thai manufacturing firms", Journal of Organizational Change Management, Vol. 23, No. 4, pp. 453–470.

Shane, S. and Venkataraman, S. (2000), "The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research", Academy of Management Review, Vol. 25, No. 1, pp. 217-27.





Sharma, P. and Chrisman, J.J. (1999), "Toward a reconciliation of the definitional issues in the field of corporate entrepreneurship", Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice, Vol. 23, No. 3, pp. 11-27.

Simon, H.A. (1987), "Making Management Decisions: The Role of Intuition and Emotion", Executive, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 57-64.

Sinha, E. and Laghate, K. (2018), Entrepreneurial Behavior among Managers: Effect of Emotional Intelligence, Gender and Managerial Level. Presented at International Conference on Advances in Business Management, ICABM- 2018. SIBM Pune India.

Sinha, N. and Srivastava, K. B. L. (2013), "Association of personality, work values and socio-cultural factors with intrapreneurial orientation", J Entrep, Vol. 22, pp. 97–113.

Stacey, R. D. (1995), "The science of complexity: an alternative perspective for change processes", Strategic Management Journal, Vol. 16, pp. 477–495. Sun R. C. and Hui E. K. (2006), "Cognitive competence as a positive youth development construct: Conceptual bases and implications for curriculum development", International Journal of adolescent medicine and health, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 401-408.

Thompson, J. L. (1999), "A strategic perspective of entrepreneurship", International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour, Vol. 5, No, 6, pp. 279-96.

Tietz, M. A. and Parker, S. C. (2012), "How do intrapreneurs and entrepreneurs differ in their motivation to start a new venture?, Front Entrep Res, Vol. 32, pp. 146–160.

Tranfield D., Denyer D. and Smart P. (2003), "Towards a methodology for developing evidence-informed management knowledge by means of systematic review", British Journal of Management, Vol. 14, No. 3, pp. 207–222.

Turro A, Alvarez C., & Urbano D. (2016), "Intrapreneurship in the Spanish context: a regional analysis", Entrep Reg Dev, Vol. 28, pp. 380–402.



Urban, B., and Nikolov, K. (2013), "Sustainable corporate entrepreneurship initiatives: a risk and reward analysis", Technological and Economic Development of Economy, Vol. 19, pp. 383–408.

Urbano D. and Turro A. (2013), "Conditioning factors for corporate entrepreneurship: an in(ex)ternal approach", Int Entrep Manag Journal, Vol. 9, No. 379–396.

Urbano, D., Alvarez, C., & Turro, A. (2013), "Organizational resources and intrapreneurial activities: an international study", Management Decision, Vol. 51, No. 4, pp. 854–870.

Urban, B., and Wood, E. (2017), "The innovating firm as corporate entrepreneurship", European Journal of Innovation Management, Vol. 20, No. 4, pp. 534–556.

Van Wyk, R., and Adonisi, M. (2008), "The role of entrepreneurial characteristics in predicting job satisfaction", South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences, Vol. 11, No. 4, pp. 391–407.

Veenker S, Pvd Sijde, During W. and Nijhof A. (2008), "Organisational conditions for corporate entrepreneurship in Dutch organisations", Journal of Entrepreneurship, Vol 17, pp. 49–58.

Vroom, V. (1964), "Work and Motivation", New York: Wiley.

Webster J. and Watson R.T. (2002), "Analyzing the past to prepare for the future: Writing a literature review", Management Information Systems Quarterly, Vol. 26, No. 2, pp. 11.

Wiklund, J., & Shepherd, D. (2005), "Entrepreneurial orientation and small business performance: a configurational approach", Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 20, No. 1, pp. 71–91.



Williamson, J. M., Lounsbury, J. W. and Han, L. D. (2013), "Key personality traits of engineers for innovation and technology development", J Eng Tech Manage, Vol. 30, pp. 157–168.

Wiseman, R. and Skilton, P. (1999), "Divisions and differences: exploring publication preferences and productivity across management subfields", Journal of Management Inquiry, Vol. 8, No. 3, pp. 299-321.

Zahra, A. (1991), "Predictors and financial outcomes of corporate entrepreneurship: an exploratory study", Journal of Business Venturing, Vol. 6, No. 4, pp. 259-86.

Zampetakis, A. L, Beldekos, P., and Moustakis, S. V. (2009a), "Day-to-day" entrepreneurship within organisations: The role of trait Emotional Intelligence and Perceived Organisational Support", European Management Journal, Vol. 27, pp. 165-175.

Zampetakis, A. L., Kafetsios, K., Bouranta, N., Dewett, T. and Moustakis, S. V. (2009b), "On the relationship between emotional intelligence and entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions", International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research, Vol. 15, No. 6, pp. 595-618.

Zhu, H. Djurjagina, K. and Leker, J. (2014), "Innovative behaviour types and their influence on individual crowdsourcing performances", International Journal of Innovation Management, Vol. 18, pp.1440015.



# The state of compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conduct for effective public service in Tanzania: The case of Bukombe District

Paul Mtasigazya
The Mwalimu Nyerere Memorial Academy-Karume Campus, Zanzibar, Tanzania
paul.ntasigazya@mnma.ac.tz

#### **ABSTRACT**

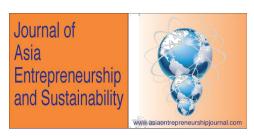
There are a multitude of Public Service reforms policies, strategies and programmes intended to render effective services to the people of Tanzania by public servants. However, in spite of the pursuit of effectiveness in service delivery and the condemning of unethical conducts in public services, unethical behaviors are still being demonstrated by public servants and complaints on the same, are still made. So, where are the missing links?

The objectives of this study were to explore why there is a missing link between service delivery and ethical practices in public service and to examine the mechanisms put in place to ensure compliance of Bukombe district Staff on code of ethics, to examine the extent in which dismal compliance on code of ethics by





public servants affect social services delivery and to examine measures to be taken to enhance ethical practices in public service. A case study method was used purposely to merge the research objectives with the economic issues in terms of time and money. The research approach used in the study was the case study design. The sample size of the study was 60 respondents, 40 were head quarter Bukombe district council, 20 were Village Council Members from four wards namely Runzewe East, Runzewe West, Namonge and Igulwa. The methods for data collection included interviews and secondary data reviews and data were analyzed using SPSS where by the output presented in simple percentages and tables so that to simply interpretation and understanding of the findings. The findings of this study were that low salary with age and staff seniority implication, selfinshness, lack of patriotism ineffectiveness of watchdog institutions, bad administration, lack of motivation and political interference were hindrances of ethical practices in Bukombe district council. The mechanisms put in place to enhance ethical practices were found ineffective leading to number of effects in service delivery such as low revenue collection and increase of death due to lack of working facilities and negligence in health services, measures to enhance ethical conducts were to increase salaries for public servants, strengthening watch dog institutions by providing financial autonomy and independency and avoiding political interference.. The concluding remarks are twofold: public service organizations need to provide continuous commitment and enforcement of professional ethics by means of, among other things, policy structures; and public



service managers need to realize the importance of changing their own mindset and accepting the ethical standards that are established by the public service organisation.

#### Introduction

United Republic of Tanzania (URT) is a developing country and a large part of its population is, for various reasons, uninformed about their rights and obligations, the services they are entitled to, the procedures to follow and whom to approach in this regard. Since the Public Service is in the service of all its people, employees owe it to those members of the public who are uninformed, to provide them with all the information, guidance and help they might require about services while complying to public service code of ethics. This should be done kindly and efficiently, even if it only means referring them in a friendly manner to another institution or another building.

In this regard, Anthony (2013) notes that upholding the principles and standards of ethical codes of conduct to the public servants or by public office holders at all levels of government is an important aspect of public service ethics (Sakyi and Bawole, 2009). An essential requirement in this regard is that public servants are required to respect and comply with ethical codes of conduct and respect the



dignity of their citizens in carrying out their official functions (Gilman, 2005; Anthony, 2013).

Of the countries that reported public service ethics initiatives, about five (Cameroon, Namibia, Nigeria, South Africa, and Uganda) can be considered "campaigns." These have taken the forms of code of conduct exercises, public service charters, circulation of leaflets and speeches within the public service, and public awareness campaigns (United Nations, 2001).

The public service, as an institution, has a valuable contribution to make towards the development of countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Among the efforts that have been made to modernise and revitalise the public service, more attention has been paid to the ethical dimensions during recent years. The sample countries in the study indicate that a planned and co-ordinated approach to enhancing ethics, both within the public service and outside, would yield the best results (United Nations. 2001).

In connection to that, Tanzania government has initiated several reforms including public service reform programme (PSRP) which include the establishment of codes of ethics and conduct for public service aimed at rejuvenating the compliance on ethical codes of conduct that will in long run increase quality service delivery in public sector. An important element in the reform packages is the rejuvenation and institutionalization of codes of conduct (Anthony, 2013). In Tanzania codes of conduct and institutional arrangements have been put in place to provide over all



guidance and ensure integrity and responsible behavior in respective public services (Gilman, 2005).

There has been institutionalization of codes of ethics and conduct in the public service to enhance its practice and compliance. The Code of Ethics and Conduct for Public Service has been made by The Ministry of State, Presidents' Office Public Service Management (POPSM) under the authority of section 34 of the Public Service Act of 2002 and regulation 65 (i) of the Public Service Regulations of 2003. The primary responsibility for ethics in public service lies with the Ethics Division of the POPSM. The Public Service Act No. 8 of 2002 gives POPSM the mandate to oversee public service ethics in Ministry, Government Department and Agencies (MDAs) also in Local Government Authority (LGAs) by coordinating and monitoring ethical practices in workplaces. The rationale of instituting ethical codes of conduct has been supported by various scholars; Sakyi and Bawole (2009) argue that public service code of conduct has the purpose of guiding public servants in order that they avoid conduct which may undermine integrity and effective rendering of service for which they are employed for.

This effort of putting code of ethics and conduct in the Public Service Management and Employment Policy of 1999 intends to enhance compliance of public servants on the practice of the code of ethics and conduct as the policy states, "Public servants shall be bound by a core shared values, these core shared values shall be



the basis of code of ethics that shall lay down standards of conduct and behaviors that employees in public service should observe".

Tanzania government through Public Service management has under taken various efforts to enhance compliance of public servants on the code of ethics and conduct for public service, despite these efforts, the compliance on code of ethics and conduct for public service is still dismal, this fact is demonstrated in the study conducted by REPOA (2006) which indicates that in 2003, 80% of Police Officers were involved in corrupt practices. This view is corroborated by The Global Corruption Barometer (2005:4) which found that Police officers were rated as the most corrupt institutions in six out of eight participating African Countries. Also Mutahaba (2005) concludes that there is no doubt that corruption is rampant in all sectors of the economy, public services and politics in the country. There is evidence that even some officers of government organs vested with the responsibility of administration of Justice namely the Department of National Security, the Police, the Judiciary and the Anti-Corruption Bureau are themselves immersed in corruption.

Furthermore unethical practices are underscored by Prevention and Combating Corruption Bureau Report (2009) which illustrates that the major victims of petty corruption are the poor of the poorest who spend over 40% of their major family incomes on paying small bribes in order to access vital social services like health and justice. Similarly, Fjelstad (2003), Mamdani and Bangser (2004) contends that



revenue collected in Local Government Councils was not used to provide services as they were misused by unethical public officials for private gain resulting into low quality of service due to unethical practices.

Therefore, this study intended to examine the causes of dismal compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conduct for Public Service. This study departed from the fore mentioned studies such as REPOA (2009), Prevention and Combating Corruption Report (2009), The Global Corruption Barometer (2005), study conducted by Mwita (2009) and study conducted by Mamdan and Bangser (2004), mainly focused on examining unethical practices and corruption to public officials while Fjelstad (2003) and Mamdan and Bangser (2004) focused on the effects of unethical practices on primary education. Therefore this study focused on examining the causes of dismal compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conducts in public service specifically at Bukombe district Council as they were not involved in studies by fore mentioned scholars and there was no study that has been conducted at municipal level on the causes of dismal compliance on codes of ethics. Similarly the study intended to examine the mechanisms put in place to ensure compliance of Bukombe Local Government staff on code of ethics and conduct for public service as well as examining the measures to be taken to enhance ethical practice in public service. This paper seeks to address the following research objectives i. what are the causes which hinder ethical practices in public service? ii.to what extent is dismal compliance of public servants on code



of ethics affects service delivery in Bukombe District Council? iii.what are the measures to be taken to increase ethical practices in public service?

#### LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAME WORK

There is no universally agreed definition of the term ethics, some scholars have even equated it with morality. However Chapman (1993) defines the term ethics as the basic principles of the rights action and conformity to rules of conduct. Thus as a response to the need to enhance ethical behavior in public service, officials ought to follow, the rules of moral conduct. Ethical dilemma in this context is revolving around doing good or bad.

Shanks (2002) notes that being ethical is not the same as doing whatever society accepts. In many society most people accept standards that are, in fact ethical. But standards of behavior in society can deviate from what is ethical. An entire society can become ethically corrupt. What, then, refers to is ethics? Ethics is two things. First, refers to well based standards of rights and wrong that prescribe what humans ought to do, usually in terms of rights, obligations, benefits to society, fairness, or specific virtues. Ethics for example refers to those standards that impose the reasonable obligations to refrain from rape, stealing, murder, assault, slander and fraud. Ethical standards also include those that enjoying virtue of honest, compassion, and loyalty. And ethical standards include standards relating



to rights such as the right to life, the right to freedom from injury and the right to privacy.

Ethics in public service in Tanzania therefore is about the standards of right and wrong that should guide public servants as they conduct and carry out their duties. It is about the character, conduct and morals of public servants about what is good or bad and what is right or wrong behavior when they are executing and delivering public services in public offices such as Bukombe district council and elsewhere in Government Institutions.

Code of Ethics and Conduct for Public Service

Fisher and Lovell (2006) define code of ethics and conduct of public service as instructions, set of rules or principles concerning behavior. It tends to be reasonably prescriptive and proscriptive concerning particular aspects of employee behavior. Code of ethics in general encourage groups and individual employees to display as espouse particular characteristics such as loyalty, honest, objectivity, integrity, transparency and accountability.

Similarly Gilman (2005) contends that ethical codes of conduct for public servants can articulate an acceptable behaviors as well as providing a vision for which the government official is striving. Additionally the Public Service Management and Employment Policy of 1999 stipulates that "the ethical codes of conducts such as pursuit of excellence in service, loyalty to the government, diligence to duty,



impartiality in service, integrity, respect for the law and proper use of the official information just to mention few are essential aspects to be adhered by public servants".

Also Guy (1990) argues that code of ethics and conduct insist on compliance in term of being honest, accountable, pursuit of excellence, loyalty and responsible which in long run reduce unethical conduct and poor service delivery in public sector such as judiciary, police, TANESCO health sector and local government councils.

Therefore in this study, code of ethics and conduct of public service means set of standards such as respect of human rights, perform diligently, promote transparency and accountability, integrity and objectivity which will enable public servants to participate fully in fulfilling the mission of public service which is to deliver quality services to Tanzanians efficiently, effectively and with the highest standards of courtesy and integrity.

In this study public servant is any person in the service of the government remunerated by the government in order to perform public duty in MDAs and LGAs .So in this study public servants is construed to mean Bukombe district council staff who are remunerated by government and working in Local Government Departments.



On the other hand, compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conduct of public service, entails assessing whether public servants adhere to the standards and rules of code of ethics and conduct for public service in Tanzania.

## Empirical Studies

Research into public sector code of conduct is limited, this view is supported by Liddle et al (2009) who have intimated that although interest on research of code of ethics has increased since the early 1980s' the emphasize has been in the private sector codes of ethics and that, studies on public sector codes of ethics appear to be limited.

In the same vein, Svensson and Wood (2004) have argued that there appear not to have any in-depth examination of the conduct of the codes of ethics and related organizational ethics actfacts in public sector organizations. Therefore the empirical literature limiting code of conduct, employees' behavior and compliance is not very strong. However, there are few studies which need to be reviewed in order to reveal the knowledge gap. For that case, Mathew (1988) was able to identify only a weak link between the existence of ethical codes and employee's behavior where he concluded that when there is code of conduct in place it is not necessarily or does not guarantee the conformance or compliance of employees on ethical codes of conduct. Therefore, this scholar did not explore the causes of dismal compliance of codes of conduct, which this study intended to deal with.



In East Africa with reference to Kenya, the level of ethical conducts among public officials in the management of public affairs has consistently declined since independence. The rate of annual economic growth of the country has generally declined over the period. At the same time the efficient and effective delivery of public services to the ordinary citizen have continuously deteriorated. A combination of these two factors has resulted in widespread unemployment and poverty in the country. Since independence, Kenya has formulated various legal instruments and established a number of watchdog institutions for regulating and monitoring the ethical behavior of its public officials. Besides, in the early 1990s, domestic opposition groups assisted by the international community demanded and eventually achieved the restoration of competitive party politics or multi-partism in the country. The reason the majority of Kenyans demanded liberal democracy was due to the belief that good governance could only be guaranteed through the system.

However, despite the existence of a number of legal instruments and watchdogs institutions for regulating and monitoring the ethical standards of public officials, and the adoption of multiparty, the management of public affairs and institutions by those who are entrusted with positions of authority in the country has not improved. For instance, according to Transparency International, since 1997, Kenya has remained among the top ten most corrupt countries in the world. During



the period, the transparency index of the county has generally declined. Whereas in 2001 Kenya's transparency rating was 2.0, in 2002 it dropped to 1.9. The continued deterioration of the level of accountability among public officials in the country shows that the adoption of multiparty has not contributed to good governance.

This study confined itself on examining the effectiveness of multiparty politics in restoration of ethical practices among the public officials, thus this study examined the causes of unethical practices among public servants, and mechanisms put in place to ensure ethical practices in public service.

Thus, generally, ethical codes of conduct are aimed at checking "outright bribery and corruption; patronage; nepotism; embezzlement; influence peddling; use of one's position for self enrichment; bestowing of favors on relatives and friends; moonlighting; partiality; partisanships; absenteeism; late coming to work; abuse of public property; leaking and/or misuse of government information, all of which are currently widespread in a number of public service institutions in East Africa (Ibid).

To ensure that ethical codes of conduct for public servants actually work, they must be entrusted to specially established institutions that can implement or administer them effectively. Such institutions include the supervisory or managerial positions in the executive arm of government; the agents of law and order, for example, the police and prisons; quasi-legal agents, for example, and



Ombudsman or an anti-corruption authority; the judiciary; the legislative; and other constitutionally established offices, for example, the Auditor-General.

Arising from its conceptualization, ethics of public servants is considered as a key determinant of the state of governance. Thus, strict observation of ethics in the management of public affairs promotes good governance while the lack of it is the major cause of bad governance (Polidano and Hulme, 1997).

#### Code of Ethics in Tanzania

There are various studies conducted in Tanzania concerning ethical practices among public servants, the study conducted by Ngware (2005) on corruption in Local Authorities in Tanzania revealed that as long as working conditions are not improved especially for primary school teachers, health workers, Ward executive officers, police officers and village executive officers, corruption will always persist. Therefore, this study has not stated explicitly other causes on non compliance on Code of Ethics for public servants as the study confined itself on working condition.

In the same vein study conducted by Sikika (2010) on Petty corruption in health services in Dar es Salaam and Coastal region revealed that bureaucratic procedure in provision of health services if will not be addressed corruption will persist as health services provider use that procedure to solicit and take bribe. But this study



has not stated clearly other causes of dismal compliance of health workers on code of ethics and conduct for public service.

Moreover the study on influence of power and political factors on ethics revealed that corruption was the most common manifestation form of unethical behavior. Thus the widespread of corruption in Tanzania is due to the fact that there are problem of ethics in effecting objectives of the public sector (Kihiyo, 2003). However this study did not state explicitly reasons for dismal compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conduct for public services as it confined itself to corruption as manifestation of unethical behavior that necessitate further study to explore other causes constituting to unethical practices in public sector.

On top of that Warioba (1996) argued that economic changes (economic liberalization and emergency of competitive conspicuous consumption), democratic structure and government procedure are among factors influencing corruption. The preceding factors are not static they change regularly in Tanzania and elsewhere necessitating regular research to identify causes of dismal compliance on code of ethics within a given particular time. Comparatively, some countries such as China where economic liberalization and democratic structures are predominant and strong but corruption and unethical practices are declining.



This is justified by the study of Lapalombara (1994) who posits that level of corruption in China are expected to decrease if controlled economy is more advertised, he further notes that the growth of gross domestic product (GDP) in Scandinavian countries is associated with lower level of corruption. So the studies analyzed above in China and Tanzania introduce another debate and contentious issue as far unethical practices such as corruption are concerned, hence necessitating the further investigation on the causes of un ethical practices in public sector in Tanzania as there is dismal compliance on code of ethics and conduct for public servants.

However due to the impacts of unethical and criminal practices in the public sector is unsupportable in the development of nations, resulting in a loss of confidence in public institutions and an erosion of the rule of law itself. Although the current concern with ethics and corruption is found around the globe, corrupt practices are still present in the development of countries. So as it has been indicated in the empirical studies above, it can be noted that un ethical practices in public sector is not only the problem at local level (Tanzania) but also at regional and globe level, however as it is noted the authors did not examine the causes of un ethical practices in public sector which is expected was addressed by this study.

Therefore this study broadly investigated the causes of depressing compliance on Code of Ethics for public servants as well as the mechanisms put in place to ensure



compliance on the fore stated codes and measures to enhance ethical practices in Bukombe District Council.

## **METHODS AND MATERIALS**

There are various types of research designs but in this study the researcher used case study design through which the researcher made comprehensive description and analysis of a single situation that of Bukombe District Council. This approach of case study provides an in-depth analysis of compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conduct for public service. This research design allowed discussion which provided an opportunity to have a deeper understanding of a person's belief, feelings and behaviors on the matter under study.

# **Purposive Sampling**

Purposive samplings were applied for selecting three members from the Mtaa council in their respective ward as well as two citizens in respective ward. Thus in each ward five (5) respondents were selected to make a total of twenty (20) respondents from the four wards and forty (40) respondents from Bukombe District staff were chosen using simple random sampling, thus the total number of respondents were sixty (60). This is because the researcher on her own judgment selected them accordingly as they posed some particularly and appropriate characteristics required for the study objectives.



Simple random sampling was used when forty (40) respondents from Bukombe district staff members were interviewed out of the total population. The researcher used random sampling procedure to select respondents from Bukombe district staff. The choice of the technique was based on the fact that every item of the universe has equal chance of inclusion in the sample.

Table 1: Sample size

Type of	Number	Percentage (%	Sampling technique
Respondent	Of respondent		
Bukombe district council	40	67%	Simple random
staff			sampling
Respondents from Village	20	33%	Purposive sampling
Councils			
Total Number of	60	100%	
Respondents			
	60	100%	

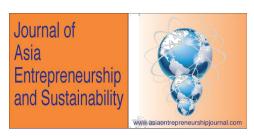
Source: Field data, July, 2020



### **Data Collection Methods**

The study employed variety of methods for data collection. According to Cohen at el (2000) the choice of the research methods depends on the purpose of the research and research questions under investigation. In this study where the main interest was to examine compliance of public servants on ethical code of conducts in-depth interview and documentary review were used.

The researcher decided to employ a variety of methods because of multiple approach (triangulation) allow methods to be corroborated by comparing data produced by different methods and hence an increase in validity of the collected data (Deuscombe, 1998). The use of multiple methods was done intentionally because no single method is adequate in itself in collecting valid and reliable data on a particular problem.



In this study in-depth interviews and secondary data reviews used as data collection methods.

Interview is a process of communication or interaction in which the subject or interviewee gives the needed information verbally in a face to face situation. This method semi structured interview was used. The advantage of using this method is that it conforms to the qualitative approach and facilitates the required level of interaction between the researcher and respondents. The technique enabled the researcher to enter into other person's view/world to understand that person inner perspective and its flexibility enables the researcher to capture as much as rich information as possible.

Open Interview was conducted by researcher during working hours to collect information regarding the study. The interview was un-structured in order to make the exercise more meaningful. Talking to employees on issues concerning code of ethics was very important because respondents could tell what they felt causes of unethical practices in general.

## Data Processing and Analysis

The analysis of data involves computation of indices and measures to determine the validity of data and indicate any conclusion. Data collected from the field were analyzed using triangulation techniques. This is the method used to analyze data



from both qualitative and quantitative research. It is the exercise of combining different methods together in the sense that the problem is studied using varieties of methods. It should be noted that researching the same problem using different techniques is complementary. With the outcomes of understanding deeply the problems under investigation. In this study both qualitative and quantitative methods of data analysis were employed, which enabled the researcher to interpret data collected and ultimately make necessary recommendation and reach a conclusion.

Data analysis begins with individual response and responses from different respondents were purposively sorted and grouped to make them coherent with research objectives and research questions. Comparison of data was done to identify those with similar characteristics. This activity reduced the data into small manageable and analytical packages which were used for analysis and drawing the conclusion as well as putting forward the recommendations for action and further research. Qualitative data were analyzed by using cases and examples whereas quantitative data were analyzed by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) and presented in percentages/frequency, figures and charts.



# PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

Demographic Characteristics of the Respondent

The characteristics of respondent are characterized in terms of demographic and social, where by demographic characteristics are based on age and social characteristics of respondent it based on gender and level of education. The study involved 60 respondents who were representing two categories namely; Bukombe district council staff 40 (67%), and Citizen from Bukombe district Council who are Mtaa council members from four wards namely Namonge, Runzewe East, Runzewe West and Igulwa wards were 20 (33%) respondents. Various reports from Bukombe District Council were used to get more useful information that could be of help to be used for the findings.

#### Age of Respondents

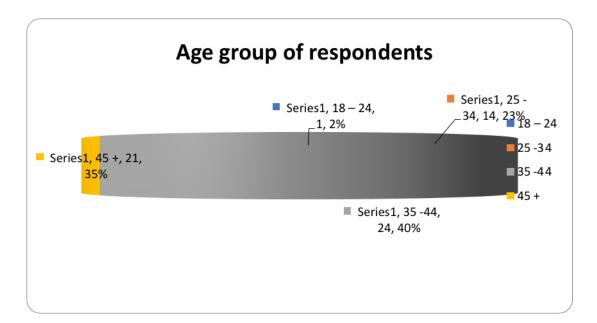
The age distribution was considered in order to establish the age composition of the respondents for instance, which age groups are aware of the causes which hinder ethical practice of public servants in public services. This information gives a picture as to which age group was aware of causes of depressing public service code of ethics and its practice at Bukombe District Council.

Figure 1 shows the distribution of respondents' age. The age pattern shows that 40% of respondents' age is between 35 and 44 years. The next big age group forming 35% is made up of respondents whose age is 45 and above years. The third age group



forming 23.33% is made up of respondents whose age is between 25 and 34 years. The last age group with the lowest proportion in this study is 18 and 24 years which has 1 members forming 1.66% of the total respondents. Table 4.1 shows the distribution of respondents' age. The same information are depicted in the pie chart as shown in figure 1.

Figure 1 Age group of respondents



Source: Field data July, 2020

The findings suggest that respondents aged from 35 and above were aware of Public service Code of Ethics than younger respondents because most of aged respondents had undergone various capacity building training that have facilitated them to be aware of public service code of ethics so as to examine the causes of dismal



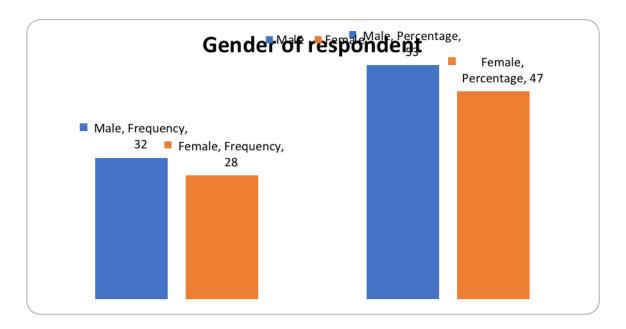
compliance of public servant on the code of ethics. The study revealed that Bukombe District Council staff with the age of 18 and 24 years as well as 25 and 34 years of age had not attended even induction training when they were employed at Bukombe District Council, thus they are performing their duties using their own experience and by leaning organization culture only. All respondents were adults and were all able to provide down to earth experience of causes which hinder ethical practices by Public servants at District Council.

#### Gender of Respondents

The study considered the gender of the respondents in order to establish between men and women who were aware on the existing of Public service code of ethics and the causes which hinder ethical practices by public servants. These respondents differed in gender. In order to analyze the population involved in the study, respondents were categorized by their gender as presented in figure 2.



Figure 2 Gender of Respondents



Source: Study findings, 2020

Figure 2 shows the gender distribution of the sample who participated in this research included male (N= 32 or 53%) whilst remaining sample (N=28 or 47%) were female.

Due to these findings the bigger sample was drawn from male. The implication that one drawn from data on figure 2 is that a good number of men as indicated in figure 4.2 were taken as a sample to represent other men who are public servants at Bukombe District Council. The study revealed that men and women were aware of



causes of dismal compliance of public servants on code of ethics and conduct for public service as it will be shown in the further pages.

#### **Education of Respondents**

It is believed that the level of education contributes a lot in making people aware of their profession ethics which are more related with code of ethics for public services. The more one is educated the higher the possibility of being competent in performing his or her duties which is one aspect of code of ethics for public service that is diligence. Education is crucial to improve performance, reducing poverty, improving general health, and enabling people to play their full part in their communities and nation by delivering services with integrity, accountability, loyalty, and respect of law and with proper use of official information (URT, 2005). Table 1: shows various levels of education for respondents involved in the study.

Table 1: Education of Respondents

Education Category	Frequency	Percentage
Primary education	-	-
Secondary education	4	6
Diploma education	9	15



Advanced Diploma/ 1st	25	42
Degree		
Masters Degree/ Post	22	37
Graduate Diploma		
1		
PhD	-	-
Total	60	100

Source: Field data, July, 2020

Data from Table 1 reveal that most public servants who were involved as respondents in this study conducted at Bukombe District Council are educated where as 6% have secondary education, 15% of respondents have a diploma in education, 42% have bachelor degree 0r advanced diploma while 37% of respondents have either Post graduate diploma or Master's degree. This suggests that most public servants are educated thus they are aware of their profession code of ethics as well as the causes of depressing code of ethics and conduct for public service. However the study revealed that although 42% of the sample is graduate and 37% have post graduate diploma or Masters degree yet still compliance of these public servants is dismal due to number of reasons such as low salaries in relation to cost of life, shortage working facilities, poor working environment, lack of nationality and moral decay of public servant as it is discussed further on exploring the causes hindering ethical practices in public services.



The causes which hinder ethical practices in public services

The first objective of this study was to explore the causes which hinder ethical practices in public service with reference to public servants in Bukombe district council. The study had a total number of sixty (N=60) respondents who were interviewed and various causes were underscored which have accelerated to dismal compliance of public servants on Code of Ethics. In order to know the causes which hinder ethical practices in public service at Bukombe district Council, the researcher started by asking respondents about the causes of unethical practices among public servants. A total of 60 respondents were interviewed in order to get their responses with regard to the causes of un- ethical practices in Bukombe district Council. The responses were as follows 28 respondents (47%) had the view that low salaries for supporting staff and officers in public service as when one assess the salary in relation to the increasing cost of life it solicits one to demand the bribe from customers who seek services.



In addition to that, the fore mentioned respondents estimated the salary of some of Municipal council staff whereby the low cadre with certificate, their basic salary ranged from Tsh.160,000/= to 250,000/= while diploma holder to bachelor degree basic salary ranged from Tsh.350,000/= to 500,000/= where as the top cadre's basic salary ranged from Tsh.1200,000/= to 2700,000/= and above. From the findings above, it shows that low cadre's salary is approximately sixteen times the salary of top cadre. The same range of salary are shown in the table 2.

Table 2: Range of salary according to level of education and cadre

Level of cadres	Range of salary
Low cadre with certificate	T.shs.160,000- 250,000/=
Middle cadre Diploma holder to Bachelor Degree	T.shs. 350,000- 700,000/=
Top cadre's	T.shs.1200,000- 2700,000/= and above

Source: Field data, 2020

Additionally, 15 respondents(25%) of all respondents (N=60) said that lack of motivation in which promotion and other incentives like attending training, workshop and allowances are not based on merit system rather on favoritism, nepotism, religious discrimination, selfishness, and tribalism which discourage staff to perform their duties diligently. Moreover, these respondents revealed that



apart from lack of motivation poor working condition and lack of working facilities were the causes which lead to dismal compliance on Code of Ethics as pursuit of excellence in service was not achieved as a result public servants were misusing official information for private gain.

On the other hand, responses from 11(18%) of all respondents (N=60) said that bad administration which was associated with lack of accountability of top management at Bukombe District Council, lack of training related to code of ethics, lack of patriotism of public servants in general and lack of enforcement of code of ethics and conduct at Bukombe district Council increased unethical practices, as the respondents argued that there is no strong punishment for those who breach code of ethics and the assumption that everyone at Bukombe district Council was unethical had deteriorated public servants' ethics.

In the same vein,6 respondents(10%) of all respondents (N=60) said that other causes which lead to dismal compliance on code of ethics are corruption and political interference that is to say every department in Bukombe District Council is corrupt, when you are seeking services, you must provide a bribe. For example when you go to a certain department to seek services, you need to provide things like lunch food so as to get such services .This view is corroborated by the study conducted by Ngware (2005) on corruption in Local Authorities in Tanzania revealed that as long as working conditions are not improved especially for primary school teachers, health workers, Ward executive officers, police officers



and village executive officers, corruption will always persist. With respect to political interference, councilors and Member of Parliament in Bukombe district council are performing their duties without the limit of their jurisdiction. The above findings are shown in the table 3.

Table: 3. Causes of unethical Practices

Causes	Frequency	Percentage
Low salary	28	47
Lack of motivation and Incentives	15	25
Bad administration	11	18
Political Interference and Corruption	6	10
Total number of respondents	60	100

Source: Field data, 2020

From the above responses, the researcher noted that the respondents had different understanding of various causes of unethical practices. For example, while some respondents mentioned low salary, others said that lack of motivation and incentives, bad administration, political interference and corruption. However as it



is shown in the table 3 above, many respondents (47%) viewed low salary in relation to the increasing cost of life as the major cause of dismal compliance on code of ethics, while 25% of respondents considered lack of motivation and incentives associated with poor working condition and shortage of working facilities as the causes dismal compliance on code of ethics. Whereas 18% of respondents confined themselves on bad administration as a cause depressing ethical practices and 10% stated that political interference and corruption undermines ethical behavior in public service. Hence the researcher viewed that salary increase and improving motivation to staff as well good administration, minimization of political interference and prevention of corruption should be given first priority by Bukombe district council Management and the Government at large. This view was supported by Mamdani and Bangser (2004) who contends that revenue collected in Local Government Councils was not used to provide services as they were misused by unethical public officials for private gain resulting into low quality of service due to unethical practices.

Due to the number of causes of un ethical practices as stated above,83% (50) of all respondents (N=6O) said that they experiences un ethical practices in receiving services at Bukombe District Council, which included providing bribe, abusive language in service delivery, delay in service delivery, poor customer care, embezzlement, extravagant of funds and hiding personal files for staff and customers which record management assistants technically called "...sending the files to mortuary". While 7 respondents(12%) had not experiences of unethical



practices in receiving services at Bukombe district Council, where as 3(5%) respondents did know anything about experiences of unethical practices in public service. In the same vein this view has been supported by Dye and Stapenhurt (1998) who argue that the government should have to consider the adequacy of resources in term of salary for staff, competitive staff and maintain staff skill.

Mechanisms to ensure Compliance on Ethical Codes and their Effectiveness

The second specific objective of the study was to examine the mechanisms put in place to ensure compliance on code of ethics and conduct for public services at Bukombe District Council.

Among 60 (100%) of the respondents who were interviewed, the responses were as follows 39 (65%) of respondents revealed that the mechanisms put in place at municipal level were signing attendance register in the morning aiming to enhance punctuality and minimize absenteeism at work place, having weekly and monthly meeting at the department level, filling open performance reviews and appraisal system form (OPRAS) and establishment of integrity committees while at national level the mechanisms established were establishment of President's Office-Ethics Secretariat which is independent government department entrusted with powers to monitor the conduct of public leaders stipulated in the public leadership code of ethics Act No13 of 1995. Establishment of Prevention and Combating Corruption Bureau (PCCB) so as to prevent corruption in the public sector and private sector, establishment of the Commission for Human Rights and Good Governance with



aim of protecting and promoting good governance and human rights and Ethics promotion department under the President's Office-Public Service Management in which the department has responsibility of monitoring the conduct of public servants in all MDAs and LGAs while 21(35%) did not know whether there is any mechanism put in place to ensure compliance on code of ethic at both municipal and national levels.

In assessing the effectiveness of the mechanisms put in place to ensure ethical practices, out of a total of 60(100%), 42 (70%) of respondents had the view that mechanism put in place at municipal and national levels were not effective due to lack of political will, inadequate budget, ineffective laws, and lack of independence due to interference from politicians and other government departments. In the same vein this view was supported by URT (2008) by arguing that little or no action in part of disciplinary authorities has always been fueling unethical activities among unscrupulous public servants.

On the other hand 18(30%) of respondents said that the mechanisms put in place were effective because various public servants were strongly punished due to the breach of code of ethics, the punishment included termination of job, demotion, and others were taken to the court of law. From the findings above, it is noted that majority of respondents (70%) had the view that mechanisms put in place to ensure compliances on ethical codes were not effective. The findings are presented in Table 4.



Table 4 Assessment of effectiveness of mechanisms to enhance ethical practices

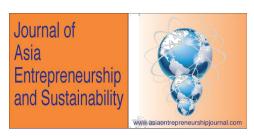
Effectiveness of	Frequency	Percentage
mechanism put in place		
Effective	18	30
Not effective	42	70
Total	60	100

Source: Field data, 2020

In that regard, there is an evident need to strengthen the institutions entrusted with powers to monitor the ethical conducts of public servants at municipal and national levels.

Unethical practice and its effects on service delivery at Bukombe District Council

Among the total of 60(100%) of respondents, 31(52%) had the view that to a large extent dismal compliance on code of ethics has resulted to low revenue collection due to corruption. This fact is further supported by Mutahaba (2005) who argued that there is no doubt that corruption is rampant in all sectors of the economy, public services and politics in the country. There is evidence that even some officers of government organs vested with the responsibility of administration of



Justice namely the Department of National Security, the Police, the Judiciary and the Anti-Corruption Bureau are themselves immersed in corruption.

Delay of social service provision unnecessarily had made citizens to lose confidence over the government, also incorrect reports on financial utilization were provided to the citizens, whereas 16(27%) said that unethical practices have increased deaths of the people due to negligence of medical practitioners, increase of citizens' dissatisfaction toward the general performance of the council and poor performance in education for example form four National examination result in the year 2012 revealed that more than 60% of form four student got division zero, while 13(21%) respondents said that there was increase of land disputes due to double allocation of plots and performance of various activities were below standards like road construction and multi-storey buildings. The findings are shown in the table 5.



Table: 5. Effects of unethical practices on service delivery

Effects of unethical practices on services	Frequency	Percentage
delivery		
Low revenue collection, delay in social services	31	52
provision and lose of confidence over the		
government		
Increase of death, poor performance in	16	27
education, and increase of income poverty		
Increase of land disputes and disillusionment of	13	21
citizen over government		
Total	60	100

Source: Field data, 2020

From the findings above, it is noted that unethical practices have resulted into low revenue collection due to corruption and delay of social service provision, increase of deaths of the people due to medical practitioners 'shortage of working facilities and negligence as well as lose of the citizens' confidence over their government. Therefore, it is imperative to enhance and promote ethical practices in all government sectors in order to improve the wellbeing of the people and in long run



to attain social economic development and restore confidence of citizens over the government.

Measures to be taken to increase ethical practices in public service

The last specific objective of this study was to examine the measures to be taken to increase ethical practices in public service, the finding revealed that 27 (45%) respondents out of all respondents (N=60) said that to increase salary of public servants especially low cadres is one of the measures to minimize unethical practices as public servants were forced to take bribe due to income poverty the call hunger meaning having nothing in the pocket, provision of working facilities such as papers, printer, cartilage and car to facilitate officers like land officers and engineers who need to go to the field, and availability of electrical power can facilitates public servants to perform their duties diligently, additionally this group of respondents argued that improving working condition is an important aspects of encouraging staff to work effectively, as currently the offices are not conducive at Bukombe Council the offices have poor ventilation and dark when there is no electrical power.

On the other hand 13(22%) respondents out of all respondents (N=60) had these to say, strengthening public institutions entrusted with powers to monitor the conduct of public servants (Watch dog institutions) such as Ethics promotion department



under Presidents' Office Public Service Management, Presidents' Office Ethics Secretariat, as well as Presidents' Office, Prevention and Combating Corruption Bureau is among measures to promote ethical practices and compliance of public servants on code of ethics, and to be accountable public servants who were proved to breach code of ethics is an important attribute in order to enhance ethical practice in public services. This has been corroborated by Common Wealth Secretariat (2000) who argues that strong ethics institutions have to be supported at the highest levels of government if any ethics management strategies are to succeed.

On top of that 12 (20%) respondents of all respondents viewed that minimizing political interference from some of Members of Parliament and Councilors is among the measures to promote ethical practices in public service, Seminars and workshops concerning code of ethics should be provided to public servant and politicians so as to reduce unethical practices among public servants. Additionally 8 respondents (13%) viewed provision of motivation and other incentives such as breakfast, lunch allowance and having computerized system of record keeping is among measures to be taken to enhance ethical practices as issues like hiding staff personal files and client files for private gain for example files of Land Certificate of Occupancy can be minimized.

However including ethics subject in education curriculum so as ethics to be imparted to children from kindergarten school to university level is valuable thing



in building future generation for socio- economic development. As it has viewed by Armstrong (2005) that formal training of ethics in educational institutions is essential in fostering ethical conduct in public sector and in the entire community. The information is shown in table 5.

Table 5 measures to enhance ethical practices

Measures to enhance ethical practices	Frequency	Percentage
Improving salary and working condition	27	45
Strengthening watch dog institutions	13	22
Minimizing political interference	12	20
Provision of motivation and incentives to staff	8	13
Total Number of Respondents	60	100

Source: Field data, 2020

The same information is depicted in histogram figure 4.6

Based on the findings the researcher gets the picture that improving salary and working condition strengthening watch dog institutions, minimizing political interference and provision of motivation and incentives like promotion when they



deserve, lunch allowances and moral incentives like recognition were important in effective and efficient service delivery to the public.

Based on a review of the available literature and assessment of selected area of this study it is seen that compliance of public servants on code of ethics would be an effective tool of qualitative and quantitative service delivery in Tanzania government in all MDAs and LGAs as code of ethics instill discipline in the profession, ensure professionalism and integrity of its members, maintain public trust, and remind the old public servants on do and don'ts.

However the findings of this study revealed that there were number of causes which hinder ethical practices in public service such as low salary, lack of motivation and incentives, bad administration ,shortage of working facilities and political interference as well as corruptio



n. The mechanisms put in place to enhance compliance of public servants on code of ethics were not effective due to lack of political will, lack of its independence, inadequate budget and ineffective laws. The effects of dismal compliance of public servants on code of ethics were low revenue collection, increase of death, and delay in services provision as well as lose of citizen confidence over the government, poor performance in education, increase of income poverty and increase of land disputes as well as disillusionment of citizens over government.

In the same vein the suggested measures to enhance ethical practices and thus compliance on code of ethics by public servants were improving salary and working condition, strengthening watch dog institutions such as Ethics Secretariat, Prevention and Combating Corruption Bureau, as well as Ethics promotion department under Presidents Office Public Service Management. Similarly minimizing political interference through civic education to politicians concerning the limit of their jurisdiction in performing their duties, which should go hand with hand with provision of motivation and incentives to staff such as promotion, recognition and training as well as provision of strong punishment for public servants who breach code of ethics.



#### Conclusions

To conclude it can be said that the research general objective was to examine the compliance of public servants on code of ethics at Bukombe district Council. There were four specific objectives of the study which included, to explore the causes which hinder ethical practices in public service with reference to Bukombe district Council, to examine the mechanisms put in place to ensure compliance on code of ethics at Bukombe District Council, to examine the extent in which dismal compliance on code of ethics by public servants affects public service delivery at Bukombe district council and to examine the measures to be taken to increase ethical practice in public service.

For the case the causes for the missing links which hinder ethical practices it is evident that low salary compared to the increase cost of life is one aspect which depress ethical practices as according to response from respondents 47% viewed low salary as hindrance of ethical practices, followed by lack of motivation and incentives, bad administration associated with lack of accountability of top leaders, as well as political interference and corruption.

On the other hand mechanisms put in place to ensure compliance on code of ethics were found ineffective as 70% of respondents stated that there is little enforcement of code of ethics. The results of depressing code of ethics were low revenue



collection as 52% of respondents stated that most of revenue collected were used for private gain other effects were lose of citizen confidence over government, increase of death, poor performance in education and increase of land disputes.

As un-ethical conduct was viewed as problem among public servants which need to be addressed measures suggested by interviewees were to increase salary, provision of working facilities and improve working facilities, strengthening public institutions entrusted with powers to monitor the conduct of public servants which should go hand in hand with strong punishment for those who were proved to breach the code of ethics, minimizing political interference from politicians and provision of motivation and other incentives to public. The researcher, after conducting the research on compliance of Public servant on code of ethics and conduct for public service would like to recommend further research to be conducted on the Effectiveness of watch dog institutions in Tanzania and the influence of leadership styles in ethics promotion in public sector.



## References

Bawole, J. N. and Sakyi, E.K. (2009). 'Challenges in implementing code of conduct within the public sector in Anglophone West African countries:

Perspectives from public managers, Journal of public administration and policy research Vol. 1(4) pp. 068-078.

Deuscombe, M (1998). The Good Research, a guide for small scale social research project. Buckingham Open University.

Fisher, C. and Alan, L. (2006). Business ethics and value, individual corporate and international perspective : second edition. Harlow Prentice Hall.

Fjelstad, H, O (2003). New Challenges for Local Government Revenue Enhancement, Formative process research on local government Reform in Tanzania, Dar es Salaam, REPOA (Project Brief no. 2; 2003).

Gilman, C.S. (2005). Ethics Codes and Code of Conduct as Tool for Promoting an Ethical Professionals Public Service: Comparative success and Lessons.

Washington Dc

Guy, M. E.(1990). Ethical decision making in every day work situations. New York.

Lapalombara, J.(1994). Structural and Institutional Aspects of Corruption. Social Research Foundation in China.

Mutahaba, G.(2005). Pay reform and corruption in Tanzania's public service. Dar e es Salaam.

Ngware, S.(2005).Report on Corruption in Local government authorities Tanzania Polidano, C. and Hulme, D. (1997). "No Magic Wands: Accountability and Governance in Developing Countries" in Regional Development Dialogue Vol.18, No.2, Autum.

Rasheed, S. and D. Olowu (eds). (1993). Ethics and Accountability in African Public Services Addis-Ababa: UNICA and AAPAM.

Shanks, T. (2006). Business Ethics and Public Policy: Canada.

Svensson, G.and Wood, G. (2004). Proactive versus reactive business ethics performance: a conceptual framework of profile analysis and case illustrations: CorporateGovernance, Vol. 4

The United Republic of Tanzania (2005). Code of Ethics and Conduct for Public Service, Dar es Salaam: Government Printer.



United Nations (2001|) Public Service Ethics in Africa. United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs Division for Public Economics and Public Administration

The United Republic of Tanzania (2009). The Prevention and Combating Corruption Bureau Report, Dar es Salaam.

The United Republic of Tanzania (2002) The Public Service Act, Dar es Salaam: Government Printer.

The United Republic of Tanzania (2003) The Public Service Regulations, Dar es Salaam: Government Printer.

The United Republic of Tanzania (1996) The report of the Presidential Commission of Inquiry against Corruption: 'Warioba Report', Dar es Salaam:EDI