

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

**Self-determination and Entrepreneurship:
Personal Values as intrinsic motivators of
Entrepreneurial Behaviour.**

WILLIAM WALTON KIRKLEY

A thesis submitted for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Of Massey University, Auckland

New Zealand

2010

ABSTRACT

The study of entrepreneurs has often led to conflicting views about what motivates an individual to engage in entrepreneurship. The historic focus on the traits and characteristics of specific individuals perceived by others to be entrepreneurs, has yielded results that are, at best, speculative and difficult to substantiate. This study has taken a different approach by isolating entrepreneurial behaviour and examining its antecedent components. Specifically, the study sought to discover the internal loci of causality that motivate an individual to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour.

The study was based on an inductive and interpretive research design within a constructivist paradigm. A small quantitative survey was conducted initially to screen an appropriate sample, the results of which were later used as an aide memoire during in-depth interviews, with thirty New Zealand entrepreneurs. The bulk of the data sourced in this study originated through the interview process. These focused specifically on the meaning individuals attributed to certain fundamental values associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. The resulting narrative was subjected to discourse analysis and categorised into relevant themes.

Four fundamental values are believed to be critical to entrepreneurial behaviour, namely, independence, creativity, ambition and daring. These values were expressed as psychological needs and act as intrinsic motivation for entrepreneurial behaviour. Only twenty three percent of the sample (7 out of 30), however, could demonstrate consistent motivation through these four principles. The balance of the participants acknowledged the importance of these four principles to entrepreneurial behaviour. However, the majority admitted that there had been a shift in their behaviour toward management, which placed more emphasis on independence and ambition in the value-set. Creativity and daring were accorded much lesser attention as the individual focused on growing their business. This shift in emphasis in the value-set is perceived to be one cause for the episodic and inconsistent occurrence of entrepreneurial behaviour amongst New Zealand business people.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

My heartfelt and sincere thanks go to the members of the Department of Management and International Business on the Albany campus (now the School of Management), both past and present, for their encouraging words and support throughout this process. I can still hear the words 'GET IT DONE!' ringing in my ears and which will no doubt haunt me for some time to come!

In particular I'd like to thank my supervisors, Associate Professor John Monin who provided the 'big picture' detail of the project and then left me alone to get on with it; and Dr Andrew Cardow, a long standing colleague, whose keen eye for detail proved invaluable during research and the writing of this thesis.

I'd also like to thank the participants to this study who gave up several hours of their valuable time to explain their life philosophies, their beliefs and the events that influenced their thinking and behaviour. You are all part of an important network and I thank you for having provided me with the opportunity to share your experiences.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Self-determination and Entrepreneurship:

Personal Values as intrinsic motivators of Entrepreneurial Behaviour.

CHAPTER ONE: Introduction and Overview	1
1.1. In search of the research gap	3
1.2. Concepts, Definitions and Scope	9
1.3. Research contribution and Strategy	13
1.4. Thesis outline	15
1.5. Summary	15
CHAPTER TWO: Building a contextual model of Entrepreneurial Behaviour	17
2.1. Entrepreneurial Behaviour	19
2.2. Opportunity Identification	21
2.3. Self-determination, Self-identity and Self-efficacy	24
2.4. Values	41
2.5. Thesis overview	47
CHAPTER THREE: Research Design and Methodology	49
3.1. The Worldview supporting this study	50
3.2. Theoretical perspective	52
3.3. Methodology	54
3.4. Overview of the Research Process & Methods	55
3.5. Ethical considerations	65
3.6. Summary	66
CHAPTER FOUR: Discovering Values and their Interpretation	67
4.1. Biographic data	68
4.2. Values associated with Entrepreneurial Behaviour	69
4.3. Meaning and Themes	72
4.4. Summary	87
CHAPTER FIVE: Values content and what they mean	89
5.1. Values and value-sets	90

5.2. Values and the valuing process	92
5.3. Values as psychological needs	95
5.4. Values as extrinsic and intrinsic motivation	97
5.5. Assessing Values Content and Meaning	104
5.6. Summary	130
CHAPTER SIX: Values and Entrepreneurial Behaviour	132
6.1. The Motivation to behave entrepreneurially	132
6.2. Values and Intrinsic Motivation	134
6.3. Values and Self-determination	140
6.4. Values and Self-identity	143
6.5. Values and Self-efficacy	157
6.6. Summary	168
CHAPTER SEVEN: Values, Intrinsic Motivation and Entrepreneurial Behaviour	170
7.1. The Entrepreneurial Value-set	172
7.2. The Meaning of Entrepreneurial Values	174
7.3. The interaction between self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy in entrepreneurial behaviour	177
7.4. The Role of Values in Entrepreneurial Behaviour	179
7.5. Limitations of this study	181
7.6. Potential Research Questions	182
7.7. Conclusion	183
REFERENCES	185
APPENDICES	203

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Top Five rated values	70
Table 2: Attributes assigned to those perceived to be entrepreneurial	74 - 75
Table 3: What it means to be entrepreneurial	76
Table 4: Entrepreneurial values and their descriptions	79 - 80

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1: A proposed model of entrepreneurial behaviour	41
Figure 2: A proposed holistic model of entrepreneurial behaviour	47
Figure 3: The research process	57
Figure 4: The relationship between Entrepreneurial Behaviour, Self-efficacy and Self-identity in Self-determined Behaviour	178

Chapter 1: Introduction and Overview

"People are always blaming circumstances for what they are. I don't believe in circumstances. The people who get on in this world are the people who get up and look for the circumstances they want, and, if they can't find them, make them."

George Bernard Shaw – *Mrs Warren's Profession* (2006, p.29)

My interest in what motivated individuals to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour stems largely from the confusing array of observations I have made over the years concerning the identification and study of 'entrepreneurs'. I have met 'entrepreneurs' who profess to be 'entrepreneurs' but who do not act like 'entrepreneurs'. I have met others who do not identify themselves as 'entrepreneurs' but who act like 'entrepreneurs'. I have also met individuals who are 'casual entrepreneurs' that is, sometimes they act like 'entrepreneurs' and sometimes they don't. Then there are those who behave consistently like 'entrepreneurs' but are not bothered by it anyway and just get on with the job at hand. The definitional confusion surrounding what constitutes an 'entrepreneur', 'entrepreneurship' and 'entrepreneurial activity' is furthermore unhelpful. It is little wonder then that the debate still rages between what constitutes an 'entrepreneur' and how they are distinguishable from other successful businessmen.

As will be discussed later in this thesis, reference to commonly held traits and personality characteristics as identifiers of entrepreneurs has been inconsistent and open to critique amongst theorists and researchers alike for some considerable time. In my view, there is something deeper than physical characteristics or traits that distinguish entrepreneurs from other business people. I have reasoned that if one could establish what those differences were, and identify entrepreneurial talent early enough, the job of providing appropriate knowledge, skill, experience and encouragement would be made that much easier.

The lack of a commonly accepted and distinctive definition of what constitutes an entrepreneur, entrepreneurship and more specifically entrepreneurial behaviour, is a serious obstacle to deal with. There is a widespread and popular generalised acceptance of the perception, particularly in a New Zealand context, that anyone who starts a business

must be an entrepreneur (Frederick, Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2006). Yet, earlier research suggests there are important distinctions between business originators and entrepreneurs (Markman & Baron, 2003). Person–organization fit research, for example, investigates the antecedents and outcomes of compatibility between individuals and the work they perform, as well as the organizations they choose to work in (Kristof, 1996). The results of such research indicate that individuals choose work environments for a variety of different reasons, including their attitudes, values, abilities, personality, and job requirements. Other factors such as those relating to organizational structure and culture also have some influence over the individual’s decision to work in a particular environment (Van Vianen, 2000). The conception of person–organization fit research therefore emphasizes congruence in values, goals, attitudes, and personal interests of the individual with the work they perform. Stated differently, individuals are attracted to work opportunities that are consistent with their values and which fulfil their needs (Cable & Judge, 1996).

This study has developed along pathways similar to that of career choice in organizational psychology (Collin & Watts, 1996; Cohen & Mallon, 1999). From an organizational psychology perspective, conceptions of what factors cause individuals to choose one career over another have evolved from static, content based theories to dynamic, process oriented theories (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970). Content theories explore specific cognitive factors within individuals that initiate, direct, sustain and stop behaviour. Process theories investigate how behaviour is initiated, directed, sustained and stopped. According to Landy (1989, p. 379) research focused on developing and testing content (that is, needs based) theories of motivation during the 1950’s and 1960’s (Maslow, 1959; Aldefer, 1972; McClelland, 1961; Herzberg, 1966) has been infrequent and sometimes misleading. As a consequence, content based theories gave way to Mischel’s (1973) personological perspective that behaviour is the result of an interaction between the person and the situation (Shaver & Scott, 1991). This is not to say that content based theories are no longer relevant. Indeed, present day teaching and research in entrepreneurship are increasingly focused on cognitive content theories. This study utilises arguments from both perspectives in exploring why individuals engage in entrepreneurial behaviour.

Process based models of organizational motivation gave rise to the development of Vroom’s (1964) Expectancy theory which was later succeeded by Locke’s (1968) Goal-setting theory

and culminating in today's widely recognized Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977). Early research into the entrepreneurial personality has followed a similar path by focusing on identifying traits and characteristics that separate entrepreneurs from the rest of the general population (for example, McClelland, 1961; Churchill & Lewis, 1986; Shaver & Scott, 1991). Results were however mixed and inconclusive (Shaver & Scott, 1991; Herron & Sapienza, 1992) and by the turn of the century research on personality traits and characteristics appeared to have reached an impasse. A recent resurgence in content based theories of organizational motivation has taken place (Rauch & Frese, 2007) with results suggesting that certain traits and characteristics achieve a high degree of stability over time (Caprana & Cervone, 2000; Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz & Knafo, 2002). The question remains, however, as to what causes an individual to develop and express these traits and characteristics.

This chapter is intended to introduce the reader to the overall theme of the research conducted in this study as well as to provide a conceptual overview of the terms used in explaining entrepreneurial behaviour. I also aim to provide the reader with a broad outline of the research strategy together with a design framework that explains the main research objective and its ancillary components. The chapter concludes with a broad summary of the study's main theme and an overview of the chapters that follow.

1.1 In search of the research gap

Approximately three years ago I recorded a conversation with a friend I regard as the quintessential entrepreneur;

Me:

I'm looking to recruit a number of entrepreneurs for a study I'll be doing. I've contacted some fairly well known people so far spread throughout the country, but to balance that I would also like to include a few from up here. Besides yourself, do you know of any other entrepreneurs I can get together for this study?

Entrepreneur:

I'm afraid you're going to have difficulty. The moment you go looking for them you won't find them.

Me:

Really? Why's that?

Entrepreneur:

Any call to gather entrepreneurs together and ask them about themselves is going to be problematic. Those who turn up will, in all likelihood, be 'entrepreneur wannabees', people who haven't got a clue about what an entrepreneur is and aren't likely to have one anytime soon. I can give you the names of several people I know to be entrepreneurs but then you're buying into what I perceive is an entrepreneur. They may not want to participate anyway because they don't know they are entrepreneurs; and could probably care less anyway. And then there are those who truly know what it means to be entrepreneurial and actually believe they are entrepreneurs but they won't turn up either. They understand the value of their personal time and energy and they won't want to waste it talking to a bunch of 'entrepreneur wannabees'.

Me:

That's strange, I haven't come across this problem anywhere else, why should it happen up here?

Entrepreneur:

Then you had best check your list again and ask yourself whether they are genuine entrepreneurs. You see, the entrepreneurs I know don't go around saying 'Hey, look at me, I'm an entrepreneur!' That's the first sign that they aren't. What you want to do is to identify entrepreneurial behaviour and then pursue it, isolate it and interrogate it.

Me:

What do you mean by 'entrepreneurial behaviour'?

Entrepreneur:

Behaviour that is innovative, behaviour that is different to the norm, behaviour that communicates new ideas that gets everyone excited. It's the behaviour that tells you a lot about the person behind it, not the label they attach to themselves. (Jay ... personal communication, October, 2006).

The above conversation highlights the difficulties associated with selecting a suitable sample for this study and the confusion that exists when attempting to identify individuals as entrepreneurs. If I had followed my entrepreneur's advice, the circularity of the above argument would have meant that it would be impossible to select suitable candidates for this study. Firstly, the identification of individuals who had started their own business would

have been insufficient justification for their classification as an entrepreneur. Second, simply calling or labelling someone an entrepreneur does not necessarily mean that they are one. Third, if I was to achieve the sample I was looking for, I needed to search out what constituted entrepreneurial behaviour, define it, then using that definition, seek out those engaged in that behaviour. In the absence of a generally accepted definition of what constitutes entrepreneurial behaviour however, efforts would have succumbed to the same circular argument. I therefore used a process of selection whereby individuals were pre-screened against a specific set of criteria and included or excluded on the basis of their responses to these pre-qualifying criteria. This process is discussed further below in the Methodology chapter.

The above conversation did however provide some insight and guidance regarding entrepreneurial behaviour. Throughout my review of existing literature on motivation and entrepreneurship, I have been struck by the lack of a unified theory that provides a holistic explanation for entrepreneurial behaviour. Theorists have tended to approach the phenomenon from singular perspectives, that is, through an investigation of individual personality characteristics and traits (Rauch & Frese, 2007; Kuratko, 2008); the acquisition of specific knowledge or skills that lead to self-efficacy beliefs (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Chen, Greene & Crick, 1998); or the adoption of cognitive attitudes and intentions that lead to entrepreneurial behaviour (Kreuger, Reilly & Carsud, 2000; Kreuger, 2000, Kreuger, 2003b, Kreuger, 2007). Moreover, the fragmented nature of isolated investigations into elements of entrepreneurship has not led to any further clarity regarding definitional certainties within the field. Indeed, if anything, they have served only to muddy the waters to the point where Gartner's (1989, p.146) frustration with the descriptive characterisations of entrepreneurs as a 'generic everyman' seem well founded.

Entrepreneurs and the dynamism of entrepreneurial activity are used as yardsticks to measure the economic progress of whole societies (Kolvereid, 1996; Shane, 2003; Alvarez, Agarwal & Sorenson, 2005). It would seem that there is an increasing practical focus on the occurrence of entrepreneurship, and more importantly, on the cultivation of entrepreneurial behaviours. A weak conceptual framework, however, and the sheer unpredictable nature of individuals engaged in entrepreneurial activity have conspired against neat categorisation. So much so, that Low & Macmillan (1988, p. 148) comment:

Being innovators and idiosyncratic, entrepreneurs tend to defy aggregation. They tend to reside at the tails of personality distributions and though they may be expected to differ from the mean, the nature of these differences is not predictable. It seems that any attempt to profile the typical entrepreneur is inherently futile.

Despite the difficulties associated with categorisation on the basis of traits and characteristics, research has attempted to identify the environmental and situational factors associated with entrepreneurial activity (Kreuger, et al, 2000). The research by Kreuger, et al, (2000) was based on the assumption that if environmental and situational factors are attractive enough, individuals will be motivated to engage in entrepreneurship. Factors such as government policy, resource availability, job loss or displacement, stimulation packages and personal rewards were all expected to have some influence on the individual's decision to engage in entrepreneurial activity. However, subsequent research by Acs (2002) found that Government funded stimulation packages, for example were no more conducive to the promotion of entrepreneurial activity than any other financial stimulus. The same findings were apparent with job loss. An individual who had lost their job (particularly a person with no previous entrepreneurial experience) would actively seek out alternative employment and security before engaging in what was personally deemed to be risky entrepreneurial activity (Alvarez, et al, 2005).

Around the same time that research into traits and characteristics stagnated a new trend concentrated on developing process oriented models that focus on cognitive constructs such as perception, intentions, attitudes and beliefs (Mitchell, Smith, Seawright & Morse, 2000; Kreuger, et al, 2000; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shane, 2003). The complexity of human endeavour, such as establishing a new business venture, is suggested to be based on an individual's cognitive faculties (Segal, Borgia & Schoenfeld, 2005, p. 44). One starting point of an investigation into what stimulates individuals to engage in entrepreneurship begins with an examination of the behavioural expression of entrepreneurial activity and works in reverse by exploring the antecedents to its manifestation. The essence of this argument is captured by Kreuger (2007, p. 123):

... most of us are unmindful of our deep beliefs or their impact on the ways we perceive, think and feel. I also believe that examining deep beliefs affords us the opportunity to better understand entrepreneurship because:

Behind entrepreneurial action are entrepreneurial intentions;
Behind entrepreneurial intentions are known entrepreneurial attitudes;
Behind entrepreneurial attitudes are deep cognitive structures;
Behind deep cognitive structures are deep beliefs.

Kreuger (2007) defines 'deep beliefs' as 'deeply held strong assumptions that underpin our sense making and our decision making' (p. 124). Research on deep beliefs is scant and that which does exist focuses mainly on those beliefs that are developed in an educational context or at a collective cultural level (Hofstede, 1980). There is limited literature of the interaction between deep beliefs in a business context other than to confirm that deep beliefs do play a significant role in decision making and subsequent action at firm level (Watson, 1964; Bennett, 1999; Morrison, 2000). Deep beliefs in the context of the definition provided above and as it applies to this study, are construed as personal and strongly held principles or core values that influence how we perceive the world around us, and which motivate the way we think and act. A value is defined as

... an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence (Rokeach, 1973, p. 5).

Herron and Sapienza (1992, p. 49) have stated: 'Because motivation plays an important part in the creation of new organizations, theories of organizational creation that fail to address this notion are incomplete.' What motivates individuals to want to set up their own business is an important area of study that several theorists have subsequently ventured into with varying levels of success (Birley & Westhead, 1994; Gatewood, Shaver & Gartner, 1995; Kolvereid, 1996; Carter, Gartner, Shaver, & Gatewood, 2003; Shane, Locke & Collins, 2003; Wilson, Marlino, & Kickul, 2004).

Historically, theorists in entrepreneurship have suggested the prospect of monetary reward and wealth was the key motivation that most attracted individuals to engage in this process (Schumpeter, 1942; McClelland, 1961; Kirzner, 1979). However, extrinsic rewards such as money have been revealed to have a negative effect on an individual's intrinsic motives to continue a particular activity (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

Other researchers have delved deeper into what motivates an individual to become self-employed. Most of that research centres on the individual's need for 'autonomy', that is the urge for independence and freedom (Shane, Kolvereid & Westhead, 1991; Birley & Westhead, 1994; Kolvereid, 1996; Carter, et al, 2003; Shane, et al, 2003; Wilson, et al, 2004; van Gelderen & Jansen, 2006). While autonomy may be highly valued by the individual it does not adequately explain the presence of other intrinsic values associated with entrepreneurial behaviour that are equally, if not more important, to personal motivation and specifically entrepreneurial behaviour. Furthermore, the need for autonomy on its own does not distinguish between behaviour associated with normal business activity and entrepreneurial behaviour.

The proliferation of small business in New Zealand is often touted as evidence of a highly developed entrepreneurial culture (GEM, 2004). With over half a million businesses, approximately eighty four percent of which employ five people or less (www.stats.govt.nz), there appears to be no shortage of individuals seemingly motivated to engage in setting up business. However, it needs pointing out that not all business activity is necessarily entrepreneurial. While there is implicit acceptance that entrepreneurs are intrinsically motivated to engage in entrepreneurial activity (Gimeno, Folta, Cooper & Woo, 1997; Hebert & Link, 1998; Hitlin, 2003; Murnieks & Mosakowski, 2007) there has been no explicit study of what these intrinsic factors are. This study seeks to redress this gap in entrepreneurship research by exploring the set of commonly held values that motivate individuals to behave entrepreneurially. The intent is not to simply list what these values are, but to explore what meaning individuals attribute to them and to discover how they contribute to the individual's overall expression through entrepreneurial behaviour.

The essential question to be addressed through this study is therefore:

What role do personally held values play in entrepreneurial behaviour?

In keeping with the holistic nature of this thesis and the intent to build a theory around entrepreneurial behaviour, I considered it prudent in a practical context to break this question into three further ancillary questions as follows:

1. What set of values do entrepreneurial individuals subscribe to?

- 2. What meaning do entrepreneurial individuals attach to each of these commonly held values?**
- 3. How do these commonly held values manifest themselves in entrepreneurial behaviour?**

Note here the reference to 'entrepreneurial individuals' as a proxy for the term 'entrepreneurs' through this thesis. This avoids the complexities associated with 'labelling' individuals as 'entrepreneurs' when they are not, an issue which is addressed more fully later in this thesis.

The purpose of the first question above is to verify an assertion that individuals occupying a specific role within a social context subscribe to a small (usually four or five) set of values attributed to that role (Feather, 1992). The objective of the second question is to determine whether there is commonality of meaning amongst the sample group regarding the values attributed to entrepreneurial behaviour. The purpose of the third question is to determine how these values are expressed through various manifestations of entrepreneurial behaviour.

1.2 Concepts, Definitions and Scope

Given the evolution in organizational psychology and the present focus on cognitive antecedents to entrepreneurial behaviour, I considered it relevant to move from a static conception of entrepreneurship as solely focused on new venture creation (Gartner, Bird & Starr, 1992; Gartner & Carter, 2003) to one which is more process oriented (Shane & Venkataramen, 2000; Shane, 2003). I have subsequently chosen a widely recognised and utilised definition of entrepreneurship to base this study on that states:

Entrepreneurship is an activity that involves the discovery, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities to introduce new goods and services, ways of organizing, markets, processes and raw materials through organizing efforts that previously had not existed (Shane, 2003, p. 4).

The definition is broad enough to include the possibility of new venture creation as well as the creative combination of resources that culminate in innovative new products or services inside existing organizations.

In adopting this definition of entrepreneurship, a number of key issues need to be clarified. First, the definition points to three separable activities, namely, opportunity discovery (identification), opportunity evaluation (assessment) and opportunity exploitation (implementation). For purposes of this study I sought to focus on opportunity identification only, because the series of tasks associated with this phase of entrepreneurship best describe the type of behavioural outcome I am looking to isolate and interrogate. Opportunity evaluation and exploitation are activities that usually involve other individuals in the process of entrepreneurship and those individuals may or may not display the same entrepreneurial behaviour or have the same belief structure as the person who identified the opportunity in the first place.

Second, I have chosen to acknowledge that there are those who choose to behave entrepreneurially and that they are different from those who choose not to (Aldrich, 1999; Carroll & Hannan, 2000; Markman & Baron, 2003). I acknowledge that there are some individuals for example, who choose to start up new ventures that are not entrepreneurial in origin that is, a venture which is not founded on an innovative new product or service. Indeed, even individuals who choose to behave entrepreneurially are different again from their fellow participants by virtue of their distinct personal choices, interests and insights. Specifically, these differences refer to the knowledge, skills, experiences and beliefs of the individuals themselves (Casson, 1982; Venkataraman, 1997; Shane 2000; Klepper & Sleeper, 2000). A further distinguishing feature appears to be the individual's decision criteria regarding whether or not to engage in entrepreneurial activity (Shane 2003). Several factors could impact on the individual's decision such as, economic conditions, market readiness, timing, capacity and having the resources to optimally exploit the opportunity. Thus an entrepreneurial individual might withhold expression of entrepreneurial behaviour because extraneous circumstances are not suitable for opportunity exploitation. Despite these differences I propose that fundamentally there is a common set of core personal values or beliefs that underpin entrepreneurial behaviour within an economic context and which act as motivators for it. The presence of a common value set is key to a closer examination of the antecedents to entrepreneurial behaviour in a practical context.

Third, the frequently cited notion of 'risk' is generally accepted as an inherent feature of the entrepreneurial process (Shane, 2003). Risk in the context of this study has been defined as

‘the pursuit of a course of action that has a reasonable chance of costly failure, where failure is a significant negative difference between anticipated and actual results’ (Morris, 1998, p.78). The creative and innovative nature of introducing a new idea (be that a product, service or new venture) to the market brings with it a number of potential occurrences that cannot be predicted with any certainty. With the best will in the world, regardless of what the individual believes in and no matter how motivated the individual is; there are some factors (for example, legislation, economic crises, civil unrest, political pressure) that cannot be manipulated or influenced, particularly when they fall outside the individual’s immediate control. Hence, what may seem to be a viable opportunity in the individual’s mind may still fail regardless of having been supported with superior competence, exceptional motivation, unwavering belief and extraordinary insight (Venkataraman, 1997).

Finally, entrepreneurship by definition requires some form of innovation. This is what sets it apart from other typical business and management practices. By innovation I mean the creative combination of resources in such a way as to produce a unique and commercially viable product or service that is needed and/or demanded by an identified market (Venkataraman, 1997; Kirzner, 1997; Baron & Shane, 2004). Of note is the fact that such innovation need not be revolutionary or radical, but it cannot simply be an imitation of what already exists. If innovation is an inherent feature of entrepreneurship, it follows that an individual will place significant value on being different, novel and unique and this should therefore be reflected in their behaviour.

I have used a definition of entrepreneurship that is deliberately situated in the economic / commercial realm because this is where my research interests lie. Narrowing the study to one specific discipline (economic/commercial activity) enables me to identify and isolate specific behaviours associated with opportunity recognition that I am familiar with and which are relevant to this study. While my initial focus concentrated on the entrepreneurial activity associated with new venture creation (Gartner, 1989; Gartner, Carter & Reynolds, 2004; Shane, 2003) as a means of identifying potential participants I later modified my search to incorporate what I perceived to be entrepreneurial behaviour. This therefore, did not preclude the incidence of entrepreneurship occurring in established business, and was one further means of qualifying that entrepreneurial activity was taking place and enabled

the identification and isolation of entrepreneurial behaviour (Gartner, 1989). New venture creation is associated with a range of specific and tangible behavioural tasks that must be completed in order for there to be a successful business launch, not least of which are the creative/innovative activities associated with offering something new and unique to the market.

Entrepreneurship is, as a creative and dynamic process, not limited to new venture creation or an economic domain. The multifaceted nature of the concept means that it could apply across multiple dimensions and a range of different disciplines (Low & MacMillan, 1988, p. 500). However, to examine entrepreneurship across multiple boundaries would be unrealistic and unwieldy. The scope of this study was consequently limited to an economic/commercial domain, an area I am more confident in researching.

The entrepreneurial individual is an integral part of the entrepreneurial process, so much so, that any study of entrepreneurship that does not include a definition of what constitutes a so-called 'entrepreneur' would render its findings meaningless (Carland, Hoy & Carland, 1988). Similarly, Shaver and Scott (1991, p.39) state:

Economic circumstances are important, marketing is important, finance is important, even public agency assistance is important. But none of these will, alone, create a new venture. For that we need a person, in whose mind all of the possibilities come together, who believes that innovation is possible, and who has the motivation to persist until the job is done. Person, process and choice: for these we need a truly psychological perspective on new venture creation.

Like entrepreneurship, definitions of what constitutes an 'entrepreneur' proliferate throughout the literature. Defining an 'entrepreneur' is complicated by their inherent diversity, the complexity of the relationships between the various roles they occupy and the potentially vast number of contingencies that can be subjected to examination.

The plethora of definitions regarding what does and what does not constitute an 'entrepreneur' is, I believe, a rather unstable platform upon which to explore the dynamics of entrepreneurial behaviour. The variability in definitions and their subjective interpretation will inevitably result in conflicting views of what constitutes an 'entrepreneur' depending on the reader's perspective and the meaning they attach to the construct.

I have therefore adopted a strategy in this research of playing the 'ball' (entrepreneurial behaviour) instead of the 'man' (the so-called 'entrepreneur'); meaning that entrepreneurial behaviour can be examined separately from the individual displaying it. In addition my approach also views the constructs of 'entrepreneur' and 'entrepreneurship' as metaphors for the occurrence of innovation, creativity, risk/uncertainty and pro-activity within the entrepreneurial process (Cardow, 2006). Thus, entrepreneurship as a process involves the proactive discovery or creation of innovative products or services, against a backdrop of risk/uncertainty. This enables me to address the behavioural components of entrepreneurial activity rather than focusing on individuals who others might label as 'entrepreneurs' based on no other proof than they have started up their own business (Markman & Baron, 2003; Baron & Shane, 2005). The separation of entrepreneurial behaviour from the individual allows a closer examination of the antecedents that make up or cause that behavioural expression.

1.3 Research Contribution and Strategy

Probing the fundamental beliefs of entrepreneurial behaviour at an individual level is an area where few studies have ventured. The values most often associated with entrepreneurial activity are predicated on Western values such as individualism, competitiveness, material gain and a strong work ethic (Schumpeter, 1950; Cauthorn, 1989; Herbert & Link, 1998). Other researchers have demonstrated that relationships exist between entrepreneurial activity and culturally based values such as individualism, achievement, independence and masculinity (Hofstede, 1980; Berger, 1991; Lipset, 2000). At a collective cultural level then there is evidence of a link between entrepreneurial behaviour and the collective cultural values of specific ethnic groups (Morris & Schindehutte, 2005). Yet little is known of the relationship between values at an individual level or how they influence entrepreneurial behaviour.

The evolution of the importance of entrepreneurship to world economies cannot be underestimated. Not only are governments taking increasing interest in the field as they attempt to rescue their flagging economies (Audretsch & Thurik, 2001; UN Conference on Trade and Development, 2004), individuals are also becoming increasingly circumspect

about the choices they make regarding their careers (Spoonley, De Bruin & Dupuis, 2004). This study seeks to make a contribution to the field by exploring the role personally held values play in motivating individuals to engage in entrepreneurial activity. A further contribution is to develop an alternative means of identifying entrepreneurial talent through values profiling.

The primary focus of this study is on those personal core values that trigger entrepreneurial behaviour. I am mindful that participants to this study would not necessarily be consciously aware of their core personal values and thus chose a research strategy that engaged individuals in a dialogue that probed their sub-conscious rationale for engaging in entrepreneurship. The approach taken also needed to be balanced with my own background and knowledge of the subject under examination.

I therefore chose a predominantly qualitative, inductive research strategy based on a constructivist framework of entrepreneurial cognitive development. This strategy is based on the premise that humans are intrinsically motivated to acquire and assimilate knowledge, information and skills relevant to a particular behavioural activity and to give it their own meaning. It is also based on the premise that the principles (in this case, values) that inspire this behaviour are not only common amongst certain individuals, but are also relatively stable over long periods of time.

The method utilised in this exploratory study is Phenomenographic, the phenomenon being entrepreneurial behaviour, which is ideally suited to identifying, isolating and interpreting specific behavioural conditions. A small quantitative values survey (Schwarz, 1992) was used to assist in broadly determining a common values framework followed by in-depth interviews to further clarify the meaning and importance attributed to each value. The results of each interview were subjected to discourse analysis and categorised into themes which is an appropriate means of presenting a Phenomenographic study. Thirty participants were extensively interviewed with over 80 hours of dialogue recorded.

1.4 Thesis outline

Chapter two of this thesis describes the contextual setting in which this study has been conducted using personally held values as a central construct. The overall theme of the study is one of building an explanatory theory which attempts to provide the reader with a holistic image of entrepreneurial behaviour, its component parts and the underlying principles upon which it is based. A number of different theories and a broad section of motivation literature are reviewed that lead to the construction of a preliminary model of entrepreneurial behaviour. A variety of disparate factors are thought to motivate individuals to behave entrepreneurially. The development of this preliminary model is an attempt to provide a foundation upon which to build the current research project and ultimately to provide an explanatory theory of entrepreneurial behaviour and what motivates it.

Chapter two also examines extant theory and research in the area of entrepreneurial motivation and compares this with the proposed model. The conclusion of this chapter highlights the research gap and elaborates on the area under investigation. Chapter three outlines the research design and the methods that were used to address the research question. Chapter four reports on the findings of the fieldwork while Chapters five and six discuss the meanings attributed to those findings as well as the relationship values have with various sub-components of entrepreneurial behaviour. Chapter seven compares the results of the discussion chapters with the proposed model and draws conclusions regarding the model's veracity as an explanatory instrument. Limitations to the study and avenues for further research are also highlighted in this final chapter.

1.5 Summary

The objective of this chapter was to set out the scope of the study and to provide a broad positional outline of the approach that will be taken in conducting the research. The chapter sets this project within an economic discipline and provides definitions congruent with entrepreneurial business activity noting key issues relevant to the overall theme. The primary focus of this study is the notion of personally held values and their role at an individual level as intrinsic motivators of entrepreneurial behaviour. The following chapter

expands on the context of this study by examining the constitution of entrepreneurial behaviour in more detail. I propose that entrepreneurial behaviour can be broken down and explained through a model comprising three self constructs, namely self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy. At the centre of these three constructs lie personal values which provide the stimulus to engage in entrepreneurial activity.

Chapter 2: Building a Contextual Model of Entrepreneurial Behaviour

My objective with this chapter is to set the context within which this study was carried out. I provided my recorded conversation with an entrepreneur in the previous chapter for the purpose of clarifying the focal point upon which this thesis has been constructed. This is the identification, isolation and interrogation of entrepreneurial behaviour and the underlying motives that cause it. The best way to describe the process followed in achieving this end was to utilise a recognized practice from the technical design discipline known as 'reverse engineering'. Reverse engineering is the process of discovering the technical principles and workings of a device, object, system or process by examining its structure, function and operation (Chikofsky & Cross, 1990, p. 13). The purpose of reverse engineering is to deduce design decisions from end products with little or no additional knowledge about the procedures involved in the original production. The approach is a novel one, specifically as it applies to entrepreneurial behaviour, because it opens up the possibility of deconstructing behaviour in order to examine its antecedent causes. It is also appropriate in this study because it is based on the premise that many people can readily identify entrepreneurial behaviour when they see it; yet have very little knowledge about what causes it or how it is produced (Kilby, 1971).

Chell, Haworth & Brearley, (1991, p. 33) have suggested that entrepreneurial activity can be categorised under three headings: the motivation or intention to create wealth and accumulate capital; the ability to recognize opportunities for wealth creation; and judgement or 'knowing' which opportunities to pursue. While I have no objection to the phases themselves, that is, motivation, intent and identification; my view regarding the target of those activities, that is, wealth creation and capital accumulation, does differ. I posit the view in this thesis that entrepreneurial activity is pursued for the purpose of giving behavioural expression to deeper needs held by the individual such as creativity and independence. This study therefore focuses primarily on the first of the above categories, namely those factors that stimulate an individual to engage in entrepreneurial activity. This

study furthermore uses the second category that is, recognizing or identifying opportunities, as the behavioural output that result from these antecedent factors.

As I have mentioned in Chapter One, the individual's desire for autonomy is an important intrinsic motivation for anyone with an aspiration to engage in entrepreneurship. However, in my view, the desire for autonomy on its own does not cause entrepreneurial activity. An individual with a strong sense of autonomy may well engage in other activities, including paid employment so long as they feel they are able to express and feel their autonomy in a real and authentic way (Ryan & Deci, 1990). This suggests that there are other factors which need to be explored, and which have been specifically associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. It is these other values, that is, the individual's inherent need for challenge, stimulation, creativity, innovation and independence that distinguish entrepreneurial behaviour from other business behaviours (McClelland, 1961; Kirzner, 1979; Shane, 2003; Kasser, 2002). Sub-conscious values such as those listed above are, however, not directly observable in entrepreneurial behaviour. The individual's inherent need for stimulation or challenge, for example, is not readily observed from their behaviour. There are intermediate behavioural structures that act as conduits through which stimulation and challenge can be expressed (McLaughlin, 1965, p. 258).

The intent of this chapter is to examine these antecedent conduits of entrepreneurial behaviour and construct an explanatory model that will be used to underpin the findings of this study. In doing so an assertion is made that the three constructs I introduce here, namely, self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy provide a foundation upon which entrepreneurial behaviour can be explained in more detail. At the core of these three constructs lie personal core values, which can be indirectly identified through each 'self' construct. Because values influence the way an individual thinks; makes decisions and acts, I posit the view that it is a specific set of values that operate as intrinsic motivators which provide the impetus for entrepreneurial behaviour.

This chapter begins with a brief analysis of the composition of entrepreneurial behaviour followed by a more detailed discussion of the component parts from extant literature. A visual depiction of entrepreneurial behaviour is provided with a summary highlighting the inter-relatedness of each of the antecedent constructs. The latter part of the chapter

reviews the evolution of research on entrepreneurial behaviour. It then explores more recent literature on core values and their inter-relationship with the three self constructs.

2.1 Entrepreneurial behaviour

Morrison, Rimmington & Williamson posited the view that the process of entrepreneurship is founded on the interaction between the individual, their intuition, society and culture. Entrepreneurship is much more holistic than simply an economic function, and the process represents the outward expression of a combination of explicit and implicit behaviours based on pragmatism and idealism (1998a, p. 59). The essence of this process is to bring about the application of innovatory processes whilst remaining inherently cognizant of the risks involved, and to initiate change within a social and economic context.

The key to initiating the process of entrepreneurship lies within the individual members of society, and the degree to which an entrepreneurial spirit is collectively recognised as being desirable. Accordingly Kirzner (1979) believes the source of an enterprising spirit to be within the individual and that it will be exposed under circumstances of uncertainty and competition. This enterprising spirit is eloquently described by Gilder (1971, p. 258):

The spirit of enterprise wells up from the wisdom of ages and the history (of the West) and infuses the most modern of technological adventures. It joins the old and new frontiers. It asserts a firm hierarchy of values and demands a hard discipline. It requires a life of labour and listening, aspiration and courage. But it is the source of all we are and can become; the saving grace of democratic politics and free men, the hope of the poor and the obligation of the fortunate, the redemption of an oppressed and desperate world [Emphasis mine].

The critical question to be asked is how this entrepreneurial spirit is unleashed within the individual so that it leads to entrepreneurial behaviour? If, as Morrison, et al, (1998a) state that the process is based on individual, social and cultural interaction, it follows logically that there needs to be a closer examination of the social and cultural dimensions that lead to the release of this enterprising spirit. Tayeb (1988, p. 42) presents a definition of culture and its scope as:

A set of historically evolved learned values, attitudes and meanings, shared by the members of a given community that influence that material and non-material way of

life. Members of the community learn these shared characteristics through different stages of the socialisation processes of their lives in institutions, such as family, religion, formal education, and society as a whole.

Furthermore, Tayeb (1988) and Van der Horst (1996) emphasise that not all individual members of a society follow rigidly, and without question all the dimensions of their cultures in every aspect of their lives. There are consequently some individuals who will be motivated to deviate from the cultural norm by the values they subscribe to. Hofstede (1994) has suggested that an individual's behaviour need only be partially predetermined by their cultural upbringing. All individuals have a basic ability to deviate from cultural norms and react in ways that are creative, innovative, destructive, or unexpected, that is, in ways that would be best described in the current context as entrepreneurial. This premise gives further weight to the argument against the existence of 'entrepreneurs'. If all members of society have the inherent ability to deviate from accepted social norms and values then similarly all individuals have the ability to behave entrepreneurially. There can therefore be no specific ethnographic grouping of 'entrepreneurs'.

This perspective of culture emphasises the importance of exploring the cultural dimensions of entrepreneurial behaviour which recognises that most human beings do not perceive the world equally. The entrepreneurial world is intuitively shaped and interpreted (Weber, 1976) through each individual's attitudes, attributes, behaviours and values, at the interpersonal level (Parker, Brown, Child & Smith, 1972). Thus, culture is made by people interacting, and at the same time determining future interaction (Trompenaars, 1993). Interaction leads to the exchange of knowledge and the acknowledgement of status which in turn leads to the reinforcement of self-identity. In addition, because individuals belong to a number of different cultural levels, layers and contexts at the same time, people will inevitably behave in different ways. These different ways correspond to the identities and roles prevalent within society and with which they may simultaneously associate.

From the above, it would therefore appear that the relationship between certain cultural and societal factors and the initiation of entrepreneurial activity is significant. From a macro perspective, it can be accepted that people belonging to a certain country tend to exhibit collective cultural similarities (Hofstede, 1980). However, from a micro perspective an individual's interpretation of that cultural orientation may differ substantially. The social

framework within which an individual finds themselves provides a particular paradigm that allows the individual to function. This paradigm results in shared sets of characteristics, attitudes, behaviours and values. Continuous social interaction enables the interpretation, shaping and internalisation of values associated with overall economic activity and in particular, entrepreneurial behaviour.

Furthermore, it is acknowledged that individual members of society have the freedom to negotiate a self-identity and to deviate from cultural norms (Hofstede 1980, Trompenaars, 1993). This deviation from cultural norms in the current context, demonstrates itself through entrepreneurial behaviour and through the process of entrepreneurship. The degree to which society supports such behaviour will be dependent on their interpretation of values that underpin that behaviour and whether these are congruent with the greater society's norms and values. Thus, a society which does not readily acknowledge or value entrepreneurial activity is unlikely to support it. The opposite is also true however; a society that values and actively supports entrepreneurial activity is more likely to gain substantially by encouraging it, for example, Finland, Ireland, Malaysia and Taiwan.

2.2 Opportunity Identification

One interpretation of entrepreneurial behaviour suggests that it is characterised by a 'proactive search for opportunities within a market and the propensity to take risks in order to achieve a certain goal' (Drucker, 1985, p. 25).

If, as it is asserted in this study, one of the goals of entrepreneurial behaviour is the recognition of an opportunity, then there is a need for a closer examination of what constitutes opportunity identification. In order for there to be entrepreneurship there needs to be an opportunity which is either discovered or created (Shane, 2003; Alvarez & Barney, 2007). The discovery or creation of an opportunity requires different competencies from the individual.

There are two views of entrepreneurial opportunity identification in the literature. One view holds that entrepreneurial opportunities pre-exist in an objective sense (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shane, 2003) and that it is the task of the entrepreneur to discover them. Opportunity recognition thus becomes tied to circumstance and the perceptive

capability of the individual. Knowledge of the particular industry, social networks, experience and skills, such as constant environmental scanning and entrepreneurial thinking (Sarasvathy, Simon & Lave, 1998), are therefore necessary for opportunity discovery (Kirzner, 1973; Shane & Khurana, 2001; Klepper & Sleeper, 2001; Romanelli & Schoonhoven, 2001). From a purely objective point of view entrepreneurial behaviour can be assessed, through an examination of the individual's knowledge, skill, and networks.

The other view provides for a creationist perspective that suggests entrepreneurial opportunities are constructed by individuals themselves (Alvarez, Agarwal & Sorenson, 2005; Alvarez & Barney, 2007). Opportunity creation is thus an intensely personal experience, generating potential ideas, the successful implementation of which cannot be guaranteed or substantiated by prevailing circumstances in the environment. The individual's creativity, tolerance for ambiguity and skills in managing uncertainty and risk are consequently tested in developing a unique and innovative solution (Schumpeter, 1934; Casson, 1982; Venkataraman, 1997, Loasby, 2002). In the context of this perspective entrepreneurial behaviour would be almost wholly linked to cognitive capacity. The emphasis would be on perceiving, thinking creatively and the individual's value orientation. The degree of perseverance, persistence and their response to risk in bringing the creation to market would perhaps be the only means of objectively assessing the individual's capability to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour.

I have adopted the view in this study regarding whether opportunities are discovered or created as consistent with Alvarez's argument (2005, p. 13) such that;

... a more reasonable approach seems to be to recognize the value and the limitations, of each of these theories, and to specify the conditions under which each should be applied.

Entrepreneurial opportunities are therefore perceived to be discovered, created or both. Discovery versus creation is not at issue in this study. It is what motivates the individual to actively seek out opportunities or to create them that is under investigation. I have therefore defined entrepreneurial behaviour as the outward expression of a combination of knowledge, skill (perception and creative), experience, networks, and specific motivational

farces (values) that result in unique and innovative products, services and methodologies that were not present before.

An entrepreneurial opportunity does not just 'happen'. The opportunity first starts out as an idea, that idea is usually the product of the individual's thinking based on their knowledge and experience in a particular field of endeavour. The individual may perceive a unique blend of existing resources that lead to a viable innovation that is, 'discovering' the opportunity (Kirzner, 1997; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shane, 2003). An opportunity may also evolve as a consequence of the individual's own creative thought processes, one that takes an idea from a level of abstraction to a concrete form that is, 'creating' the opportunity. The process of opportunity identification is therefore a uniquely cognitive exercise, the core of which is entrepreneurial thinking (Saravathy, 2005; Kreuger, 2007).

Since the discovery or creation of an entrepreneurial opportunity is said to be a cognitive process that occurs within the individual's mind, it is meaningless to talk about the task of opportunity identification in a collective context (Venkataraman, 1997). An entrepreneurial opportunity requires one individual to perceive it as an opportunity. Collective action comes to the fore in the assessment and exploitation phases of entrepreneurship when others engage in the process bringing the idea into practical, applied reality. Speculation on the presence of an opportunity, however, is influenced by the possession of information or beliefs that lead an individual to think a certain way about a means-ends framework (Shane, 2000). Because perceptions differ from one individual to another and information is unevenly distributed across the population not everyone will recognize a potential opportunity or even the same potential opportunity.

Entrepreneurial opportunity recognition by one individual differs from opportunity recognition through collaboration with others for two main reasons. First, some individuals have better access to information about the possibilities of an entrepreneurial opportunity. Access to key information comes about as a result of a number of factors such as; job experience, searching capability, social networks and the individual's absorptive capacity (Cohen and Levinthal, 1989; 1990; 1994). Second, some individuals are simply better than others at processing the same information because they have a better equipped cognitive capability (Shane, 2003). The ability to process and categorize that information efficiently

and effectively relies primarily on an individual's capacity and motivation to think entrepreneurially (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990) as well as their self-efficacy.

Prior experience confers an ability to recognize the value of new information, to learn, and to apply it to new commercial ends (Cohen & Levinthal, 1990). Experienced individuals are therefore more likely to search for information within a specific industry based on their past experiences and knowledge of processes and information sources that have worked well in the past (Fiet, Piskounov, & Gustafsson, 2000; Shane, 2003), while individuals with little or no prior experience may have fewer guidelines to follow in discerning information that would be relevant to the identification of an entrepreneurial opportunity (Cooper, Folta, & Woo, 1995). Such findings suggest there are levels of self-efficacy in individuals ranging from 'novice' to 'expert'.

2.3 Self-determination, Self-identity and Self-efficacy

I mentioned earlier that values are not directly observable and are therefore not consciously expressed through behaviour. I have furthermore made the assertion that entrepreneurial behaviour comprises three inter-related constructs; self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy. These constructs provide, in my view, the channels through which an individual's values can be expressed as well as the means through which identification of entrepreneurial individuals can be made. These assertions are consistent with the building of an explanatory theory of entrepreneurial behaviour. An explanatory theory first identifies the variables (self-determination, self-identity, self-efficacy and values) important for understanding an observed outcome (entrepreneurial behaviour); and second, explains how these variables interact to produce the observed outcome (Thomas & Brubaker, 2008). That is essentially what this study seeks to achieve.

Self-determination is the first foundational component upon which entrepreneurial behaviour is derived. I have based this on the premise that entrepreneurial behaviour is a form of self-determined behaviour which in turn is intrinsically motivated because it is targeted at achieving some desirable outcome for the individual (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Martin and Marshall (1995) summarised the evolving definition of self-determination as describing individuals who:

... know how to choose - they know what they want and how to get it. From an awareness of personal needs, self-determined individuals choose goals; then doggedly pursue them. This involves asserting an individual's presence, making his or her needs known, evaluating progress toward meeting goals, adjusting performance and creating unique approaches to solve problems, (p. 147).

Wehmeyer (1992, 1996a) defined self-determination as 'acting as the primary causal agent in one's life and making choices and decisions regarding one's quality of life free from undue external influence or interference', (1996a, p. 24). People who consistently engage in 'self-determined behaviours' can be described as self-determined, where 'self-determined' refers to a natural disposition.

However, self-determination of its own accord is insufficient to support a claim that an individual is behaving entrepreneurially. An individual could act in a self-determined way for any number of behavioural roles and reasons which can be easily identified through the individual's dedication to task and conviction to principle. An individual, who behaves entrepreneurially, should similarly demonstrate conscientious effort both physically and mentally in pursuing and identifying opportunities that are innovative and commercially viable.

Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), is the second foundational component of entrepreneurial behaviour. Self-efficacy is said to be;

People's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances (Bandura, 1997, pg. 391).

Self-efficacy comprises the knowledge, skill and experience (competence) to outwardly express self-determination. This component of entrepreneurial behaviour provides substance to the individual's behavioural expression and is demonstrated through the confidence with which they approach entrepreneurial activity. Self-efficacy is also displayed through the individual's explanation of the factors that influence their reasoning and decision making.

The third foundational component upon which entrepreneurial behaviour is based is the meaning given to 'being entrepreneurial' or 'being an entrepreneur' by the individual. Self-identity, that is, the manner in which an individual describes themselves in certain roles, is somewhat more complex and is also not readily observable through behaviour. Indeed,

there are those individuals whom others identify as being entrepreneurial and who appear to demonstrate a determination congruent with behaving entrepreneurially, but who do not see themselves as 'entrepreneurs' (Murnieks & Mosakowski, 2007). An opposing view also exists when the individual perceives themselves as entrepreneurial but this is not acknowledged in a wider social context, nor is it necessarily reflected in their behaviour. To overcome this problem it is thus necessary to probe the meaning individuals attribute to the entrepreneurial role and to discover through self-description and narrative their conception of entrepreneurial behaviour. I turn now to a further discussion on these three constructs and clarify the interrelationships between each of them.

2.3.1 Self-determination

Entrepreneurial behaviour is primarily self-determined behaviour, that is, individuals decide for themselves what courses of action they will follow (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Shane, 2003; Kreuger, 2007). Within the definitional framework of self-determined behaviour reference is made to actions that are identified by four essential qualities: (a) the individual acts autonomously, (b) their behaviour(s) are self-regulated, (c) the individual initiates and responds to event(s) in a 'psychologically empowered' manner, and (d) the individual acts in a self-realising manner.

Central to the construct of self-determination is the notion of autonomy (a value) which is defined by Stainton (2000, p. 20) as; 'the capacity to formulate and pursue plans and purposes which are self-determined.' A key feature of this definition is the notion of capacity, that is, not only should the individual be cognitively able to decide the course of action to follow but they should also be in a position to decide (Stainton, 2000). Thus, the person's recognised position or status (self-identity) within any given context or role determines whether they are able to decide unilaterally on a course of action. A second feature of the definition has to do with the individual's ability to act, in other words, the individual needs the requisite knowledge, skills and experience (self-efficacy) to implement their decision. Entrepreneurial behaviour relies quite heavily on the individual's perception of themselves as being autonomous as well as having the confidence and competence to behave entrepreneurially.

Self-regulated behaviours include self-management strategies (including self-monitoring, self-instruction, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement), goal-setting and attainment behaviours, problem-solving behaviours, and observational learning strategies, all of which the individual needs to be entrepreneurial (Agran, 1997). Self-regulation is critical to entrepreneurial behaviour as it assists the individual in acquiring the requisite skills and knowledge to be able to successfully exploit entrepreneurial opportunities. Self-regulation furthermore enables the protection of the entrepreneurial opportunity by controlling the flow of confidential information to others and timing opportunity exploitation for maximum affect.

Psychological empowerment is a term referring to multiple dimensions of perceived control, including its cognitive (self-efficacy), personality (locus of control), and motivational domains (Zimmerman, 1990). Essentially, individuals who act in a psychologically empowered manner do so on the basis of a belief that they (a) have control over circumstances that are important to them (internal locus of control) and that they are autonomous, (b) possess the knowledge, skills and experience necessary to achieve desired outcomes (self-efficacy), and (c) when they choose to apply that knowledge, skill and experience are reasonably confident they will achieve identified outcomes (outcome expectations).

Finally, self-determined individuals are self-realising in that they use a comprehensive, and reasonably accurate, knowledge of themselves and their strengths and limitations to act in such a manner as to capitalise on their abilities. This self-knowledge and self-understanding forms through personal experience with entrepreneurship and the individual's subjective interpretation of the environment within which they operate. It is also influenced by evaluations from significant others, reinforcement, and their belief in themselves regarding their own behaviour (Wehmeyer, 1996a).

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) is an approach to human motivation and personality that highlights the importance of a persons' inner resources for personality development and behavioural self-regulation (Ryan, Kuhl, & Deci, 1997). Thus, it focuses on an investigation of people's inherent growth tendencies and their innate psychological needs that are the basis for their self-motivation and personality integration. Within SDT, three distinct psychological needs have been identified that underpin whether or not an individual can be identified as

self-determined; the need for competence (White, 1963; Harter, 1978), the need to relate to others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995), and the need for autonomy (deCharms, 1968; Deci, 1972).

The cornerstone of SDT is the self; it is the integrative centre of the organism (Deci, 1975). It is the set of psychological processes that attempt to make experience a holistic encounter and allow the individual to feel authentic through behavioural expression (Ryan, 1995). In an attempt to grow and integrate the individual seeks out those activities that they find intrinsically motivating, that is to say they seek out activities they value (Rogers, 1964, p. 161). Rogers (1964) presents a view that individuals are born with a valuing process that helps guide their behaviour. Ryan (1995) agrees that the valuing process emerges developmentally from the self as a means of determining what the self likes and does not like. The valuing process operates within a particular context (function, domain or discipline) and against a backdrop of a particular culture. These two elements, context and culture, provide the broad paradigmatic boundaries within which the individual assesses which values to adopt. Valuing can therefore be understood as an evaluative function of the self which aids in its growth, in part by selecting activities that will be beneficial to it and avoiding those that will not (Kasser, 2002). From the perspective of self-determination then, an individual is said to wholeheartedly endorse a course of action, or engage in it because he/she values it (Ryan & Connell, 1989). To extend this argument to the present study, self-determined individuals engage in entrepreneurial behaviour because they value it and perceive that they will benefit by it in some way.

Another fundamental aspect to SDT is the notion that all individuals possess psychological needs that help them grow and integrate (Ryan, 1995). For the individual to grow and optimally integrate their experiences, the individual's psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness (ability to relate to others; need for self-esteem) and competence (the combination of knowledge, skill and experience or self-efficacy) must be satisfied. Individuals should feel that they have freedom of choice, can interact with like-minded others and that they are effective at what they do. Thus, values play an integral role in self-determination by substantiating the individual's system of psychological needs. Schwartz (1992, p. 4) stated that;

Values represent, in the form of conscious goals, three universal requirements of human existence to which all individuals and societies must be responsive: needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction and survival and welfare needs of the group.

Individuals base their self-determination not only on their values but also on natural inclinations, interests and curiosities. Individuals are thus said to be intrinsically motivated, that is, they behave as they do because the individual finds these behaviours inherently interesting, enjoyable or satisfying (Deci, 1972; Deci & Ryan, 1985). Intrinsic motivation is the key ingredient for self-determined behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

SDT distinguishes between different types of motivation based on the various reasons or goals that give rise to a particular behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The most basic distinction is between intrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable, and extrinsic motivation, which refers to doing something because it attracts rewards from outside the individual and leads to a separable outcome (Deci, 1972).

Some theorists (Combs, 1982; Purkey & Schmidt, 1987; Purkey & Stanley, 1991) maintain that there is only a single kind of intrinsic motivation, which can be described as a motivation to engage in activities that enhance or maintain an individual's self-identity. This view is somewhat limiting and confines human motivation to the singular act of self promotion. Others (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Malone & Lepper, 1987) define the term more broadly to include the ability for self-determination and the striving for competence resulting in self-efficacy. This study follows this latter definition because it incorporates the notions of self-identity as well as self-efficacy. Over three decades of research has shown that the quality of experience and performance can be very different when an individual is behaving for intrinsic versus extrinsic reasons (deCharms, 1968; Amabile, DeJong, & Lepper, 1976; Bandura, 1986). The importance of competence to self-determination is addressed in the following discussion on self-efficacy, the second construct upon which entrepreneurial behaviour is grounded.

2.3.2 Self-efficacy

Of all the thoughts that affect human functioning, standing at the very core of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) are self-efficacy beliefs. Self-efficacy beliefs are:

... people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances (Bandura, 1997, p. 391).

Self-efficacy is best understood in the context of social cognitive theory, an approach to understanding human cognition, action, motivation and emotion that assumes people are proactively engaged in shaping and constructing their environments rather than submissively reacting to them (Bandura, 1986; 1997; 2001; Barone, Maddux & Snyder, 1997).

Self-efficacy beliefs provide one of the foundational cornerstones for human motivation, well-being, and personal accomplishment (Bandura, 1997). Unless people believe that their actions can produce the outcomes they desire, they have little incentive to act or to persevere in the face of difficulties (Bandura, 2000, p. 75). Considerable empirical evidence now supports the assertion that self-efficacy touches virtually every aspect of an individual's life - whether they think productively, creatively, pessimistically or optimistically (Bandura 1997; Maddux, 1999b); how well they motivate themselves and persevere in the face of adversities (Kirsch 1999; Maddux 1999b; Baumeister & Vohs, 2003); their vulnerability to stress and depression (Deci & Ryan, 1995; Bandura, Pastorelli, Barbaranelli & Caprara, 1996), and the life choices they make (Epel, Bandura & Zimbardo, 1999; Maddux & Gosselin, 2003). Self-efficacy is a critical determinant of behavioural self-regulation (Baumeister & Vohs, 2003).

Self-efficacy enables the behavioural expression of what intrinsically motivates the individual and what they identify with. Self-efficacy is more than knowledge, skills, experience and beliefs (Bandura, 1977). It is the individual's evaluation or judgement of their capability to perform that produces a feeling of confidence in being able to express what they believe within an entrepreneurial context. Values are posited to play a further role in self-efficacy by directing the individual toward the acquisition of skills and experiences necessary for entrepreneurial behaviour to occur.

The literature identifies five key sources from which self-efficacy beliefs develop (Bandura 1977, 1997; Boyd & Vozkis, 1994; Maddux & Gosselin, 2003) which could form the foundation of an assessment metric that identifies entrepreneurial potential. The first and strongest source of self-efficacy belief is the individual's performance experience (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Successful performance is a powerful reinforcement of the individual's self-efficacy beliefs that enables subsequent positive performance. Whilst successful performance is necessary it is not the sole condition for high levels of self-efficacy. Mastery experience is an important factor deciding a person's self-efficacy (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994). Mastery experience is repeated successful performance. The most effective way for individuals to develop a strong sense of self-efficacy is through repeated performance accomplishments leading to a sense of mastery (Bandura, 1977, 1982; Gist, 1987; Wood & Bandura, 1989).

However, when people experience only easy successes, they become quickly discouraged by failure when it occurs. In order to gain a more stable and resilient sense of self-efficacy, it is necessary to have direct experience in overcoming obstacles through effort and perseverance (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Performance setbacks serve the useful purpose of teaching that sustained effort is usually necessary for success. In addition, if people develop a sense of confidence in their capabilities through experiencing success, failures and setbacks may be more effectively managed (Wood & Bandura, 1989). Simply put, success raises self-efficacy, failure lowers it. For example, the individual who succeeds in consistently bringing innovations to market is likely to reinforce their self-efficacy beliefs and boost their confidence to do so again.

A second source of self-efficacy beliefs is vicarious experience or observing the behaviour of others (Bandura, 1997). Albeit a weaker source of influence on self-efficacy than actual experiential performance (Boyd & Vozkis, 1994) the alert individual will observe the actions of others and learn to adapt their behaviour accordingly. There is a process of comparison used by the individual with others of the same orientation giving rise to the notion that 'if they can do it, I can do it as well'. When individuals see someone else succeeding at something, their self-efficacy will increase (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002); and where they see others failing, their self-efficacy will decrease (Bandura, 1986). This process and its consequences are more pronounced when the individual perceives themselves as similar to

his or her colleague (Mussweiler, 2003). If a peer who is perceived as having similar ability succeeds, this will likely increase an observer's self-efficacy. Although not as powerful as mastery experience, behavioural modelling as it has been described here is an important influence when an individual is particularly unsure of him or herself (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). A nascent entrepreneur, for example, could gain significantly in confidence through working alongside and observing the actions of an experienced serial entrepreneur and then develop expectations of how they would perform under similar circumstances.

A third source of influence on self-efficacy is that of the individual imagining their effective or ineffective performance in hypothetical situations (Williams, 1995). This is a weaker source than both mastery experience and behaviour modelling through observation. The images used in imagining derive from actual or vicariously observed experiences. The process of imagining can be particularly effective when used as part of a deliberate strategy to alter behaviour and usually in a situation such as mentoring or coaching (Knoblich & Flach, 2001, p. 467). Imagining does however have a lesser effect on an individual's self-efficacy if it leads to inadvertent day-dreaming or reflection that is not targeted at the situation under coaching.

Verbal persuasion (Bandura, 1986) is the fourth source of self-efficacy beliefs. What others say about an individual's ability and actual performance can enhance the probability of repeat performance and a successful outcome. This of course depends on the source of the verbal persuasion and whether this is a trusted, reliable and expert role model. Most individuals can remember times where something was said to them that significantly altered their confidence. Where positive persuasions increase self-efficacy, negative persuasions decrease it. It is generally easier to decrease someone's self-efficacy than it is to increase it. Research in the area of verbal persuasion and attitude change acknowledges its usefulness in reinforcing positive self-efficacy beliefs (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Verbal persuasion also has the effect of reinforcing the individual's self-identity as argued earlier.

The final source of self-efficacy beliefs can be attributed to the individual's physiological and emotional state at the time they are learning about performance. Thus, poor performance or perceived failure in an endeavour is linked to poor physiological or emotional arousal. Success on the other hand is associated with a positive physiological and emotional state (Bandura, 1997). The individual who feels ill equipped or whose confidence is below par

with the demands of the task, for example, formulating a business strategy, is likely to perform poorly. This feeling is likely to be reinforced on every occasion they are confronted with the same task until such time as they have acquired the experience, knowledge, skills and confidence to perform it successfully.

Through self-reflection, individuals make sense of their experiences, explore their own cognitions and beliefs, engage in self-evaluation, and alter their thinking and behaviour. Self-reflection is also critical to maintaining a self-identity that is congruent with expressed behaviour. Self-efficacy beliefs influence the individual's choice of goal directed behaviour, expenditure of effort and perseverance in the face of challenge and obstacles (Bandura 1986; Locke & Latham, 1990). In short, self-efficacy provides the individual with not only an intuitive self-confidence in their ability to forge ahead with an idea but also the energy and perseverance to achieve a successful outcome. A successful outcome reinforces the individual's sense of self-efficacy. The reinforcement of the individual's self-efficacy in turn supports their self-identity.

Self-efficacy is about more than confidence, drive and perseverance. Entrepreneurial behaviour cannot occur without the requisite knowledge, skills and experience. Research has demonstrated that entrepreneurial individuals engaging in the process of entrepreneurship who have a higher base of knowledge, skill and experience will outperform those who are lower on this dimension (Chen, et al, 1998).

According to social cognition theory's triadic reciprocal causation model, self-efficacy operates as an interacting determinant to bi-directionally influence behaviour (Bandura, 1997). For instance, research shows that high self-efficacy is fundamental in most human functioning, including efforts at overcoming substance abuse (Bandura, 1999), avoiding homelessness (Epel, et al, 1999), attaining high academic achievement and social influence (Bandura, 1999), learning and mastering educational tasks (Bandura, 1993) and - most importantly from the present perspective - business success (Bandura, 1997).

Since self-efficacy positively affects diverse human functioning, it is suggested here that it will have similar consequences in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour. For example, individuals high in self-efficacy not only prefer challenging activities; they also display higher staying power in those pursuits because being entrepreneurial is a stimulating process

(Bandura, 1997). Thus, it follows logically that individuals who have high self-efficacy will outperform individuals with lower levels of self-efficacy in the achievement of entrepreneurial goals. Similarly, because the motivation to act is highest when individuals believe and are confident that their actions (for example, starting a new business) lead to achievable outcomes (a successful venture), high self-efficacy becomes an important ingredient in successful entrepreneurial behaviour.

Research shows that self-efficacy successfully differentiates entrepreneurially oriented individuals from non-entrepreneurs (Chen, et al., 1998). In a study of patent inventors, Markman, Phan, Balkin, & Gianiodis, (2005) found that high self-efficacy was a significant predictor of personal success as measured by annual earnings. High self-efficacy reliably distinguished between technical entrepreneurial individuals and technical non-entrepreneurs. Taken together, social cognitive theory and empirical evidence support the view that the variability in entrepreneurial output is influenced by individual differences in self-efficacy, not in intrinsic motivation. People engage in entrepreneurship for reasons other than wealth creation or financial reward. The implication is, therefore, that entrepreneurial behaviour is motivated by a common value set, regardless of the outcome.

The level of self-efficacy in individuals appears to be highly correlated with an individual's effectiveness in recognizing and acting on entrepreneurial opportunities (Kreuger, 2003). However, this can be a two edged sword. Prior experience can also 'blind' the individual to new possibilities (Harper, 1996). An individual so engrossed in their own experience and expertise will tend to seek out opportunities within the narrow confines of that experience. Incoming data will be filtered and assessed through a set series of heuristic lenses that have been used (perhaps successfully) in the past which may prevent the individual from identifying opportunities or breaking free from an outdated perspective (Kuhn, 1952).

Shane (2003) describes creativity in entrepreneurial opportunity recognition as a critical component of the new means-ends framework formulation. Imagination and creativity are needed to generate and define novel solutions to open-ended problems (Harper, 1996; Sarasvathy, 2001).

A final characteristic in self-efficacy relates to risk taking. Risk-taking or rather the attitude toward risk is a cognitive difference between being entrepreneurial and non-

entrepreneurial (Chen, et al, 1998). Research conducted by Sarasvathy, et al, (1998) suggests that entrepreneurial individuals identified fewer risks than their bank colleagues in a simulated computer game on entrepreneurship. One explanation given for this is that people who behave entrepreneurially possess higher levels of self-efficacy and thus perceive opportunities whereas others identify risk (Shane 2003).

Self-determination and self efficacy are not the only channels of entrepreneurial behaviour through which individuals express what values they hold. The third conduit through which individuals express their values is their self-identity. The primary process through which identity is acquired is assimilation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). People are naturally inclined to imitate, explore, take on ambient social roles, knowledge, skills and practices, and internalize them to the point that they become inherent descriptors of themselves. Individuals pursue those identities they are interested in because they are intrinsically motivated to do so (Deci & Ryan, 1985). They interact with social situations and place themselves in situations not only to conform and seek out rewards but also to test their knowledge and skills against others known to belong to a particular identity. It is through this interaction with society that identities are formed, developed and assimilated into the self-image (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The following discussion expands on this third conduit through which values are ultimately expressed in entrepreneurial behaviour, namely, self-identity.

2.3.3 Self-identity

There are two theories in the prevailing literature that focus on the underlying interplay between the individual and the social world; Identity theory (Stryker, 1980) and Social Identity theory (Tajfel, 1981; Tajfel & Turner, 1979, 1986). Both theories link the individual to the social world through a notion of the 'self' comprising a variety of social identities. Identity Theory focuses on roles whereas Social Identity Theory focuses on social groups. For the purpose of this study I have adopted Stryker's (1980) identity theory approach to this discussion on self-identity and its relationship with entrepreneurial behaviour because it focuses on individuals and the various roles they adopt within a social context. Identity Theory conceives of individuals as a compilation of discrete identities, often tied to their

social roles which become evident in various situations (Stryker, 1980; Stryker & Burke, 2000).

The 'mind' is the thinking part of the 'self' and attributes meaning to the interactions taking place around it. These attributions combine through a process of reflexivity to form the self-identity (Stets & Burke, 2000; Down, 2006).

Self-identity is not a distinctive trait, or even a collection of traits, possessed by the individual. It is the self as reflexively understood by the person in terms of his or her biography. A person's identity is not to be found in behaviour, nor – important though this is – in the reactions of others, but in their capacity to keep a particular narrative going (Giddens, 1991, p.53-54).

Hence, any attempt to objectively identify entrepreneurs solely through observation of their behaviour would be futile. Not only would we not know what to look for but there would be no means of verifying whether we were indeed interacting with entrepreneurial behaviour. What one perceives as a novel and innovative behavioural response to a situation may be purely coincidental. Another method of identification is needed which engages the individual in narrative discussion with the focal point of conversation, soliciting the individual's perceived sense of what it means to be entrepreneurial.

Humans are entities that comprise both content and structure. Together, content and structure form self-identity (Rosenberg, 1979). The self-identity is the sum total of an individual's thoughts, feelings, beliefs (values) and imaginations as to who they are. This includes cognitive components (the collection of identities the individual assumes) as well as affective components such as self-esteem and self-efficacy that support those identities (Franks & Marolla, 1976; Stryker, 1980). Self-identity emerges out of a reflected self-appraisal process (Gecas & Burke, 1995). Significant others communicate their appraisals to the individual which in turn influences the way the individual sees themselves. The self-identity is;

...a sense of self built up over time as the person embarks on and pursues projects or goals that are not thought of as those of a community, but as the property of the person. Personal identity thus emphasizes a sense of individual autonomy rather than of communal involvement (Hewitt, 1997, p.93).

The self-identity is organized into multiple parts (identities) each of which relates to different aspects of the social structure (Stryker, 1980). An individual therefore has an identity, an 'internalized positional designation' (Stryker, 1980, p. 60) for each of the different positions or role relationships the individual holds in society. Therefore, the self concept can be organized and distinguished as 'father', 'friend', 'colleague', or 'boss'. Each of these identities in turn is a collection of meanings the individual has as the incumbent of that role or identity. These identities are also a collection of behaviours we have come to expect from the individual adopting that identity. For example, the individual who adopts the role of 'manager' is expected to perform the work of a manager and behave in accordance with that identity by making management decisions, delegating work to others and achieving collective results. The same applies for the role of entrepreneur, (however that may be defined); we expect the individual to display behaviour consistent with an expectation of the role an entrepreneur fulfils within the social structure. Moreover, in societies and cultures that are supportive of entrepreneurial activity, there is an expectation on individuals choosing to engage in entrepreneurship that they will assume the responsibilities associated with that role and live up to a wider public expectation of high achievement. Ultimately, the individual's identity as a role incumbent is constructed and maintained through interaction and narrative discourse with others (Giddens, 1991; Down, 2006).

The role of an entrepreneur is however, not only ill defined but it does not fit precisely within any particular social structure (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Roles are defined as social positions that carry with them expectations for behaviour and obligations to other individuals (Merton, 1957, p. 636). Whether a role exists for entrepreneurs within a society is as much subject to individual interpretation as is the wider social view of its usefulness to the structure. A structure (society, community) for example, that shuns or attempts to subvert the entrepreneurial role as a contributor to economic growth is unlikely to have many individuals clamouring amongst themselves to take up the role (Mouly & Sankaran, 2005; Kirkwood, 2007).

An individual seeking to occupy an entrepreneurial role is furthermore confronted with a confusing array of interpretations because no agreed definition exists of what constitutes an entrepreneur (Warren, 2004; Down, 2006). Consequently, there are no agreed role

parameters provided by a social structure to give guidance and direction. Given this level of conceptual and structural discord it is understandable why so many individuals who are publicly acknowledged and perhaps labelled entrepreneurs by others do not necessarily perceive themselves as such (Down, 2006). The individual is largely left to construct and attribute their own meaning to a role which may be at odds with what other people around them perceive the role should be. Moreover, a self-interpreted role may run contrary to the expectations of the greater social structure and the culture itself, leading to a subverting of entrepreneurial activity.

Identity is sustained through recognition and reinforcement (Stryker& Burke, 2000; Warren, 2004). If an individual, in their role as an independent venture capitalist for example, is approached by another seeking start-up funding, two things occur. First, the individual is recognised (identified and acknowledged by others) as a venture capitalist. How the individual perceives this encounter and the weight they attribute to its meaning either ratifies or marginalises that identity. For example, if the individual is approached by the CEO of a major International Bank and asked to join an exclusive group of Venture Capitalists, then the individual may perceive this as significant. The individual may attribute more weight and meaning to the encounter by virtue of who made the initial contact. This, in turn, identifies, acknowledges and reinforces the individual in their role as Venture Capitalist.

Second, and following the meaning and weight attributed to that role, their identity as a Venture Capitalist is sustained to the extent that this is reflected in the way they behave (Down, 2006). It therefore follows that an individual assuming the role of an entrepreneur (acknowledging of course the definitional complexities associated with that term) who is recognised by others as an entrepreneur will display behaviour consistent with an entrepreneurial identity that has been defined by others. The question arises as to whether they can be genuinely regarded as entrepreneurs. Hence the focus in this study on entrepreneurial behaviour as opposed to the identification of entrepreneurs. It avoids the issue of labelling individuals as entrepreneurs and assigning values to them that may or may not exist or that the individual has not assimilated into their identity.

Identity theory enables individuals to adapt to the appropriate context, give meaning to the experiences they encounter in a particular role, and provide guidelines for action (Gecas,

1982). While roles provide broad guidelines for action, they are given fuller meaning when internalized by the individual occupying that role (Ibarra, 1999). The notion of 'role identity' was developed to highlight the close link between the socially defined elements that underlie a role and an individual's own idiosyncratic interpretation of that role (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Stated differently, a role identity is a self-identity, or a meaning attributed to oneself in relation to a specific role. As a role becomes closely tied to an individual's sense of self or identity, the individual tends to behave in accordance with this role identity (Ibarra, 1999).

To sustain that identity and 'keep the narrative going' (Down, 2006, p. 5) it is necessary for the individual to have integrated a set of values congruent with that identity (Gecas, 2000). Self-determination alone will not project an image of an individual as being entrepreneurial. Self-determination combined with an internalised conception of the values associated with an entrepreneurial self-identity adds more substance to the individual's conception of their role as an entrepreneur. This in turn brings the individual closer to being able to behave entrepreneurially. However, the determination to be entrepreneurial and adopting the values associated with being entrepreneurial into a meaningful identity are not enough. It is one thing to be self-determined to behave entrepreneurially and to have internalised the meaning of that notion into an entrepreneurial self identity but both are inconsequential if the individual does not have the knowledge and tools to behave entrepreneurially. It is this second conduit, self-efficacy, which is critical to the expression of entrepreneurial behaviour where we begin to see the application of the beliefs that motivate individuals to engage in entrepreneurship.

2.3.4 A Summary of Behavioural Expression

I previously made the assertion that values could not be explicitly identified or directly observed in an individual's entrepreneurial behaviour but that they reveal themselves indirectly through three key constructs. These three constructs, namely, self determination, self-identity and self-efficacy have been clarified above. Before continuing a discussion on the role of values in entrepreneurial behaviour I believe it is prudent to summarise the above discussion and draw these three construct together by clarifying the inter-relationship between each.

I stated in the discussion on self-identity that the fundamental process through which identity is acquired is assimilation (Ryan & Deci, 2000). People are naturally inclined to imitate, explore, take on and internalize ambient social roles, knowledge, skills and practices to the point that they become inherent descriptors of themselves. The complexity of society along with its elaborate structure and cultural norms means that individuals cannot possibly assimilate all of the identities they are surrounded by. Individuals instead pursue those identities they are interested in, interact with in social situations to conform and seek out rewards. Thus, it is those identities the individual finds inherently interesting and attractive that determine the direction of their behaviour. If a specific identity matches their value set and is potentially appealing and intrinsically rewarding, then the individual is bound to set goals around achieving it. Furthermore, they will seek out others displaying behaviour congruent with that identity and study its competencies. According to SDT (Deci & Ryan, 1985) this would be an independent striving to achieve competence in a particular identity by learning and adopting the competencies associated with that identity. It is through this interaction with society that identities are formed, developed and assimilated into the self-identity (Ryan & Deci, 2000).

The individual cannot claim to be entrepreneurial solely on the basis of an identity. The emphasis on claiming a particular self-identity is intricately tied to the ability of the individual to 'keep a particular narrative going' (Giddens, 1991), in other words, the individual's ability to convince those around them, through their achievements, that they are indeed entrepreneurial. In the absence of the self-determination to be entrepreneurial, self-identity has little substance and the individual lacks a crucial element to sustain that part of the narrative. Similarly, self-determination and self-identity are insufficient on their own to sustain the entrepreneurial identity unless it is supported with the requisite knowledge, skills and experiences associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. The narrative would again lack substance and sustainability, unless the individual can be seen to be practising the competencies associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. Thus, the self-determination to identify oneself as entrepreneurial is only credible if one can also demonstrate the skills, knowledge and experience associated with being entrepreneurial. This relationship can be depicted in the following way:

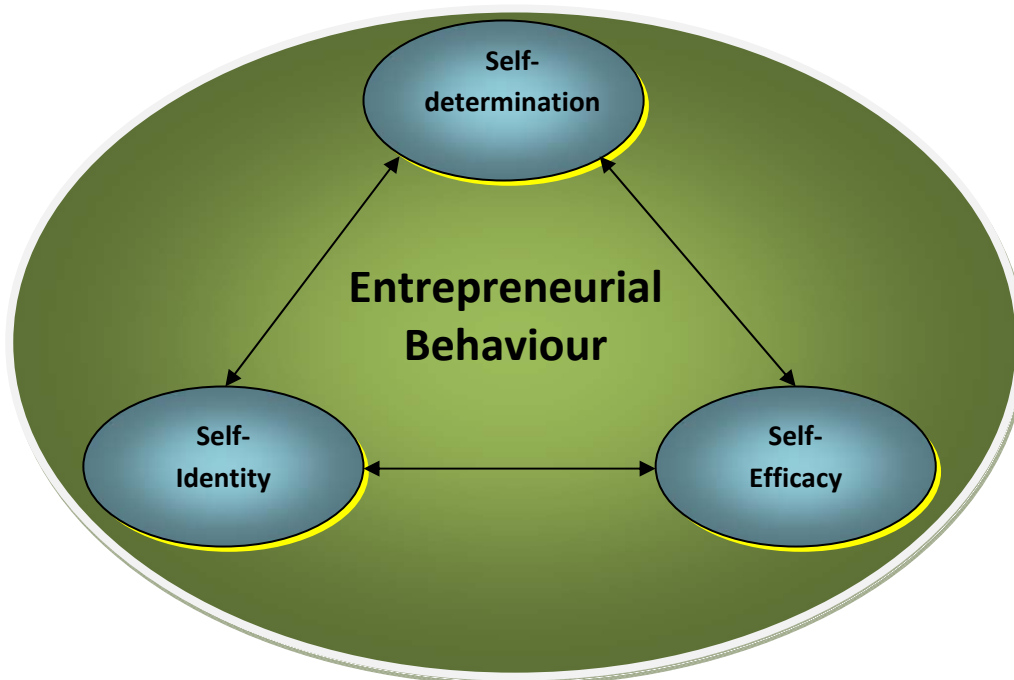


Figure 1: A proposed model of Entrepreneurial Behaviour.

I posited the view earlier that values, because of their sub-conscious nature, are not directly observable in behaviour but find their expression through the above three constructs. The following section discusses the nature of values and refers to extant literature on the topic.

2.4 Values

Entrepreneurship has been referred to as a 'values driven' process (Morris & Schindhutte, 2005). Indeed, entrepreneurial behaviour is frequently believed to be predicated on such Western beliefs as, 'individualism', 'competitiveness', 'material gain' and a 'strong work ethic' (Schumpeter, 1950; Cauthorn, 1989; Hebert & Link, 1998). 'Individualism' has strong links to the notion that entrepreneurial behaviour is essentially an independent / autonomous activity usually engaged in by a single individual. That notion is amply supported by research which suggests that entrepreneurial opportunity identification is largely an individual activity relying on the cognitive capacity of the individual and their self-efficacy (Shane, 2003; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Alvarez, et al, 2005; Morris & Schindhutte, 2005; Alvarez & Barney, 2007). This study investigates the function of 'individualism' and its variants (independence, autonomy) specifically within entrepreneurial behaviour as an inherent need or motive to engage in entrepreneurship.

The individual's belief in 'competitiveness' has its origins in the work of McClelland (1961) who argued that individuals have three main inherent motives to perform; the need for affiliation (nAff); the need for power (nPow) and the need for achievement (nAch). It was claimed that entrepreneurs in particular demonstrate a high need for achievement, expressed through the setting of high standards of performance, personal pressure to perform under competitive circumstances and to prove oneself. Rauch & Frese (2000) however could find no real difference between the need for achievement between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs nor was there any correlation of this need with individual success or failure. This study attempts to establish the importance of 'competitiveness' as an underlying motive and driver of entrepreneurial behaviour.

The notion of 'material gain' or reward as an inherent individual motive for the engagement in entrepreneurship dates back to the first formal economic interpretations of the entrepreneur (Cantillon, 1775). The individual who engaged in entrepreneurship was believed to do so, on the basis of the potential profit to be made in the process. In embarking on such an engagement however, the individual was said to expose themselves to risk and uncertainty, two prominent characteristics of entrepreneurship that still exist in current interpretations of the process (Shane, 2003; Alvarez & Barney, 2007). Thus, the individual is perceived to engage in entrepreneurship in order to make money. Motivational theorists have long held however that money is not a motivator (McClelland, 1961; Herzberg, 1966). This study seeks to clarify whether personal reward and wealth generation are indeed strong motivational factors upon which individuals base their decision to engage in entrepreneurship.

A 'strong work ethic' is a set of values based on the belief that hard work and diligence is needed in order to succeed at an endeavour. The belief stems from Max Weber's (1959) work and is based on that the Calvinist's emphasis on the necessity for hard work, as a component for an individual's calling and worldly success is a sign of personal salvation. Coupled to the notion of hard work is the sense of personal discipline needed to engage in the entrepreneurial process. While this study does not extend itself to testing personal input in the process of entrepreneurship it does attempt to determine the individual value placed on hard work and whether this carries through to entrepreneurial behaviour.

Thus, embedded within entrepreneurial behaviour are values (also referred to as beliefs or needs) that orient the individual toward entrepreneurial expression. The motivation to behave entrepreneurially is based on personally held values, which give expression to human needs (Rokeach, 1973, p. 12). For example, it is the individual's need for autonomy, among other things, that motivates her/him to act in a self-determined way to actively seek out or create entrepreneurial opportunities that will satisfy their personal need for autonomy (Gatewood, Shaver & Gartner, 1995; Kolvereid, 1996; Shane Locke & Collins, 2003).

Historically, the centrality of personal values to attitude formation, intentionality and subsequent behavioural expression has been frequently acknowledged (Thurstone, 1931; Rokeach, 1967; Ostrom, 1968; Cronkhite, 1969; Scheibe, 1970). Despite this, I have found little evidence of any research conducted in the area of personal values formation within an entrepreneurial context or how such values influence in particular, entrepreneurial behaviour at the individual level. Sociological work focusing expressly on values, both on the nature of personal value systems and values' place in behaviour, has been sparse since the mid-1960's (Spates, 1983; Hechter, 1992) and has only recently experienced something of a resurgence in interest with regard to motivation and goals (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002).

The term 'value,' in its association with human beliefs, was first used in an anthropological context as;

... a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of actions (Kluckhohn, 1951, p. 5).

A clearer definition is provided by Rokeach (1973, p.159);

To say that a person 'has a value' is to say that he has an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end-states of existence.

Values are conceptualized as mental structures existing at a higher level of abstraction than attitudes (Rokeach, 1973; Williams, 1979; Schwartz, 1992, 1994; Howard, 1995; Schuman, 1995) and are what I believe Kreuger (2007, p.123) refers to as the 'deep beliefs' that underpin entrepreneurial behaviour.

Values are psychological objects (Rokeach, 1973). They are the ‘... cognitive representations and transformations of needs’ (p. 20). Although they cannot be seen or touched, they are every bit as real as any physical object. All individuals have values that determine their decisions and guide their behaviour. Those who value their individuality take responsibility, are self-reliant and act with self-respect. Those who value achievement strive to succeed in their chosen endeavour. Those who value autonomy, act and judge situations independently from others.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory (CET) was developed by Deci and Ryan (1985) as a means of elaborating on the factors in social contexts that produce variability in intrinsic motivation. CET, which is considered a sub-theory of self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan, 1995), argues that interpersonal events and structures, for example, rewards, communications, and feedback, that conduce toward feelings of competence (self-efficacy) during action can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action. They allow the individual to feel satisfaction because of the basic psychological need for competence. Accordingly, optimal challenges, promoting feedback, and freedom from demeaning evaluations are all predicted to facilitate intrinsic motivation.

CET further suggests that feelings of competence on their own will not enhance intrinsic motivation unless they are accompanied by a sense of autonomy or, in attribution terms, by an internal perceived locus of causality (de Charms, 1968). Thus, individuals need to not only experience the confidence in their abilities to achieve a desired outcome (or self-efficacy), they also need to experience their behaviour as being self-determined if intrinsic motivation is to be maintained or enhanced. In other words, the individual needs to believe that they are in control of what they do, how it is done and have influence over the outcome. For a high level of intrinsic motivation individuals need to experience satisfaction of the needs both for self-determination and self-efficacy. Self identity is reinforced through communication and achievement (de Charms, 1968; Deci & Ryan, 1985). The underlying impetus for an individual to believe they are in control, have the competency and confidence in their ability to perform is based on the values the individual has internalised with respect to that identity. It therefore follows logically that values are those intrinsic factors that motivate individuals to behave entrepreneurially.

Personally held values are an internalised set of subjective interpretations of external events and situations in which the individual may engage (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; Schwartz, 1990). Some individuals, for example, strive to operate independently of others, to determine their own path of development and growth without interference from others. In the context of business, individuals who choose to independently express themselves through their own enterprise are said to be 'entrepreneurial'. Being entrepreneurial means the individual has an internalised set of values (needs, beliefs) that allow them to express this behaviour through self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy. Some individuals thus choose to engage in entrepreneurship as a channel through which they can gain acknowledgment of their place in the social structure and as a means of sustaining their identity.

Values play a motivational role in the process of self-determination by providing the individual with the energy and willingness to expend effort in pursuit of the enactment of those values. Values themselves come from the individual's social environment, through society's wider culture, interaction with social institutions and through relationships the individual develops with others. Values are then integrated into the self as a set of internalised meanings that contribute to the formation of the individual's self-identity (Kasser, 2002). The way the individual perceives themselves, generates the energy for them to behave entrepreneurially.

Values are expressed, albeit distally, through behaviour in interactions with others. Values can be indirectly observed through self-determined, behavioural displays of loyalty, reliability, honesty, generosity, trust, respect and responsibility for family, friends, co-workers, organization, community or country (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000). However, there can be no claim of a causal relationship between an individual's values and all of their behaviour because not all behaviour is values driven. Some behaviour is simply an involuntary reaction to the environment while other behaviour may occur without conscious thought. It is usually in the presence of ambiguous situations and uncertainty that values are likely to be activated and to enter into awareness (Schwartz, 1996). In the absence of value conflict, values may not be indirectly observed through behaviour.

Entrepreneurial behaviour is, however, intentional, deliberate, self-determined and occurs in circumstances characterised by uncertainty and risk (Naffziger, Hornsby & Kuratko, 1994;

Ajzen & Fishbein, 2000; Amo & Kolvereid, 2005). Those values that underpin entrepreneurial behaviour should therefore become apparent through indirect observation, narration and reflection on the individual's level of self-determination and the manner in which they describe themselves.

Values are conceived of as static mental constructs that involve a focus on criteria or standards of performance (Williams, 1968). Values, from this perspective are like mental schemas, 'well organized structure(s) of cognitions about some social entity such as a person, group, role or event.' (Michener, DeLamater & Meyers, 2004, p. 107). Individuals are motivated to steer their lives in certain directions. That motivation is determined by the values they have internalised. Thus, an individual striving to be independent will explore what it means to be independent and internalise this into their self-identity, actively seek out other independent individuals to interact with and engage in processes and roles that reinforce and sustain their belief in their independence.

Values are rarely consciously applied to an action as an immediate response (Schwartz, 1996) but are linked to behaviour through four sequential processes (Schwartz, 2004b). First, values need to be activated; they need to be brought into conscious awareness by the individual usually through a situation or series of circumstances that are perceived as problematic (Verplanken & Holland, 2002). Second, because values influence how the individual thinks, they lead to the privileging of certain cognitive preferences over others (Feather, 1992) which influence the decision making process. These cognitive preferences are the product of the individual's prior learning and experience in similar circumstances (Shane, 2003). This in turn leads to a third process whereby values influence conscious attention, perception and interpretation within situations.

Fourth, because values have been brought into conscious awareness, they influence the planning of physical action, that is, they motivate behaviour taking into account normative external pressures (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). A single value cannot be the sole motivational force behind an action (Jones, 2002, p. 19). Thus, a value such as autonomy cannot be claimed to be the sole motivation force behind an individual's desire to start a new business or seize on an opportunity. Indeed, autonomy may not even be the primary value motivating the individual's response; other values may take precedence in motivating action. These guiding principles influence an individual's attitude, emotions and behaviour

and typically endure over long periods of time and across different situations (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1991). In other words, an individual's values are expected to remain consistent over time and express behaviour germane to that value in a variety of different situations.

Feather (1992; 1995) suggests that values lead to specific behaviours and experiences by influencing the meaning individuals assign to the desirability of specific objects or situations. Thus, an individual who attaches significant importance to autonomy will in all likelihood place a high level of worth on their ability to make independent decisions and take control of the situation. While an individual's values provide some information about their experiences and behaviour it is better to assess the entire organization of an individual's values, that is, their value system (Carver & Scheier, 1982). This is because all the values together and their relative importance to one another can influence the individual's ability to be entrepreneurial.

Furthermore, the individual occupies any number of roles during the course of their life and therefore expresses several different identities. Each of these identities may be founded on different values. In order to understand the role values play in entrepreneurial behaviour, as is proposed in this thesis, it is important to isolate only those values associated with this type of behaviour. The relationship between self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy and personal core values in entrepreneurial behaviour can be illustrated as follows:

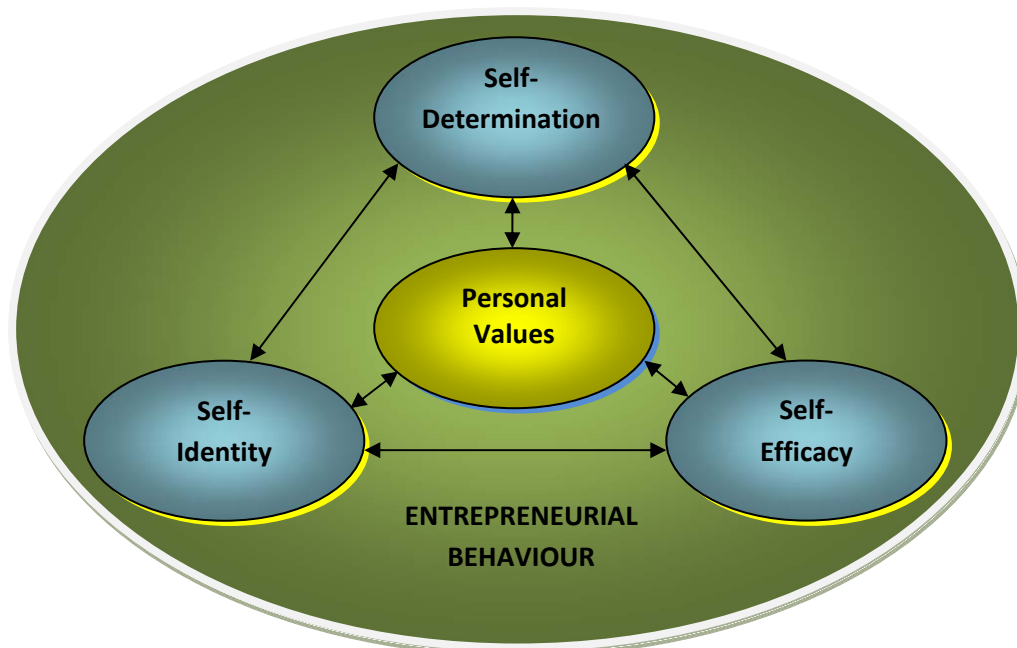


Figure 2: A proposed holistic model of Entrepreneurial Behaviour.

2.5 Thesis overview

This chapter was directed at providing a contextual overview of the elements of interest in this study as well as a review of extant literature on its components. Chapter three examines the methodology used in capturing the data for this study. The overall approach is a combined quantitative / qualitative study through the initial use of a survey followed by semi-structured, in-depth interviews with a sample of individuals who have demonstrated entrepreneurial behaviour.

Chapter four reveals the findings of the survey and reports further on the conceptual themes and comments made by participants during the interviews conducted over an eight month period. The discussion section of this thesis has been divided into two chapters (five and six), with chapter five examining the first two ancillary research questions, namely, the common value set underpinning entrepreneurial behaviour and the meaning individuals have attributed to those common values. Chapter six deals with the third ancillary question and considers how commonly held values manifest themselves in entrepreneurial behaviour. Chapter seven summarises the key discoveries made in this study and concludes with possible avenues for further investigation.

Chapter 3: Research Design and Methodology

In Chapter one I set out the overall theme of this thesis and voiced my concern with extant research that appeared somewhat narrowly focused on elements of either the process of entrepreneurship or the individual traits and characteristics of entrepreneurs. Furthermore, I found little evidence in the literature that adequately explained the notion of entrepreneurial behaviour. This has added to a perceived gap in research that has not fully addressed the role of personal values in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour. Furthermore, it has led to a refinement of the research question within the context of the model suggested in Chapter Two. The research question in this study, that is;

What role do personally held values play in entrepreneurial behaviour?

However, the suggested model and the broad subjective connotations of the word 'role' led to a further division of research subject into three ancillary questions, namely;

- 1. What set of commonly held values do entrepreneurial individuals subscribe to?**
- 2. What meaning do entrepreneurial individuals attach to each of these commonly held values?**
- 3. How do these commonly held values manifest themselves in entrepreneurial behaviour?**

These enhancements proved useful in setting out the overall research strategy as well as providing focus in selecting appropriate methods for data collection. I was mindful in writing this chapter that there is often an inclination to immediately launch into an explanation of methods used rather than first exploring the theoretical underpinnings of the overall approach. I consequently used the framework suggested by Crotty (1998, p.5) in structuring this chapter. The first section (3.1) therefore deals with the worldview upon which this study is based and which is subjectivist in orientation. The second section (3.2) explains the theoretical perspective used to examine entrepreneurial behaviour as well as my role and experience as a researcher engaged in this topic. The next section (3.3) deals with the overall methodology that was utilised while the following section (3.4) sets out the various methods

employed in data collection and analysis during the study. The last section (3.5) deals with the ethical issues addressed during this study and the veracity of the results.

3.1 The Worldview supporting this study

In coming to a decision on the appropriate research strategy for this study, questions arise regarding the research gap and the topic to be investigated as well as my personal worldview, that is, my perception of the social reality or context within which the study is situated (Guba & Lincoln, 1989; Higgs, 2001; Mason, 2002b). The essence of a sound and rigorous research design is the convergence between research question, its supporting theoretical framework and an acknowledgement of the ontological perspectives that a researcher brings to the research process (Crotty, 1998).

The key question in this thesis focuses not only on the personal core values held by certain individuals who engage in entrepreneurship but also on the meaning they attach to those values. Furthermore, both values and their meaning are enacted by the individual in such a way as to confirm that entrepreneurial behaviour as intrinsically motivated and essentially self-determined. The resulting research strategy is therefore based on an inductive and interpretive research process that operates within the bounds of a constructivist paradigm. Such a research design acknowledges the reality that is fundamental to this study, that is, that 'reality is subjective and multiple as seen by participants in a study' (Collis & Hussy, 2003, p. 49).

Because this study is based on a Constructivist epistemology, that is, a perspective in philosophy about the nature of scientific knowledge, it assumes that humans construct knowledge and that this continues to evolve (Kreuger, 2007). A constructivist's view holds that, for example, learning (and likewise 'valuing' as discussed in Chapter two; Rogers, 1964) is highly situated in the ambient conditions of a particular environment and is subject to multiple influences that occur in a social setting. The evidence provided in the following chapter reflects the views, perspectives and subjective interpretations of a relatively small sample on individuals who believe they behave entrepreneurially. These views are influenced by the individual's background, experience, knowledge and social setting. I was therefore conscious that the meaning attributed to values would be subtly influenced by these factors. Despite this, however, a common thread of meaning emerged through the

data as evidenced by limited amount of variation in response. A constructivist view of entrepreneurial behaviour is therefore situated in a particular context and subjected to similar multiple influences within a social setting. The results, as will be discussed in the following chapter, are, however relatively consistent.

The knowledge and empirical evidence of an entrepreneurial reality contained in this thesis has been written based on my experience and is almost exclusively dependent on my ability to convey a convincing, authentic and interesting account of what the participants say about what they have experienced. There is no claim in this study that this is 'really' how it is but rather this is how others 'think' it is, as conveyed through their narratives and as reflected by my interpretation of those narratives (Czarniawska, 2002). The meanings and interpretations represented here, influenced as they are by multiple factors such as complexity, individual background, situation and social setting, severely limit the generalisable nature of the results to a wider population. I have no doubt a larger sample would yield an even greater variability in interpretation of the meaning of certain values associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. However, I am equally confident a similar thread of meaning would also emerge with a larger sample.

'Things' or values, as far as they are meaningful, really are what the individual makes of them and what they call them. The meaning of a particular factor as part of a practical activity, such as entrepreneurship, therefore relies on a view where social reality is interactively reproduced; where dominant and variously stable systems of interaction or structures are both a condition and a consequence of the production of interaction. Furthermore, because the meaning of values is predicated on there being 'meaning making beings to make sense of it', the sense of being in the world that is, 'reality / ontology' must emerge through a constructivist epistemology (Crotty, 1998; Czarniawska, 2002)

The epistemological assumptions made here therefore mean that the participants in this study are active, knowledgeable and skilled participants in entrepreneurship, who mutually and reflexively create social reality in varied and mutable ways. 'The constitution of this [social] world as meaningful, accountable, or intelligible depends on language, regarded however not simply as a system of signs or symbols but as a medium of practical activity' (Giddens, 1976, p.155).

3.2 Theoretical perspective

The broad theoretical perspective utilised in this study is Phenomenographic. Phenomenography is a qualitative approach, which exists within an interpretivist paradigm that investigates the different ways in which people perceive something or think about something (Marton, 1981, p. 178). Phenomenography's ontological assumptions are subjectivist; that is, the world exists objectively and different types of people, groups and cultures interpret the objective world in different ways; and from a non-dualist viewpoint (Bowden, Jung-Beeman, Fleck, & Kounios 2005; Marton & Booth, 1997). Subjectivism is a philosophical principle that accords primacy to subjective experience as fundamental of all forms of measurement. In an extreme form, it holds that the nature and existence of every object, including values, depend solely on the individual's subjective awareness of it. Of note here is the difference between subjective awareness and conscious awareness. When asked, an individual will readily agree that they possess values / beliefs about how things are or should be in the objective world, that is, they will have a subjective view about how they perceive that world. Conscious awareness on the other hand posits that individuals know at all times exactly what values they subscribe to and how they are used to interpret the world around them. Individuals are not however always consciously aware of their values. It is only under circumstances of value conflict, that is, situations where values are called into question, that individuals become consciously aware of their values.

A phenomenographic analysis seeks a 'description, analysis, and understanding of ... experiences' (Marton, 1981, p.180). The focus is on variation: variation in both the perceptions by the participant of their values, and in the 'ways of seeing something' as experienced and described by the researcher (Marton & Pang, 1999, pg.1). It is through constant comparison of these variations that the researcher arrives at a collective similarity of experience of the phenomenon. Phenomenography, is based on the grounded theory approach of Strauss & Corbin (1994) that allows for theoretical sensitivity and also allows the researcher to use their own experiences as data for phenomenographic analysis (Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Saljo, 1996; Uljens, 1996). The goal is to achieve a collective analysis of individual experiences (Akerlind, 2005).

Phenomenography, as a theoretical approach, differs from phenomenology. Both phenomenography and phenomenology have human experience as their object; however, phenomenology is a philosophical method, with the philosopher engaged in investigating their own experience in relation to a phenomenon (Marton & Booth, 1997; Larsson & Holmstrom, 2007). In the context of this study, I have been deliberate in distancing myself from actual engagement in entrepreneurial behaviour and examining my own values in this process. I have sought to arrive at a collective summation of personally held values amongst the participants and have focused on the commonality of meaning provided by the participants themselves. Phenomenographic research adopts an empirical orientation, and then investigates the experience of others in relation to some phenomenon (Marton & Booth, 1997). The focus of interpretive phenomenology is to explore the essence of the phenomenon, whereas the focus of a phenomenographic interpretation is the essence of the experiences and subsequent interpretations of others toward the phenomenon (Hitchcock, 2006), in this case entrepreneurial behaviour and the values that individuals believe in when expressing that behaviour. Data collection methods typically include observation, semi-structured and in-depth interviews with a small sample and the researcher 'working toward an articulation of the interviewee's reflections on experience that is as complete as possible' (Marton & Booth, 1997, p. 130).

A phenomenographic data analysis sorts interpretations, which emerge from the data collected, into specific 'categories of description' (Akerlind, 2005; Marton, 1981; 1986; Uljens, 1996). The set of categories (for example, the individual's personal values) of description is referred to as an outcome space. These categories (and their underlying structure) become the phenomenographic essence of the phenomenon, the phenomenon being entrepreneurial behaviour (Uljens, 1996). They are the primary outcomes, and the most important result of phenomenographic research (Marton, 1986).

Phenomenographic categories are logically related to one another, typically by way of hierarchically inclusive relationships (Marton, 1986; Marton & Booth, 1997) although linear and branched relationships can also occur (Akerlind, 2005). That which varies between different categories of description is known as the dimensions of variation. The process of phenomenographic analysis is strongly iterative and comparative and involves the continual

sorting and resorting of data and ongoing comparisons between data and the developing categories of description, as well as between the categories themselves (Akerlind 2005).

The objective of phenomenographic analysis was to identify and describe how personally held values motivated participants to behave entrepreneurially (the phenomenon). The outcome of this analysis is presented in a number of tables in the next chapter reflecting common themes derived from participant's responses in the interviews. These categories of description illustrate the variation among participants of their beliefs (values) and experiences in what constitutes entrepreneurial behaviour.

3.3 Methodology

This study is based on grounded theory methods (Strauss & Corbin' 1994) which are a set of analytic guidelines that assist researchers to focus on data collection and to build inductive, mid-range theories through successive levels of analysis and conceptual development (Charmaz, 2005). A grounded theory approach supports researchers by encouraging them to remain close to the field of study and to develop integrated theoretical concepts from empirical materials that not only demonstrate meaning through interpretation but also reveal process relationships (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). This approach is well suited to the current investigation because it seeks to surface previously unrelated inter-disciplinary constructs in relation to the topic, that is, self-determination, self-identity, self-efficacy, values and entrepreneurial behaviour. It furthermore attempts to explain the inter-relationship between these constructs and the processes through which these occur.

I have based this study on an adapted version of the grounded theory approach that was suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1994) that allows for the inclusion of my own prior knowledge and experience of the field under investigation. The risk of this inclusion however, is to allow the potential for personal bias to taint the results in some way. This risk was mitigated mostly through my stance as an 'interested listener' (Fontana & Frey, 1994). Responses were treated as an objective representation and as the participant's interpretation of their reality, nothing more and nothing less. My experiential knowledge of the field was combined with their interpretation during the analysis phase in order to gather together commonality of themes and expressions in such a way as to represent an accurate account of their stated reality. Bias was furthermore minimised by checking with others

associated with the participant regarding the veracity of their information. The assisted in developing a more balanced view of the participant and the influence their values had over their decision making and actions. Experiential knowledge is a valuable tool along with the literature review, methodological tools and analytical processes to the extent that it surfaces a deeper understanding of the participant's reality.

This study is predicated on a constructivist perspective that participants create their own realities by their perceptions and subsequent interpretation of their environment through social interaction. Such 'realities' are open to constant change and re-negotiation (Strauss & Corbin, 1994; Tolich & Davidson, 1999). By allowing a researcher with experiential knowledge of the field to actively engage with those perceived realities, subtle yet critical nuances can be filtered from narratives thus providing greater insights and richer data.

Analysis was conducted in several steps through reading and re-reading interview protocols, with somewhat differing perspectives linked to the various phases of analysis. Preliminary analysis was accomplished during data collection and continued during the transcription of the recorded interviews as I became familiar with the material. Themes emerged from the data and the literature review. These themes were strongly associated with entrepreneurial behaviour and some were predicted based on my previous experience and understanding of the phenomenon.

3.4 Overview of the Research Process & Methods

Historically, and from a methodological perspective, the 'entrepreneur' has been treated as a homogenous archetype; an entity that needs to be categorised in order to be objectified and counted so that meaningful and useful data can emerge (Gartner, 1985). Case studies in entrepreneurship are becoming increasingly popular as are sustained narratives of entrepreneurial experience (Cope & Watts, 2000; McKelvey, 2004; Downing, 2005). The variety of individuals, their diverse activities and enterprises as well as the dynamism of social and economic conditions do however present unique problems to definitional boundaries that are essential for knowledge creation.

Research traditions have focused primarily on identifying traits or characteristics exhibited by the archetypical entrepreneur and then quantifying the results (Smith, 1967; Vesper,

1980; Miner, 1997). While this has resulted in statistically agreeable identifiers and tools for a whole range of entrepreneurial attributes, their 'meaning' has critical explanatory limits. Social and scientific explanations of human behaviour appear to evolve but research accounts of those individuals engaged in entrepreneurial behaviour seem to have stagnated under the evidence of quantitative data (Down, 2006). There have, however, been an increasing number of diverse ethnographic and sustained interpretive studies into small business and the individuals that work in them (Aldrich, 1999; Floren, 2005; Cresswell, 2008).

The number of New Zealanders who actively engage in entrepreneurial behaviour is undetermined. This is largely due to the variability in definition of what constitutes an entrepreneur as well as the lack of agreed criteria for what constitutes entrepreneurial behaviour. The literature also does not clearly provide a representative profile from which to select a useful sample of participants. It was therefore anticipated that locating and identifying relevant subjects in the general community would be difficult. To overcome this, the research sample was structured to utilise non-probability, purposive, convenience sampling.

I chose the Phenomenographic methodology because the available tools would allow me to go further deeper into an analysis of entrepreneurial behaviour and thus discover the essence of what caused it. A pilot survey was established to test the various methods used in this study. This enabled refinements to be made to the survey inventory as well as the interview questions. The whole research process has been represented below to demonstrate the steps followed in this study. The various steps are explained further under each of the methods sub-headings.

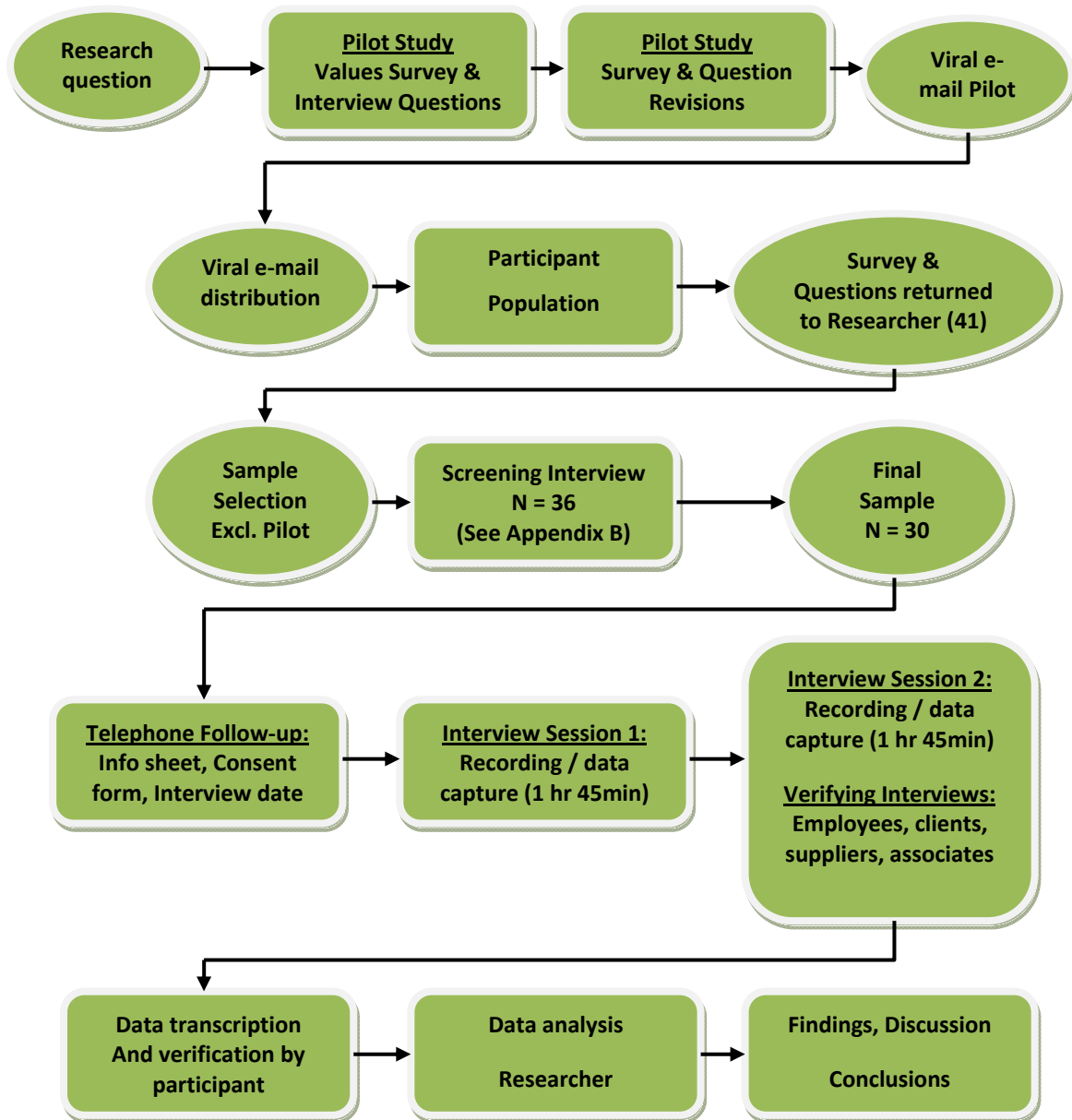


Figure 3: The Research Process followed in this study

3.4.1 Sample selection

A non-probability sample (Trochim, 2006) is one where little attempt is made to generate a representative sample. As previously pointed out, it is unclear what a representative sample of entrepreneurs would look like. However, the philosophical nature of this study renders the necessity to achieve a random or generalised sample unnecessary as I am attempting to discover commonality of meaning about a particular phenomenon. Purposive or judgmental sampling occurs when the researcher chooses a sample based on who they think would be

appropriate for the study. It is used primarily in situations where there are a limited number of people with relevant expertise in the area being researched. It is also appropriate to use with non-probability sampling where the pool of potential participants is so large (and in this case, undefined) that it must be narrowed in some respect to enable sensible and useful data to be captured. Surveying the general public may have resulted in only a few individuals being identified in a large group where the findings could be skewed in favour of those who were not entrepreneurial. Moreover, I was keenly aware of my conversation with Jay (in Chapter one) warning of the search for appropriate candidates based simply on what they were labelled.

I therefore combined purposive sampling with criterion sampling and set up a screening questionnaire from which I could select appropriate candidates for this study from a larger population (see Appendix B). The screening selection criteria stipulated that the individual needed to own/operate their own enterprise as a sole trader or limited liability company. Partnerships, cooperatives, syndicated businesses and franchise operations were excluded from the study. Individuals needed to demonstrate that they had identified an opportunity in their market and had introduced a novel and commercially viable innovation to address that opportunity. The individual needed to be actively engaged in their business on a regular basis to the extent that they still made all the key decisions regarding the business' operation. There was no attempt to influence background factors or further limit or manipulate the selection of the sample based on narrower criteria (for example, age, gender, ethnicity, geographic location, etc.). Consequently, the research is likely to be both reliable, (repeatable with similar findings within a sample of different individuals in the same broad community) and demonstrate external validity with generalized data across people, settings and time (Cooper & Schindler, 2006).

The electronic values inventory and its viral email enabled access to a larger network of potential candidates. In order to eliminate any bias on this part of the sample selection, I have removed the results of the initial five participants (pilot group) from the findings of this study. The design of the form ensured that the questions and selection options were not able to be manipulated or edited, and therefore the data received can be considered objective and trustworthy.

A limitation of the 'viral email' method used to select the appropriate sample relates to the loss of opportunity to question participants more deeply as they responded to each question at the time. This may have resulted in some potential participants being excluded from interviews despite their behaving entrepreneurially. Another limitation was the requirement for participants to have access to a computer and to be email literate enough to complete the form. This may have possibly restricted the variety of respondents.

An advantage of this sampling method was that responses were received from around New Zealand. The sample is representative of a national population with responses received from Invercargill in the South Island through to Kerikeri in the North Island. Had selection been based on initial face-to-face contact the sample may have been too restricted to one geographic area and a relatively homogenous socio-economic group. The viral survey has provided a wider range of respondents with differing perceptions and experiences of entrepreneurial behaviour than would have originally been possible.

Sample selection via the electronic method was largely successful. A response period of thirty days was allowed during which time 41 submissions were obtained from an initial 'seeding' of five participants. Although the final sample size is relatively small at thirty participants, the nature of the randomised sample makes it likely a larger sample would produce similar results. Eleven responses were excluded from the sample for failing to meet the specified criteria. Five of the eleven exclusions were the responses and suggestions made by the original pilot study. The balance of six were excluded because the values inventory had been completed incorrectly (2); there were no answers to the initial questions for phase two interviews (1); the survey was returned blank (1); and the legal structure of the candidate's businesses was inappropriate for the study (one was a partnership and the second had engaged in a franchise). Forty one businesses were reviewed from the phase one survey returns and screened against the criteria set out in the screening questionnaire (Appendix B) resulting in the selection of thirty businesses owners to move on to phase two interviews.

3.4.2 Personal Values Inventory

The personal values inventory (Schwarz, 1992) was redesigned (discussed below) as a single electronic form as an attachment. This form was emailed to a group of five individuals

known to the researcher to be genuine serial entrepreneurs. A copy of the electronic form can be found in the Appendices of this thesis. The values survey was used in the initial stages as a means for sample selection. During the interviews the survey document was used as an aide-memoire to stimulate discussion around each participant's selected values. Each individual in the pilot was canvassed and personally tutored on the content of the survey and the selection criteria to be used in this study. Suggestions were made by the pilot group to further refine the questions and these were incorporated into the final survey document.

The intention was to obtain what is described by Cooper and Schindler (2006) as 'snowball sampling'. Snowball sampling involves an initial group of participants, 'who refer the researcher to others who possess similar characteristics, and who, in turn, identify others' (Cooper & Schindler, 2006, p. 423). The advantage for participants was that the values inventory could be completed in their own time at their own pace, without the biased interference of an interviewer. Interestingly, the responses received to the qualitative questions distributed via the electronic form were more complete and insightful than those obtained by the interviewer during the pilot. This supports a view that participants feel freer to express their opinions and experiences anonymously in private, rather than to a stranger in public.

Participants were furthermore asked to complete the values inventory from the perspective of their perception of entrepreneurial behaviour. That is, participants were asked to rate values they believed 'entrepreneurs' would choose. The sub-conscious nature of values and the variability in roles occupied by the participants meant that it would be presumptuous to expect each participant to have an intricate and immediate grasp of their own values (Feather, 1992). The purpose behind this approach was to establish a common platform of values that could be expected in entrepreneurial behaviour and then to use their inventory survey answers as a prompt during the interview phase and to compare their responses and understanding of those chosen values.

A number of different values inventories have been produced over recent years with many of these based on the cross cultural research initiated by Rokeach (1973). Rokeach's personal values system (PVS) comprised 18 'instrumental' or means values and 18 'terminal' or ends value. Although useful, I decided to use a more updated version of a values

inventory compiled by Schwartz (1992). This instrument comprises 56 commonly cited values and has been administered to over 30 000 respondents. The Schwartz Value Survey is divided into a set of 10 universal sub-dimensions (power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity and security). All of these sub-dimensions are to be found in every culture although the level of importance attributed to each sub-dimension will vary. The instrument has been extensively used in several cross-cultural studies and particularly in the small business arena by Morris & Schindehutte (2005) in the examination of ethnic enterprise and six sub-cultures.

In order to establish whether entrepreneurial behaviour was based on a common value set (ancillary research question (a) above) I utilised an adapted version of the Schwartz survey. The original survey requires participants to rate all 56 values according to a nine-point scale in response to the question; "As a guiding principle in my life ... this value is ..." of supreme importance (7); very important (6); unlabeled (5 & 4); important (3); unlabeled (2 & 1); not important (0); and, opposed to my values (-1). Modifications were made to the inventory's rating system reducing this from a nine-point to a five point scale as well as asking participants to identify no more than five values they would associate with entrepreneurial behaviour. This was done for a number of reasons. The first was that I was interested only in the individual's response regarding the guiding principles that were important to a particular behaviour, namely, entrepreneurial behaviour. Second, I took cognisance of extant research (Williams, 1968; Ford & Nichols; 1987; Feather, 1992, 1995) that revealed individuals really only adhere to a small set of guiding principles or values (usually four or five) for any particular role or identity. Third, participants were asked to 'rate' according to a five-point scale of supreme importance (5); very important (4); quite important (3); moderately important (2); important (1)] rather than 'rank'. Rating a small set of values has been demonstrated to increase focus on what is important in relation to a particular behaviour (Schwartz & Bilskey, 1990; Schwartz, 1992). Ranking all 56 values could also have led to cross-cultural issues amongst participants with some rejecting values on the basis of their own culture rather than focusing on entrepreneurial behaviour. Rating values furthermore opens up opportunities for the replication of this study to larger samples and cultures. The modified inventory was pre-tested with the pilot group whose results were not included in the final sample of participants.

3.4.3 Interviewing

The primary means of data collection for ancillary questions (b) and (c) above was achieved through the use of semi-structured, in-depth interviews. The Schwarz Value Survey (Schwarz, 1992) was used prior to the interview process to confirm the hierarchy of values deemed important by the participant. This was designated phase one of the research process and solicited information that would be relevant to phase two, the interview process. Those who completed the survey and had met the criteria for selection were subsequently contacted and invited to be interviewed at a convenient time and place of their choosing.

Semi-structured interviews provide an avenue for the participants' voice to engage in the research by providing a body of data reflective of their own values and how these values impact on their behaviour. McBride (1989, p. 42) states:

Interviews allow the researcher to gain knowledge about intrinsic factors that cannot be observed, including feelings, values, thoughts and intentions. Interviewing, in sum, permits access to another person's perspective.

Fetterman (1989) suggests that this technique is advantageous over formal or structured interviews in so far as clarification and topic expansion may be developed but which can still fall within the bounds of broad parameters. Semi-structured interviews have the advantage of allowing responses to common questions to be compared across the body of participants (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). A further advantage of this method is that the consistent sequencing of questions is clear and unambiguous, providing the researcher with a level of control over the process whilst allowing the participant a certain amount of freedom to deviate from direct response or to expand on immediate answers. The structured nature of the interview also allows the researcher to complete it within a reasonable time-frame.

I adopted the stance of an interested listener (Fontana & Frey, 1994) in an attempt to generate a situation similar to a focused conversation. 'This in turn, encourages subjects to talk on their own terms and uncovers meanings that the subjects construct about their social world and operative frames of reference' (McConnell, 1996, p. 105). In conjunction with recording the interview, key information was highlighted through additional note taking during the interview (Tolich & Davidson, 1999).

Typed transcripts of the recorded interviews were made and circulated back to the participants to confirm the accuracy of the interview. The interview guide was self constructed based on the author's experiential knowledge of the subject and field under study as well as from information gathered in the literature review. The interview format and questions were also tested with the pilot group in the field which led to refinements of the interview guide and improvements to its veracity. The pilot interviews have addressed potential issues, such as honesty, culture and gender differences. In order to counter the effects of these concerns I used a range of reflexive research techniques including the examination for implausibility, suspicion and recognition of distortion (McConnell, 1996).

Furthermore, I was conscious that my primary data source would be one individual and that what they would convey information that was potentially biased and which portrayed them in a positive light. To counter this, and where I was unsure of the veracity of the interviewee's dialogue, I used the interview method beyond that of the invited participant to their team (employees), customers and suppliers. In a few rare cases where the story appeared to be too good to be true, I solicited comment from other community members who knew the interviewee. This ensured a more balanced representation of views and a common perception of the participant I was interviewing.

The data was recorded, where the participant consented to this and where not, detailed notes were taken to capture responses as accurately as possible. In the non-recorded interviews (6 participants declined the offer to record their responses), participants were asked to review and sign off the notes made by the researcher prior to the conclusion of the interview. In the recorded interviews the data was transcribed and returned to the participant for confirmation and sign-off. Follow-up, in-depth interviews were conducted with selected participants for the purposes of soliciting further data and to confirm the original findings of the research. The results of these conversations were incorporated into the original data for that participant and are reported in the following chapter.

3.4.4 Data analysis

The primary purpose of the analysis was to confirm the role values played in entrepreneurial behaviour and secondarily to identify new features with regard to meaning and structure in the various ways participant's experienced entrepreneurial behaviour. The

participant's responses are further analyzed through narrative inquiry with the aim of understanding their actions in the context of a meaningful whole (Bruner, 1986; Gubrium & Holstein, 1997; Hinchman & Hinchman, 2001) identifying differences and similarities linked to each theme. Such comparisons were conducted in two contexts: one in the context of responses drawn from all interviews that touched upon the same theme; the other in the context of the individual interview.

Narrative inquiry led to the formulation of categories of description which identified, and described the critical features and meaning participant's placed on values and entrepreneurial behaviour. The same categories of description are used to explore the relationships between categories, which together form an outcome space. Validity is achieved in relation to the data available and the transparency provided in the path through data analysis. Excerpts from interviews were used in three ways: (1) to illustrate a critical feature of a theme; (2) to clarify the difference between one theme and another and; (3) to illustrate commonality of meaning across participant responses.

In documenting the analysis of the interviews I was conscious of the need for my interpretive voice to take the authoritative lead in discussion. A narrative strategy connects and also separates my voice from that of the participants in particular ways. A sociologists approach is to provide lengthy verbatim stories or excerpts from each of the participant's conversations and to follow this with the interpretation. A psychologist's approach on the other hand provides summarised data of their participant's stories followed by the interpretation of that data. I chose a combination of the two methods as illustrated in the tables in chapter four and the discussion chapters that follow. The size of the sample and the repetitive nature of many of the raw responses meant that some data was better represented using a summarised form rather than a specific narrative. The initial focus of the interviews was on capturing as much of the participant's narrative as possible to ensure there was a common understanding of the constructs under discussion. I then reverted to asking many 'how' and 'what' type questions in order to capture particular nuances or specific peculiarities regarding the meaning individuals attributed to values and entrepreneurial behaviour. I am conscious that writing in an authoritative voice that I 'privilege the analyst's listening ear', potentially at the narrators expense (Denzin, 1997, p. 249). However, writing in this voice means no disrespect to the participants or the

narratives they provide. I am simply providing my interpretation of the data provided by the sample.

3.5 Ethical considerations

Traditional ethical issues have tended to revolve around matters such as informed consent (gaining permission from the individual after having truthfully explained the purpose and objective of the research); the right to privacy (protecting the identity of the participant) and protection from harm (both physical and psychological). All of these have been dealt with in the process of gaining ethics approval for this study (See appendix B for correspondence regarding ethics approval).

Ethical problems arise concerning the veracity of reports made by researchers. Whyte's (1943) study of Italian street corner men in Boston, for example, has come under severe criticism as a consequence of how they have been portrayed. Boelen (1992) alleges the men were portrayed in demeaning ways that did not accurately reflect the men's self portrayal. Sixty five years later the matter is still unresolved.

To avoid accusations of ill recording or misrepresentation, the conversations with participants were transcribed and sent to them for sign-off as an accurate reflection of their narrations. For those participants whose transcripts were returned, they were signed off without any amendments. For other participants whose interviews were not recorded, sign off was obtained at the conclusion of their interviews. Furthermore, the anonymity of the participants and the conditions of informed consent, bound as they are by the provisions of the Privacy Act, 1993, limit the degree of individual exposure of personal information in the public domain.

Care has been taken in this thesis to change the names of participants in order to protect their identity. Many of the participants voiced concerns about this and the publishing of their personal conversations in the results. In addition to informed consent, confidentiality clauses were included that would protect individual information from being divulged. Responses via the original email survey have been captured and stored in an electronic folder off-site. Personal details of the participant's email address and source computers

have been deleted from my email system. Recordings and copies of all transcripts have also been archived and stored off site.

3.6 Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to outline the methodology used to gather record and interpret the role personally held values play in entrepreneurial behaviour. A predominantly qualitative research design has been chosen because it draws on an inductive process whereby conclusions emerge through analysis of data collected by interviews, observations, and case studies. According to Denzin & Lincoln (2005) qualitative research is theory generating in that hypotheses emerge from the observation and interpretation of human behaviour.

The methodological tools used in this study assisted in building an interpretive framework that illustrates the relationship between personally held values and the outward expression of those values through entrepreneurial behaviour. This framework was then used to understand the intrinsic motivators of entrepreneurial behaviour. The tool may also be used for the early identification of entrepreneurial talent that could then be trained and developed.

Qualitative research does have limitations in that data recorded by the researcher may be influenced by their own personal beliefs, background, and bias. To mitigate this, an adapted grounded theory approach was used that follows the refinements suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1994). These two authors expanded on the original grounded theory methodology and have refined the concept to include the prior knowledge of the investigative field held by the researcher. This chapter ends with reference to the ethical issues that were encountered in this study.

The next chapter deals with the findings of this research. The first part of the chapter reports on the findings of the email survey and the responses to the values survey distributed prior to the interviews. The second part of the chapter reports on the themes identified in each of the question areas and provides a table matching theme to participant responses. Clarity is provided where necessary through extracts taken from specific interviews.

Chapter 4: Discovering Values and their Interpretations

The preceding chapters to this thesis set the stage for the information discovered in this study. Chapter one set out the overall theme for this research arguing that little, if any, work had been done on a closer examination of the antecedents to entrepreneurial behaviour. I posited the view that entrepreneurial behaviour could be isolated, de-constructed and examined independently of the individual engaged in it. In Chapter two I presented a view that entrepreneurial behaviour comprised a dynamic interaction between three main constructs; self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy. These constructs are, in my view, underpinned by personal values that are common to entrepreneurial behaviour and to an entrepreneurial identity within a social structure. Chapter three set out the research strategy, design and methods that were utilised to discover the role personal values play in entrepreneurial behaviour. Chapter four is the drawing together of the preceding chapters and is the point of discovery.

This chapter reports initially on the biographical data and the background of the participants (4.1). The next section (4.2) reports on the pre-distributed values survey and isolate those values rated as most important to entrepreneurial behaviour. Section (4.3) provides the raw response data to questions asked in the interviews and categorises them under descriptive themes. Section (4.4) provides a summary of the research findings. I have chosen to divide the subsequent discussion chapters into two. Chapter five will discuss the content of those values said to be of the essence to entrepreneurial behaviour and will further probe the meaning individuals have internalised with regard to them. Chapter six will discuss these interpretations in relation to self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy and their relationship with entrepreneurial behaviour in the context of the model presented in Chapter two.

4.1 Biographic data

Six of the participants were female (20% of the sample); the youngest was 27 years of age whilst the eldest was 68. Twenty four of the participants had spent periodic intervals travelling and working overseas, mainly in the United Kingdom and Western Europe. The two foreign born participants had come to New Zealand at an early age and have spent in excess of twenty five years in the country.

All of the participants own and are engaged in one or more of their personal businesses. The legal structures of these businesses were either simple sole traders/proprietors or more complex Owner/Director in one or more limited liability companies. There are no Partnerships or Franchise operations in any of the participant's businesses. These are important exclusions. In a Partnership structure it is usually difficult to isolate the one individual who had identified the original opportunity. The passage of time between opportunity identification and opportunity exploitation tends to distort perceptions of who discovered the original source of the opportunity as more individuals become engaged in the process of bringing it to fruition. As for Franchise structures, entrepreneurial opportunity identification has already been done by the Master Franchise holder and what is being passed on is a tried and tested business model requiring little or no improvement. In fact, innovation is actively discouraged through contractual obligations between the Franchisee and Franchisor.

Two participants are Board Chairs and major shareholders in publicly listed companies. The number of employees engaged in participant's business' range from the owner on their own to thirty six employees in the largest operation. Annual turnovers amount to NZD\$ 1.2m at the lower end to an estimated NZD\$ 134m at the top end (2008 projections). The nature of the businesses themselves cover a broad span of operations and industrial sectors, from personal services to sophisticated heavy engineering, the agricultural sector to adventure tourism.

A defining feature of all participants businesses is that they were all founded on a commercial innovation. The products or services they offer were developed as a result of opportunities identified in the market or as a consequence of personal frustrations in

sourcing appropriate products or services in the market. Twenty four participants had been in paid employment at the time of launching their genesis projects and identified opportunities in the marketplace their employers were unwilling or unable to pursue. The balance of six participants started new ventures as a result of extraneous personal circumstances which forced them to explore opportunities in the prevailing market and needs that were not being addressed.

4.2 Values associated with Entrepreneurial Behaviour

Schwartz's Personal Value Inventory (1992) comprises 56 commonly cited values classified under a set of 10 universal sub-dimensions (power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity and security). While all of these sub-dimensions are found in every culture, the level of importance of each varies (Schwartz, 1992). Participants were presented with the inventory of 56 values and were asked to rate the five values with which they most closely identified and which were most important to entrepreneurial behaviour (see Appendix A).

Participants were instructed not to rate all 56 values in the inventory. Research by Holt (1997) and others has indicated that individuals not only subscribe to a few critically important values to guide their behaviour but are also only really conscious of a few at any one time (McGrath, McMillan, Yang & Tsai, 1992; Mitchell, Smith, Seawright & Morse, 2000). The table below reflects the top five values rated in order of importance by participants. Participants were asked to rate their values according to a five-point scale of supreme importance (5); very important (4); quite important (3); moderately important (2); important (1). The table below reflects the ratings made by the participants to the top five values believed to be reflective of entrepreneurial behaviour and against the above five point scale. Each value's raw score was added together and divided by 30 to arrive at the mean score shown in the table.

Value	Total Raw Score	Avg.
INDEPENDENT	145	4.83
AMBITIOUS	117	3.90
CHOOSING OWN GOALS	107	3.57
CREATIVITY	101	3.37
DARING	49	1.63

Table 1: Rated values – Top five, N=30.

A key finding from this survey has been the discovery that three of the above value descriptors; 'Independence, Choosing own goals, and Creativity' are clustered under the 'Self-direction' sub-dimension defined by Schwarz (1992). Self-direction, as a sub-dimension within the values inventory, was derived from the individual's need for control and mastery as well as the interactional requirements for autonomy and independence. These findings are significant when it comes to comparing the sub-dimension of Self Direction (Schwarz, 1992) and Self Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 1985), which will be expanded on later.

'Ambitious' is a descriptor from the 'Achievement' sub-dimension in Schwartz's typology (1992). The defining goal of 'Achievement' is personal success through demonstrating competence. Competent performance is a requirement if individuals are to obtain the resources they need to capitalise on entrepreneurial opportunities and if social interaction and opportunity exploitation are to succeed (Shane 2003). The 'Achievement' value type as it has been defined by Schwartz (1992) differs from McClelland's nAch (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark & Lowell, 1953) who define achievement motivation to meet the individual's standards of excellence. This latter definition would be more closely related to the values associated with a 'Self-direction' sub-dimension. 'Ambitious' is also integrally related to the notion of 'Choosing own goals', as in the expectation that entrepreneurial behaviour is targeted at achieving ambitious goals. The rationale behind a joint consideration of 'ambitious' and 'Choosing own goals' is more fully developed in the next chapter.

'Daring' is a descriptor associated with the 'Stimulation' sub-dimension (Schwartz, 1992). Stimulation values are derived from the individual's presumed need for variety and

stimulation in order to maintain an optimal level of functioning. This need is also related to those that underpin 'Self-direction' values (Deci, 1975). Variations in the need for stimulation and arousal, conditioned as they are by social experience, may produce individual differences in the importance of stimulation values.

Only seven of the participants chose this as an important value. This would indicate that there are differences in the levels of stimulation needed in entrepreneurial activity. In other words, some individuals need and respond better to more challenge and variety than others. When probed further with participants during the interviews it was discovered that 'daring' was perhaps not the best way to describe the individual's need for challenge, stimulation and variety but rather to associate 'daring' with the individual's risk profile. Participants were indeed easily bored by continuous activities associated with day-to-day management of their business but opted instead to express this aspect of their behaviour under the need for 'independence'. The low number of responses but the higher rating attributed by participants to the notion of 'daring' suggests that it could be construed as a differentiating feature focused on the notion of 'risk' between normal business activity and entrepreneurial behaviour.

Participants were only given the words as values, for example, 'independent', without Schwartz's further explanation of the concept, that is, 'self-reliant, self sufficient' in the survey. This was done in the knowledge that there would be interviews with each participant and that I would be able to establish first hand their subjective interpretation of the concept and the meaning they attached to it. While this may sound trite, the relevance of this omission becomes more apparent when considering the concept of 'successful', which Schwarz simply describes as 'achieving goals.' 'Success' is a relative concept and will differ in meaning and impact from one individual to another. It is this individual meaning that was important to surface through the interviews without pre-empting suggested descriptions.

In summary, a total of five values were deemed to be important in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour with 'independence, ambition, choosing own goals' and 'creativity' significantly more important than 'daring. The clustering of these value descriptors under Schwartz's (1992) 'Self-direction' subcategory indicates that

entrepreneurial behaviour is largely perceived to be self-determined behaviour. The individual meaning participants placed on each of these values is covered below.

4.3 Meaning and Themes

Initial interviews with participants lasted on average over an hour and forty five minutes each allowing for a reasonable conversation to take place. The length of the interview was indicative of the reflexivity inherent in discourse as individuals come to terms with self-discovery and expressing interpretive meaning. Instead of launching immediately into a discussion concerning the meaning of the above values I deemed it necessary to frame the conversation in such a way as to allow participants to first discuss their perceptions of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial behaviour. I was particularly interested in the participant's ability to maintain a specific narrative about being entrepreneurial that gave voice to that assumed identity. By opening up the discussion to participants I was able to gain a clearer perspective on individual interpretations of entrepreneurial behaviour and discern commonality through the various interviews. When I did eventually discuss the specific values associated with entrepreneurial behaviour an appropriate and focused context had been provided and I found participants to be more engaged in the conversation as well as more forthcoming regarding the meaning they attributed to their values.

4.3.1 Entrepreneurial self-appraisal

I began the interviews with a question aimed at determining how the participants perceived themselves that is, determining the meaning they attributed to themselves and others as 'entrepreneurs'. Only a small number of the sample perceived themselves as 'serial entrepreneurs', that is, someone who engages in the process of entrepreneurship on a continuous basis (Shane, 2003). The majority of participants identified with the label of 'entrepreneur' by virtue of the fact that they had started their own business. The label 'entrepreneur' was however deemed to be somewhat hackneyed in today's current language use. For example, a widespread view amongst participants was that; 'everybody is an entrepreneur these days, if you're in business [as an owner] you must be an entrepreneur' (PTCP 3; emphasis mine).

The term was also perceived to be lacking in the portrayal of what participants believed was the descriptive essence of what it meant to be entrepreneurial; 'we've lost what it means to be different, there's no more innovation and we've lost our point of difference' (PTCP 17). This was a common theme running through many of the remarks made by participants regarding the notion of 'entrepreneur'. Considering the majority of participants had selected creativity as fundamental to entrepreneurial behaviour I found this comment to be somewhat out of place. A strong belief that creativity is essential to entrepreneurial behaviour was not necessarily translated into practice by participants. Only a small number of participants (notably the 'serial entrepreneurs') could point to and demonstrate consistent real application of creativity in their business. Despite this however, the remaining participants identified themselves as 'entrepreneurs' and separate from other business owners. This suggests that there is a differentiated sense of community identity amongst participants based on factors associated with creativity, a matter that is more fully discussed in the next chapter.

On questioning the perception of being labelled an 'entrepreneur' further, participants responded that the concept, as it is in use today, was so broad and ill-defined that virtually anyone who had been marginally engaged in either starting or operating a small business was considered an 'entrepreneur'. Furthermore, participants quoted examples of the concept appearing in popular literature across many different disciplines from religious and social entrepreneurs to techno-preneurs, art and cultural entrepreneurs. A frequent observation from the participants was the notion that being an 'entrepreneur' had become a diluted and an emotionally loaded term that attracted unrealistic expectations and in some cases unwanted attention from others. The majority of participants however accepted reference to themselves as 'entrepreneurs' despite some negative attention. I did perceive, a continued inclination throughout the interview process for participants to separate themselves from other business owners thus supporting a feeling that there is a sense of community identity even when one is labelled an 'entrepreneur'.

Identities are not restricted to self-attributions and may involve ascriptions made by others. This is known as 'labelling' or 'alter-casting', and is the process of attribution or misattribution which may involve positive or negative identities (Gecas, 2000, p.96). Negative identity labels are naturally contested or denied but despite this can result in

discriminatory or isolationist practices within a community. Normally, such a condition would arise in a wider social context with a community labelling an individual or minority on the basis of race, religion, ethnic origin etc., culminating in practices that would be construed as discriminatory. In this study, however, the label of 'entrepreneur' attributed to most of the sample proved only to be a minor irritation but still a point of recognised differentiation between themselves and other business owners. I return to this issue and its relationship with self-identity in Chapter six.

The consensus amongst participants was that they do perceive themselves as being entrepreneurial. The ideal image that participants hold of an 'entrepreneur' differs from what a general public image may be of the same person, that is, an 'entrepreneur' is someone who starts up a new venture. Some participants (7 of the sample) suggested that they were striving to be 'entrepreneurs' but that they had not yet achieved that goal and could only do so through 'being entrepreneurial'. It was as if the process to achieving 'entrepreneur' status was a series of progressive stages, one building on another until the pinnacle had been reached where one could ultimately claim to be an 'entrepreneur'. Most of the participants had no specific goal to be 'entrepreneurs', and were primarily focused on their business' success.

I then asked participants to explain what attributes could be used to describe someone who is entrepreneurial, that is, what were the attributes an individual would need to possess in order to be perceived as being entrepreneurial. The following table reports the summarized responses of all the participants clustered around several common themes and in order of their importance to entrepreneurial behaviour.

Theme	Summarised Responses
Independent	Independent, individualistic, non-conformist, not subservient to others, in command, the leader, in control, the boss, the final decision maker, holds the power, self-sufficient, in charge, the ultimate authority, self-directed, free to act, stands out from the rest, enterprising.
Creativity	Coming up with new ideas, new ways of doing things applied creativity, new opportunities, problem solver, challenge the status quo, looks at the world differently, looking for new ideas, creative, original, unique, introduces 'newness', inventive.

Goal driven	Sets goals and pursues them, directed, ambitious, driving force, focused, pushes on, target driven, sets high standards, future focused.
Ambitious	Excited, puts in 110%, perceived as truly successful, uses initiative, thinks ahead, plans to succeed, resourceful, anti 'flat earth' society, visionary, big picture orientation.
Achiever	Follows through, deals with obstacles, energetic, enthusiastic, go getter, passion to succeed, driven, successful, competitive, seeks to win, self starter, hard working.
Risk taker	Willing to take risks, mild risk, takes real risk, calculates risk, not averse to risk, takes a gamble, tolerant of risk, accept risks, bold, daring.
Networker	Well connected, communicates well, respected by community, maintains networks, value networking, committed to community, know the right people.

Table 2: Attributes assigned to those perceived to be entrepreneurial.

As can be seen from the above, participants provided their individual interpretations of the attributes associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. There was considerable overlap of response amongst participants in the raw data with many voicing the same interpretation. For each of the above categories of summarised data a theme emerged that summed together the information provided in that category and to which I assigned a descriptor based on my experience of the field (a constructivist approach). These are called the 'categories of description' (Akerlind, 2005; Marton, 1981; 1986; Uljens, 1996) referred to in the methodology. The set of categories depicted above are referred to as an outcome space. These categories (and their underlying structure) become the phenomenographic essence of the phenomenon, the phenomenon being entrepreneurial behaviour (Uljens, 1996).

Participant responses largely followed a similar pattern of importance to the values reflected in Table 1., above. The significance of this is expanded on in the following Chapter however it is noteworthy to point out how values are expressed in behaviour. A person who values their independence is likely to behave in ways that demonstrate that they are in control. Being entrepreneurial, places a premium on independence which is expressed in the person's observed behaviour through being in control, making decisions and being free to act. Similarly the individual who values creativity will behave in ways that give effect to that value through seeking out opportunity, solving problems and proposing new ideas.

4.3.2 Being Entrepreneurial

Having asked participants for their view on the attributes they would assign to entrepreneurial behaviour, I asked for more information on what it meant to be entrepreneurial. I therefore posed a question to participants that took the process one step further and which would set the tone and context for the rest of the interview. The purpose of the question was to solicit as much information as possible from participants regarding their subjective interpretation of what it meant to ‘be entrepreneurial’. If a particular identity was, as Giddens (1991, p.53) suggests; ‘a collection of meanings’, then it was anticipated that participants would be able to voice their individual interpretations and express several common perceptions of what it meant to ‘be entrepreneurial’.

Theme	Participant Response
Determination Control Leadership (Self-determination)	Make my own decisions (PTCP 7;9;10;18); in control of my own destiny (PTCP 1;4;11), determination (PTCP 5;7;11;13), leading (PTCP 9;17;20;25), setting my own direction (PTCP 9;12;21), being in charge (PTCP 22;23;26;29), in the driver’s seat (PTCP 14;17;19), managing strategically (PTCP 2; 3; 7; 11;19;25), creating the vision (PTCP 15;18;24), being the driving force (PTCP17;22;29) , visionary (PTCP 8; 9; 16; 22; 27;28).
Intrinsically motivated High energy Obsessed (Self-motivated)	High levels of internal motivation (PTCP 2; 3; 7; 11; 14; 16; 19;23;26;30), driven (PTCP 6;10;13;15;17), intrinsic motivation (PTCP 8;9;13;20;22;27), self starter (PTCP 1; 4; 8; 12;18;22;24;30), motivated from within (PTCP 3; 7; 11; 19;25;27), energy (PTCP 5-10; 14;16;17;20;21;27;29), passionate (PTCP 1;3;9;11-15;22-27;30), obsessed (PTCP 6; 7; 10;13;17;18;23;24;28), striving to achieve (PTCP 4; 6; 8; 12; 15;18;20;22;25;29), inspiring (PTCP 5; 9; 11; 12; 17; 23; 27; 28;29).
Committed Confident Focused Effective (Self-disciplined)	The power to decide (PTCP 1;8;9;14), focus (PTCP 10; 12; 19;24), commitment (PTCP 3;5;17;24;26), hard work (PTCP 2;5;11;13;16;17;21;23;27;30), takes guts (PTCP 17; 19; 22;25), learn new things (PTCP 7;8;9;15;19;20;27), apply skills (PTCP 4;12;17;28), confidence in one’s abilities (PTCP 1-5;9;13;16;22;26), staying on target (PTCP 6; 8; 24; 30), managing time efficiently (PTCP 3;15;18;23), selfish (PTCP 11;17;27), being effective (PTCP 2;5;16;21), decisive (PTCP 14;18;21;25), self-discipline (PTCP 10; 12; 17; 20;27;29).

Table 3: What it means to be entrepreneurial.

Again, there was considerable overlap of response to this question from participants, indicating a large degree of shared interpretation in determining what it meant to be entrepreneurial. The major themes emanating from the above data was small and can be further categorised under three key headings, that is, Self-determination, Self-motivation and Self-discipline.

Under the theme of Self-determination participants responded that being entrepreneurial meant being in control. Furthermore, the notion of control was extended to include the individual's perception of their own future, that is, where they were headed in their business as well as personally. Being entrepreneurial therefore meant being in control of their future and being able to independently choose their own direction and course of action. The responses were focused and supportive of the need for individuals to feel that they were independent, in control and determined to achieve their goals. For example;

I determine my own future; nobody can do this for me, I am the only one who can set out where I want to go and how I will get there. I make my own decisions and live by the consequences. I get the results and reap the rewards. It all sounds very superior but it's not. I see it as being independent (PTCP 7).

The fixation on control and 'being in charge' was the single most emphasised factor by all participants. While this point is discussed more fully in the next chapter it is worth mentioning at this time that there was little or no acknowledgement that input was needed from others in the entrepreneurial process, nor involvement from others in decision making. Control, and therefore Independence, was deemed to be absolute for participants.

Responses to the question also clustered around a second major theme namely that of Self-motivation. Most of the participants stated that they were driven from within to pursue opportunities instead of being rewarded through employment. Indeed, many of the participants claimed that the main reason why they had started out on their own was because of an unfulfilled aspiration they felt they needed to pursue. Extrinsic triggers, that is, situations or events outside the individual's control, played a minor role in the initial motivation to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour. A sense of frustration and other extenuating circumstances were given as the original motivation in only a few of the responses. For the majority of participants being entrepreneurial was about being energised

from within to pursue personal goals and aspirations. Throughout the interviews there was a strong and consistent theme that the drive and energy to be entrepreneurial needed to come from within the individual.

I woke up one morning in pain from the night before and didn't like what I saw or felt about myself. I decided right then to do something about it and get off my arse. If I hadn't made that decision then, I'd probably still be a couch potato. But as I acted on each step of my plan things fell into place and with each small success I made progress. I strive to achieve goals continuously. You can't slack off. You need to have that realisation that you're not in a happy space to give you the motivation to go forward. More importantly, you need to have those realisations all the time (PTCP 20).

The third theme of Self-discipline revealed that entrepreneurial behaviour required an ability to follow through from beginning to end in a decisive, committed and focused way. With two exceptions, all of the other participants stated that high levels of self-discipline were required if they were to succeed in their endeavours. This was often at the expense of close relationships with others, that is, family and friends. Being entrepreneurial meant demonstrating a level of selfishness toward others. Participants responded that the greater proportion of their waking time was spent in some activity associated with their business and they had little time for themselves or close family members outside of this. Participants did also point out that by exerting all this effort into being entrepreneurial there was significant satisfaction in achieving goals which resulted in rewards, opportunities to achieve more, delayed gratification, community recognition, respect and acknowledgment.

I'm always on the lookout for new things to do, new opportunities to pursue and the chance to be creative while I'm doing it. It's not all fun and games though, there's a discipline, a process to be followed every single time which is difficult to escape from. Once you've discovered the winning formula you need to have the self-discipline to follow it every time in order to be successful (PTCP 12).

To be entrepreneurial therefore means having the determination to set, pursue and achieve personally challenging goals and aspirations independently of others. Being entrepreneurial means possessing the drive, ambition and motivation to achieve those goals and having the self-discipline to confidently engage in processes that will be effective and efficient in bringing about the desired results.

4.3.3 Entrepreneurial values

Since personally held values and their influence on entrepreneurial behaviour are central to this study, a considerable amount of interview time focused on this question. The findings are supplemented with relevant excerpts from conversations with participants in order to capture specific nuances of their views regarding values. This was considered appropriate in view of the fact that there has been no research done at an individual level regarding motivational antecedents to entrepreneurial behaviour. The sequence of values discussed under this question follows their relative importance, that is, from ‘supremely important’ to ‘important’ in much the same way as participants rated their values as above (see Table 1). The descriptive words set out in the table below were extracted from the conversations held with participants. Again, there was significant overlap between participants regarding their descriptions of entrepreneurial values pointing to the presence of a common perception amongst participants about these beliefs.

Value	Participant interpretation	Interpretive Theme
INDEPENDENT	In control, in charge (PTCP 1-4; 7; 9; 11; 14; 17; 20;23;24;27;30), accountable (PTCP 3; 5; 8; 12; 15;16;21;28), take responsibility (PTCP 1; 4; 7; 10;11;13;15;17;19;20;23;25;27;30), trust themselves (PTCP 3; 7; 8;11;17;21;26;29), autonomous (PTCP 1;3;5-10;12-6; 19; 21; 24; 25;29;30), make key decisions (PTCP 2; 6; 7; 9; 10;11;15;18;22;23;27;29), free to decide (PTCP 5;7;8;10;13;20;26;30), self-determined (PTCP 1; 3; 7;11;15;23;27), self-controlled (PTCP 2;4;6;8-10;13;14;16;22;29).	Self-Determination Control Freedom Autonomous
AMBITIOUS	Pursues challenge and stimulation (PTCP 3; 7; 10; 13;18;19;23;27;30), intrinsically motivated (PTCP 1;5;6;7;9;11;12;14;15;17;20;21;24;27;29), no fear (PTCP 1;2;5;6;9;13;14;16;22;25), long-term goals (PTCP 3;4;6;8;9;10;17;19;21;26;27;30), leader (PTCP 4;5;8;10;13;19;21;24;28), helicopter view (PTCP 1; 3; 7; 9; 11; 12; 15; 16; 18;20;21;27;30), go-getter (PTCP 1-6; 9-14;16;17;20;22;25;26;29).	Self-motivation Intrinsically motivated Challenged Driven
CHOOSING OWN GOALS	Goal driven (1-12;15;17;21;25;29), critical analysis (1;3;7;9;10;13;15;17;18;23;27), self-determination (PTCP 5;7;11;13), Set goals (PTCP 1;3;4;5;7;9;11;12;14;15;17;19;23;24;26;17;29;30), plans (PTCP 2; 6; 7; 9; 10;11;15;18;22;23;27;29),	Self-Determination Goal-driven Perseverance

	motivated to persevere (PTCP 3; 7; 10; 13; 18; 19; 23;27;30), self-disciplined (PTCP 2; 6; 7; 9; 10; 11; 15;18;22;23;27;29), know what they have to do and do it (PTCP 5;7;8;10;13;20;26;30).	Self-discipline
CREATIVITY	To be creative you need to be independent (PTCP 1; 4; 7; 10;11;13;15;17;19;20;23;25;27;30), creativity is pure fun (PTCP 1; 3; 7;11;15;23;27), flight of ideas (PTCP 3; 5; 8; 12; 15;16;21;28), resourceful , (PTCP 1; 2; 5; 6; 9; 13; 14; 16; 22; 25) imagination (PTCP 1;3;5-10;12-6; 19; 21; 24; 25;29;30), think differently (PTCP 4; 5; 8; 10; 13; 19;21;24;28), ingenious (PTCP 5;7;11;13),	Imagination Resourceful Ideas ingenious
DARING	Passionate (PTCP 3; 7; 10; 13;18;19;23;27;30), generate energy (PTCP 1; 3; 7;11;15;23;27), inspires curiosity (PTCP 2; 6; 7; 9; 10; 11; 15; 18; 22;23;27;29), bold (PTCP 3; 7; 10; 13; 18; 19; 23; 27; 30), audacious (PTCP 1; 2; 5; 6; 9; 13; 14; 16; 22; 25), adventurous (PTCP 1; 3; 4; 5; 7; 9; 11; 12; 14;15;17;19;23;24;26;17;29;30), uncompromising (PTCP 4; 5; 8; 10; 13; 19; 21; 28)	Passionate Adventurous Bold Risk Curious

Table 4: Entrepreneurial Values and their description.

4.3.3.1 Independence

The need for independence was a value that was perceived as fundamental, without exception, to all participants with ratings of ‘extremely important’ (4) to ‘supremely important’ (5). However, despite widespread support and research indicating that independence is an important construct for entrepreneurial behaviour, little has been said about the meaning attributed to independence by the individual or how it acts as an intrinsic motivator. The following excerpt from an interview with one of the participant’s reflects what most others had to say about independence:

Independence means being in control, not having to rely on someone else or others to get things done. I am in charge and can make my own decisions (PTCP 9).

As a personal value, independence or believing in being independent has several noteworthy characteristics. The primary feature expressed by participants was the sense of control; being in control of the situation, being in control of others and being in control of themselves are hallmarks of the independent person. A second feature is confidence; having confidence (self-efficacy) in oneself that they are capable and have the necessary knowledge and skills to be in control and to make those decisions.

The feeling of being in control and the confidence emanating from being independent also enables a sense of freedom. Freedom allows the individual to be creative and pursue activities that will contribute to growth and for them to experience overall achievement.

Being free to make my own mind up enables me to confidently look at a situation and work out a solution. I don't feel the pressure that others might have of someone looking over your shoulder or waiting to see what you're going to do. Because I'm independent, I don't have constraints being placed on me. I'm free to make up my own mind when and how I want (PTCP 13).

The need for variety and constant stimulation was expressed by most participants as a consequence of the value they place on independence rather than attributing this quality to daring. This preference and distinction was explored above. Having the freedom to pursue other novel activities and challenge the status quo of their respective industry practices was perceived as a necessary and worthwhile outlet of their need for independence.

4.3.3.2 Ambitious

To be ambitious, or to value ambition, is to have a desire to achieve a particular goal. In the context of entrepreneurial behaviour responses from participants to the notion of being ambitious included pursuing challenges and stimulation; being intrinsically motivated to achieve; goal driven; self-determination; motivation to persevere and being self-disciplined.

Having an ambition means having a long term goal that is way beyond your current capability – like a vision of the future for yourself. I think having ambition provides essential energy to be ambitious. So, being ambitious or showing that you are ambitious sends a message to everyone else around you that you know where you're going and it energises them to achieve their own goals (PTCP 9).

Two thirds of the sample believed that being ambitious generated its own energy, as if others were watching whether the individual would actually achieve what they had set out to accomplish. Having set an ambitious target for themselves several participants expressed they felt an obligation to perform and sensed an expectation from others to 'jump into action' (PTCP 11). The feeling of 'not wanting to let others down' (PTCP 8), acted as an emotive stimulant that spurred the individual to act on their goals.

Another consequence of the need to be ambitious is illustrated through the individual's capacity to persevere. Perseverance was perceived as a key characteristic of ambition and was described by at least one of the participants as developing a single minded focus on achieving the outcome they had set for themselves.

Once the goal has been set and I know where I'm headed and what I need to achieve, I get busy. I get into a 'zone' where nothing else matters. I'm focused and I know what I have to do. ... Sure, I make mistakes along the way and there are times I ask myself what the hell I'm doing this for, but I persevere because it's about achieving the goal and what achieving it means to me (PTCP 19).

I noted the continued reference to 'I' and the self in many of the conversations with participants on this point that does not recognise assistance from others. As with being in control, perseverance also seems to possess singular qualities that do not reflect the input from others.

Ambition also draws on the individual's capacity to discipline themselves toward the achievement of their goals. There is an intuitive quality about knowing what they have to do and do it; that predisposes the individual toward accomplishment and conveys a level of competence and confidence in their ability to achieve a specific outcome.

4.3.3.3 Choosing own goals

There is a task orientation to the value of choosing one's own goals that has an overlap with both 'independence' and 'ambition'. Being able to choose one's own goals suggests the individual possesses the skill and knowledge (self-efficacy) to be able to set their own goals. Being in a position to be able to set one's own goals suggests the individual is reliant on their degree of 'independence' to be able to set their own goals, that is, they are in a position to decide for themselves what goals they choose to achieve. The confidence emanating from both knowing 'how to' and 'able to' influence the nature of those goals and their degree of difficulty or how 'ambitious the individual proposes to be. This reflects the complementary nature of values and the dynamic influence they have on entrepreneurial behaviour. An entrepreneurial individual is therefore unlikely; knowing how to and being in a position to; to set anything other than ambitious goals.

Furthermore, distortions occurred during survey rating process. Individuals did not rate 'creativity' because it was synonymous with entrepreneurship and only a few individuals rated 'daring' as highly as 'ambition'. The overall effect of these distortions pushes 'choosing own goals' as a value typical of entrepreneurial behaviour further down the list of importance. Given the relationship to other values in the value-set and the above distortions I decided to incorporate any further discussion on 'choosing own goals' into discussions on both 'independence' and 'ambition'. This is a more task/action oriented value where the belief or need is more firmly embedded in 'independence' and 'ambition'. It nevertheless illustrates the interconnectedness between values, particularly 'ambition' and 'independence'. As one participant put it;

Anyone can set goals for themselves and those goals can be whatever they want them to be. However, to be ambitious and to be able to achieve them, they have to be in a position to be able to achieve them. This means a person needs to be able to set goals independently of others and then, needs to be in control so that they can make decisions regarding their achievement, like what resources will be needed, how much time it will take and so on (PTCP 26).

Of particular interest to me were the comments participants made regarding self-determination, perseverance and self-discipline. The comment regarding self-determination is closely linked to statements made under the discussion regarding independence above. The need for independence not only incorporates feelings of being in control, but also the need to be able to determine one's own future progress. Self-determination was described as having the freedom to choose one's own course of action; a fundamental pre-requisite for entrepreneurial behaviour.

Perseverance was described by participants as having not only the skill and ability to set ambitious goals but also the energy to relentlessly pursue their achievement. Perseverance implies the individual needs to be self-disciplined and focused to the extent that they do not become distracted or side-tracked while trying to achieve them.

Once I've made the decision to act on my goals, very little gets in the way. I have a strong sense of what needs to be done and how to do it so I just go about my work and do what I have to do. Having said that though, I don't like being interfered with once I

get going, I get tense and focused and distractions just make my stress levels go through the roof. That probably explains why I've gone through two marriages and two partners; I'm terrible to live with once I get really focused on something (PTCP 26).

4.3.3.4 Creativity

As perhaps the most defining feature between operators of small businesses and an entrepreneurial venture, creativity was perceived by participants to be highly recognizable in entrepreneurial behaviour. As has been previously discussed, the need for the individual to value independence as a part of their personal value-set is a necessary condition for creativity. This allows the individual the freedom to explore, discover and creatively think about how they would go about solving complex problems in unique and innovative ways.

The comment from one participant that creativity was 'pure fun' illustrates the significant worth placed on this concept in entrepreneurial behaviour. For him, creativity was a release from the hard and sometimes frustrating pursuit of chasing down a worthwhile opportunity. His explanation included a view that even during this intense and highly focused activity it was sometimes refreshing to stand back and throw everything up in the air in case there were any new ideas that could be included in that opportunity. Imagination featured significantly in discussion as one would have expected. Imagination for several participants took on childlike qualities, 'unencumbered and unconstrained meanderings of the mind; pure thoughts that haven't been touched by harsh reality' (PTCP 23), as one participant put it. Creativity was the notion of thinking differently:

Being creative, in my opinion, demands more of the person, it needs fresh thinking, a new approach, ... I mean a radically new way of thinking, where you empty your mind of all of your preconceptions about the way things are and should be and you fill it with all the ideas of the way things could be (PTCP 15).

Creativity also acts as an internal stimulus and an intrinsic motivation for the individual to think beyond the glaringly obvious solutions to a complex problem. Being creative allowed individuals to use their imagination to develop new and unique insights as well as to challenge existing paradigms which are inclined to keep people confined to specific rules and within certain boundaries. Creativity is also linked to individuals who demonstrate a high tolerance for ambiguity.

While many of the participants recognised that creativity was a fundamental principle of entrepreneurial behaviour, relatively few could actually demonstrate applied creativity in their business on an ongoing basis. This response suggests that there is a process to creativity that is so mentally draining that it is difficult to sustain over long periods of time. As one participant put it;

I was creative once in my business, right at the outset and I had a lot of fun. But as time went on I lost the ability to generate the same enthusiasm and energy. I know creativity in business is important, I know I was able to do it before and I know if I want my business to succeed in the future I am going to have to do it all over again – but it's hard! And I'm not sure I remember how to be creative anymore (PTCP 18).

Those participants who were able to demonstrate ongoing creativity in their business however, were able to point to a process they had adopted. Creativity played a central role in their personal value-set and was higher up their values hierarchy to the point that it was in most cases on a par with independence. The relative position and importance of creativity will be dealt with in more depth in the discussion chapter that follows.

4.3.3.5 Daring

Daring is part of the stimulation sub-dimension of Schwartz's values inventory and also refers to 'excitement, novelty and challenge in life' (Schwartz, 1992, p.122). Thus, to be daring in entrepreneurial behaviour is to be excited at the prospect of new opportunities, to be novel in developing solutions and to seek out challenges. A more formal definition from the Oxford English Dictionary includes the notion of adventure and risk. The notion of 'daring' was for most participants interpreted as synonymous with the concept of 'independence' noting that in order to be daring one also had to be in a position to be daring. If one was able to operate independently in a given situation it would be easier to develop and apply a 'daring' response because of that independence. Most notable in the descriptive accounts of what it meant to be daring was the sense of energy I was able to observe in the words and actions of those interviewed.

Daring for me is a bit like challenging the way everybody else does it. Being daring is like not being scared to take a chance and push back against the rules when you need to. It

means going against the flow, taking a few risks and being adventurous. It would be a pretty boring business if I didn't push the boundaries occasionally (PTCP 27).

This participant gave examples such as; deliberately challenging the legality of local council by-laws and regulations that prevented him the freedom to conduct his business the way he wanted to; speculating and investing in high risk ventures and in one instance openly flouting the law by holding a parade without permission in rush hour traffic to market a restaurant he was opening. He claims the revenue generated more than covered the fine and that he would do it again if he had the chance. This individual is well known within his region and has a reputation for pushing conventional boundaries and tradition well beyond breaking point.

Having a sense of daring provoked passionate responses about what individuals had accomplished in their business. Where this occurred, participants literally transformed behaviourally and became more excited and bold about what they were telling me. Daring inspired feelings of curiosity and audaciousness which enabled them to set ambitious and uncompromising goals.

I read a book once (Collins & Porras, 1996; *Built to Last*) that helped me be more adventurous with my business. The authors talked about setting BHAG's – Big Hairy Audacious Goals; goals that are bold and seemingly impossible to achieve. It seemed to me then that the only way I was going to grow this operation was by doing something really extraordinary. So I set some BHAG's and went after them (PTCP 16).

Risk was perceived by participants as synonymous with daring. However participants did not succumb to the popular view that entrepreneurs are high risk takers. Daring situations were perceived by many participants as having an inherent amount of calculable and manageable risk. Participants were unanimous that they would not place scarce or valuable resources at risk without first analysing the situation from many different angles. Participants also confirmed an awareness that risk profiles would differ from one person to the next. The general perception that entrepreneurs are 'high risk takers' appears to arise more from the fact that entrepreneurial behaviour is unique, creative and intentionally focused on innovation. It is characterised by frequent individual attempts to do something that is extraordinary and which others have never encountered before. The behaviour is thus so

out of the ordinary that it becomes noticed, is different and, without knowing the processes inherently involved in the action, perceived by others as highly risky.

4.4 Summary

Most of the participants perceived themselves as being entrepreneurial rather than being labelled entrepreneurs. The ideal image that participants hold of an entrepreneur is somewhat different from what a general public view, that is, an 'entrepreneur' is someone who starts up a new venture. A small number of participants suggested that they were striving to be entrepreneurs but that they had not yet achieved that goal. Most of the participants had no specific goal to be entrepreneurs, and were for the most part focused on their business' success.

Descriptions of entrepreneurial behaviour revealed that it was behaviour that was self-determined, self-motivated and self-disciplined. Entrepreneurial behaviour was deemed to be self-determined by and large because of the emphasis placed on being independent and in control. The emphasis on independence furthermore demonstrates the individual's inclination toward setting ambitious goals and having the freedom to decide on the best route toward their achievement.

Entrepreneurial behaviour was described as self-motivated. An essential requirement for the achievement of ambitious goals was perceived to be the level of self-generated energy needed to pursue activities that would fulfil their goals. Motivation was perceived to come from within the individual and was particularly caused by the need to express their creativity. Motivation is thus intrinsic and caused by a combination of the four main values expressed through entrepreneurial behaviour. Extrinsic sources of motivation were perceived to erode the individual's confidence and independence in their efforts to achieve.

Entrepreneurial behaviour was perceived by the sample to be self-disciplined. The overarching need for independence and the effort needed to achieve ambitious goals requires considerable commitment and focus. Self-discipline is needed to ensure the individual remains focused and on task. The downside of this level of focus is that it can lead to disruptions in other roles the individual may occupy and block valuable input from

entering the assessment of an opportunity. Self-discipline's advantage however is that it aids the individual in the perseverance to achieve their goals. Self-discipline was strongly associated with self-determination. Self determined behaviour requires considerable discipline in order to achieve ambitious goals and the individual cannot afford to slack off in pursuit of entrepreneurial opportunities.

The most highly rated values associated with entrepreneurial behaviour were independence, ambition, choosing own goals, creativity and daring. Independence was the most highly rated because it provided the individual with a sense of control over their and others activities. It also provided an opportunity to freely decide on courses of action. Ambition was perceived by individuals as a necessary condition for entrepreneurial performance due to the emphasis placed on creativity. The differentiating feature between normal business behaviour and entrepreneurial behaviour was the belief in creativity. Creativity and the ambition to see ideas come to fruition in the market were perceived as essential differentiating features of entrepreneurial behaviour. The ability to choose one's own goals were seen as task functions of both independence (as in the freedom to choose) and ambition (the need to excel and go beyond the norm). Daring was rated by less than a third of the sample, but when it was rated against the inventory's rating scale, it scored significantly higher reflecting a score that was marginally below 'creativity' in importance to entrepreneurial behaviour. Daring was associated more with the belief in being adventurous although there are connotations of daring with risk. Risk itself was not particularly highlighted as an issue for most of the sample. The desire to do something out of the ordinary and to be non-conformist was perceived to be of considerable importance to entrepreneurial behaviour.

The following Chapter examines these findings in more detail and compares these results and their interpretation with relevant literature. Where need excerpts from various discussions are incorporated to highlight nuances that were not explicitly uncovered in the findings.

Chapter 5: Values content and what they mean

This chapter expands on the findings of the study and develops the underlying premise of this thesis, namely, that values play an important role in the expression of entrepreneurial behaviour. It is posited here that values are centrally held beliefs that influence the individual's choice of behavioural response to events in the environment.

This chapter has a twofold purpose. The first is to develop the theoretical underpinnings of both values and entrepreneurial behaviour by exploring the conceptual similarities between values, beliefs, and needs. The second purpose is to substantiate the role values play in entrepreneurial behaviour by explaining the data from the previous chapter. Quotes from participants have been used to substantiate the findings from both the Values Inventory survey and the interviews. Where these appear, I have indented the text and have used bold type to highlight the question posed and normal type for the response.

The organization of this chapter is as follows: the next section (5.1) discusses values and value sets in more depth to reiterate the theoretical position values have in relation to entrepreneurial behaviour. Section (5.2) discusses the importance of the valuing process and how this operates at a sub-conscious level in relation to entrepreneurial behaviour. The next section (5.3) links values to the expression of psychological needs and how the latter are related to content based motivational theories. Section (5.4) discusses inherent psychological needs in the context of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in self-determination theory and explores the assertion that values act as intrinsic motivators of entrepreneurial behaviour. Section (5.5) examines the content of values from an intrinsic motivational perspective and provides evidence of the collective meanings attributed to an entrepreneurial value-set by the sample. This chapter is summarised in section (5.6) and is followed by chapter six which discusses the relationship between entrepreneurial values and self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy.

5.1 Values and Value Sets

Rokeach (1973) defined values as beliefs that 'a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence' (p. 5). These guiding principles influence an individual's attitude, emotions and behaviour and typically endure over long periods of time and across different situations (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987; Schwartz, 1992). In other words, an individual who holds a particular value is expected to consistently express behaviour germane to that value in a variety of different situations over time. For example, the individual (PTCP 27) who firmly believes in 'daring' as a value attributes certain meaning to that value and consistently expresses behaviour that can be construed as 'daring'. Similarly, one who values 'creativity' would be expected to express ideas that are unique, new or unconventional on a relatively consistent basis.

Personally held values are also an internalised set of subjective interpretations of external events and situations in which the individual may participate (Schwartz, 1992; Feather, 1992). Some individuals, for example, strive to operate independently of others, to determine their own path of development and growth without interference from others. The force of that belief furthermore supports the notion of an increased involvement in creative activity which, depending on how bold the individual wishes to be in expressing that creativity, could also border on 'rule breaking'. Interpretations of external events may be such that the individual does not agree with or decides to challenge constraints to their expression of independence. In these cases challenges to rules and regulations are common. For example;

I frequently encounter rules and processes I know are fundamentally flawed and don't work so I challenge them. I don't go out to deliberately break the law, rather I try to use the law to develop counter arguments that work in my favour and I present them to Council. It's actually quite fun to watch as they scramble to justify their interpretations, which usually they can't, but it's frustrating if they dig their heels in and stick to their rules regardless (PTCP 1).

In the context of business, individuals who choose to express their independence, may do so through the establishment of their own enterprise and are generally perceived to be entrepreneurial. It therefore follows logically that being entrepreneurial means being able to express personally held values in such a way as to engage in the process of entrepreneurship.

Values themselves come from the individual's social environment, through society's wider culture, interaction with social institutions and through relationships the individual develops with others. Values are then integrated into the self as a set of internalised meanings that contribute to the formation of the individual's self-identity (Rokeach 1973; Schwartz, 1992). The manner, in which the individual assimilates the meaning of their value-set into an idealised conception of a future reality for themselves, provides the intrinsic motivation for them to behave entrepreneurially. Values furthermore play a role in the process of self-determination by providing the individual with the drive and willingness to expend effort in pursuit of the fulfilment of those values.

Feather (1992; 1995) suggests that values lead to specific behaviours and experiences by influencing the meaning individuals assign to the desirability of specific objects or situations. Thus, an individual who attaches significant importance to 'autonomy' will in all likelihood place a high level of worth on their ability to make independent decisions and take control of the situation. According to Schwartz (1992) values fulfil five criteria: (1) they are concepts or beliefs, that is, they are beliefs individuals hold about themselves, what they deem to be important qualities they possess and what they identify with; (2) they relate to a desirable end state or behaviour. In other words, individuals strive to achieve what they believe in and along the way pursue the competencies required to enact the desired end state; (3) they transcend specific situations, goal achievement is perceived to be more important than any specific outcome. The individual therefore does not behave expediently but in a way that is consistent over time and which serves the higher goal; (4) they guide the selection or evaluation of behaviour or events; values influence the individual's perception of situations and assist in the choice of an appropriate behavioural response, and (5) they are ordered by relative importance, the individual possesses a hierarchy of values with some values more important than others and differing from other individuals (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). These criteria are expanded on further below.

While individual values provide some information about an individual's experiences and behaviour it is better to assess the entire organization of an individual's values, that is, their value system (Carver & Scheier, 1982). To assess an individual's ability to be entrepreneurial an examination was therefore made of the individual's entire value system as it relates to entrepreneurial behaviour. This is based on the premise that it is all the values together, and their relative importance to one another, that influences the individual's ability to behave entrepreneurially.

Furthermore, the individual occupies any number of roles during the course of their life and therefore expresses several different identities. Each of these identities may be based on different values. Thus, it was important to isolate only those values associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. This was done through the application of Schwartz's Values Inventory (1990) and asking the sample to rate their top five entrepreneurial values. Results indicated that the entrepreneurial value-set comprises, in order of importance; independence, ambition, choosing own goals, creativity and daring.

Before continuing with an examination of the value content however, there are further theoretical assertions that need to be considered that highlight the relationship between values and entrepreneurial behaviour. These assertions are supported with quotes from participant interviews to emphasize specific points.

5.2 Values and the Valuing process

The self has been defined as the integrative centre of the organism, the set of psychological processes that attempts to make experience whole, to feel authentically behind its behaviours and to grow (Ryan, 1995). In an attempt to integrate and grow, the self emerges in behaviours that are intrinsically motivating, that is, behaviours that are stimulating, enjoyable and valuable as ends in and of themselves. Another way of putting this is to say that the 'self' seeks to engage with those activities that are valued. Thus, an individual who positively values 'autonomy' as part of being entrepreneurial will seek out those activities where she/he can experience authentic autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1985). For example;

I've always wanted be out on my own, doing my own thing, not making someone else rich. I believe entrepreneurs need to be autonomous otherwise they wouldn't get

anywhere. I had the luxury of choosing the business I wanted to be in, not because it was going to be a cushy number, I knew I had to work hard at it, but because I knew that I could make a difference and I could influence the direction of the industry. That to me is genuine autonomy – when you know you have the ability to influence and change the course of an entire industry (PTCP 7).

Adopting values takes place through an evaluative process from the self whereby an individual determines what they like and what they do not like (Rogers, 1964; Ryan, 1995). Values are also internalised against a particular social context and culture. For example, values that are strongly supported by society and reinforced by a particular culture are more likely to be adopted and internalised by an individual than values which run contrary to social and cultural norms. From a Self-determination theory (SDT) perspective, behaviours that are congruent with social and cultural norms and which are most likely to benefit the self are those that are intrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 1985). For example;

I believe in being independent – I didn't in the beginning because I didn't think it was part of our culture for women to be that way but I had huge support from whanau and friends. I think it's what they (whanau & friends) taught me about being out on your own that made it so valuable and I can't thank them enough for that. If I'd known it was going to be this good I'd have gone out on my own a lot sooner (PTCP 11).

However, not all behaviour is intrinsically motivated. There are times when the individual can still feel authentically connected with their behaviour without being conscious of the value they place on it. This, as Ryan & Connell (1989) state, occurs when the individual feels fully identified with their behaviour, in other words they wholeheartedly endorse the behaviour and repetitively engage in this behaviour not only because they value it but also because it has become fully integrated with their identity. For example, it may be difficult to isolate the intrinsic motivations driving an individual to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour through simple observation. The subsequent interviews and conversations held with participants confirmed in the majority of cases that the values associated with entrepreneurial behaviour had become so ingrained in the individual's self-concept that they had become 'second nature' that is, fully integrated with the individual's identity at a sub-conscious level. The following excerpt from PTCP 14 clarifies this point:

Yes, I believe that if you want to be entrepreneurial you have to be creative but I don't go around the business all day thinking about it. It comes naturally to me and when it does I get excited about the prospects of the next project – it gets my creative juices flowing perhaps because of the challenges I know will be thrown up along the way. I'm a firm believer in the saying that if you think about something too hard you'll never achieve it or have it. Creativity is something I enjoy for what it does for me – I don't have to think about it though, it's just part of who I am (PTCP 14).

Twenty six participants were unable in the initial stages of the interview to clearly describe the values associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. In the majority of cases participants were also unable to pinpoint when these values became so important to them. It was only after some prompting and discussion that individuals began to explore their beliefs in greater depth and explain them. This suggests that values do function primarily at a subconscious level and need to be brought into awareness, either through an event or, as in this case, through specific discussion. Later in the conversation I examined the importance of independence with this participant;

I've always wanted to be my own boss. From the time I was at varsity I was always looking for a way to set up a business on my own. I promised myself pretty early on that I wouldn't work for anyone and make them rich. That forced me to actively look for an opportunity that would satisfy my need for independence. I bought a business from one of my dad's friends who was retiring, nothing spectacular, but it had a sound customer base and some untapped potential. Once I found my feet and the previous owner left, I knew I was on my own and I could start having some fun (PTCP 14).

While there is some explanation regarding the importance of being independent and an indication as to when independence became important to the individual, none of the sample could specifically state the cause of this need for independence and its assimilation into their value-set.

The second feature of the valuing process, that is, that individuals pursue those things they find inherently interesting and rewarding, explains why most of the sample made the decision to follow their own interests rather than go into employment. It reinforces the principle in the valuing process that individuals will pursue those opportunities they value or that they are naturally interested in. Believing in the value of independence and developing

an appreciation for the positive consequences that result from being independent, enables the internalisation of that value into the individual's value-set to the point where it becomes a sub-conscious part of the individual's identity. Independence can therefore be construed as an intrinsic motivation to pursue opportunities that will satisfy an individual's inherent need for independence.

This study confirms that individuals are often unaware, at least at a conscious level, of the values that drive their behaviour. The tacit acceptance of intrinsic values has implications for the individual's self-identity and how they project themselves to others. The role of values in relation to self-identity will be discussed in the following chapter. While entrepreneurial behaviour may, in some cases, be triggered by extrinsic events over which the individual has little or no control, most of the participants acknowledged that a specific value-set supports a strong inherent motivation to behave entrepreneurially.

5.3 Values as psychological needs

For the self to grow and integrate experience in an optimal manner, the psychological needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence must be satisfied (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Individuals need to feel they can freely choose their behaviours; that they can identify and relate to other like-minded individuals and that they can effectively participate in the activities they undertake. Thus an individual's value system must relate to psychological needs, that is, the need for safety and security, the need for belonging, the need for self-esteem and the need to self-actualise (Maslow, 1959) and primarily content based psychological theories of motivation. Schwartz for example, stated that;

Values represent, in the form of conscious goals, three universal requirements of human existence to which all individuals and societies must be responsive: needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction and the survival and welfare needs of the group (1996, p. 4).

Perhaps more succinctly, Rokeach (1973, p. 20) wrote: 'Values are the cognitive representations and transformations of needs'.

The valuing process and values can therefore be best understood from the perspective of how the individual goes about trying to satisfy their needs and grow as an individual. Values give expression to needs helping the individual to select those activities and behaviours that are desirable and supportive of need satisfaction. Values also enable the individual to avoid those situations that are not conducive to personal growth and which do not satisfy particular needs. Values work in this way by influencing the worth an individual attaches to a particular behaviour. For example, an individual who places significant value on independence is unlikely to willingly engage in processes where consensus decision making is required. The individual's overwhelming need to be in control and to make decisions independently of others will influence their perception of such an exercise as a waste of time. Thus, values become cognitive goals whereby the individual fulfils its needs for growth and stimulation by directing the individual toward those behaviours that support those needs and away from those that do not. The following sample of responses is indicative of the link between needs and values:

... It's just that I need to be stimulated, engaged in creating something, working on some kind of problem – it's an obsession I suppose. If I'm not engaged in creative activity I feel that I'm not fulfilling a personal need and consequently I'm wasting valuable time which could be put toward achieving my goals. (PTCP 14).

I need to be in control at all times. This is a complex operation and whatever can go wrong, will and quickly. I need to be on hand to be able to make quick decisions in case someone has a problem. The need to be in control also means I want to be in control. That way I have confidence that the end result is going to be what I am looking for, produced to a high standard and it will be a product that my customers will pay a premium price for (PTCP 17).

I get really frustrated when I have to stand around all the time waiting for things to be done. I know the process takes time so I suppose I'm impatient and want to keep things moving along quickly. When I'm frustrated, I need to get away just to be able to think about what I'm doing. I can get too involved, too close to the action and sometimes that can cause unnecessary interference on my part. I need to step away and let everyone else get on with it. When I do that I'm able to see the process more clearly and often come up with ideas on how to improve processes or quality (PTCP 24).

It would be easy from the above excerpts to assume that needs and values are one and the same thing. This is not the case however. The values on which these individuals place significant worth may vary between different roles and identities. An individual's needs are innate, a priori, and the same for all human beings. An individual is not born with an inherent need to be independent; indeed, they are quite dependent at birth. Some form of cognitive stimulation is needed by all human beings in order to function. Values, on the other hand, are acquired, a posteriori, and have unique meaning to the individual (Kasser, Ryan, Zax, Sameroff, 1995). 'Stimulation' in the first case above, is not only important for the individual to be able to function but also provides essential energy through behavioural expression for the need to be creative.

In the second case above, the need is one of 'being in control', not as an inherent functional need as a human being, but a need that has been acquired over time based on the value placed on being independent. In other words, one can only be in control if one values and believes in being independent. In the third case above, the need is for the 'freedom to think' a situation which can only occur if one is in a position to independently stand back from direct control and allow others to exercise their ability to manage their own outputs. Thus, individual needs are exposed through values. What the individual values is expressed verbally through language depending on the meaning attributed to the value and its level of importance in the value-set hierarchy.

An individual's needs are also objective; they exist regardless of whether the individual carries any knowledge of them whereas values are subjective, conscious and sub-conscious interpretations of events and situations outside the individual. At their most basic level, needs demand almost immediate attention from the individual. Values are less immediate and act as filters that influence both decision making and behaviour. Values ultimately enable the individual to determine the degree of expendable energy to invest in choice and emotional response.

5.4 Values as extrinsic and intrinsic motivation

Although motivation is often treated as a singular construct, even superficial reflection reveals that people are moved to act for very different reasons, with highly varied

experiences and results. Individuals can be motivated because they value an activity or because there is strong external coercion. They can be urged into action by intense personal interest or by a bribe. They can behave from a sense of personal commitment to a belief or from fear of being punished. The contrasts between being intrinsically versus extrinsically motivated, are well entrenched in the literature (Deci & Ryan, 1985). The issue of whether individuals engage in a particular behaviour out of self-interest and their personal values, or because of reasons external to the self, is a matter of consequence for entrepreneurship and represents a basic dimension by which individuals make sense of their own and others' behaviour (deCharms, 1968; Ryan & Connell, 1989).

Comparisons between individuals whose motivation is authentically self-generated and those who are externally motivated typically reveal that the former, relative to the latter, have more interest, excitement, and confidence. One example of this from the sample was the difficulty I had in trying to pin down and confirm an appointment for the interview with Participant 3. He was quite literally in several places at once, speaking to architects in Holland, dealing with emails from his businesses and telling me in between about several new initiatives he was working on while trying to set an appointment. I observed this manic form of behaviour in a small number of the sample (those I designated 'serial entrepreneurs) who typically displayed high levels of excitement and energy. These participants had little patience waiting for external events to evolve to the point where they could intervene. I perceived these individuals to be the cause of events occurring around them through their energy, interest in what they were doing and a high level of confidence in their ability to make things happen. Interest, excitement and confidence manifest themselves in enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity (Deci & Ryan, 1995) and as heightened energy, a higher degree of self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 1995), and general welfare (Ryan, Deci, & Grolnick, 1995). This is so even when individuals have the same level of perceived competence or self-efficacy for the activity.

Since functional and experiential differences exist between self-motivation and external regulation, a major focus of Self-determination Theory (SDT) has been to provide a more differentiated approach to motivation, by asking what kind of motivation is being exhibited at any given time (Ryan & Deci, 2000). By considering the perceived forces that move an individual to act, SDT identifies several distinct types of motivation, which have specifiable

consequences for the individual's identity, performance, and personal efficacy. The significance of discovering these underlying principles in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour enables a better understanding of the internal drivers that motivate the individual.

Perhaps no single phenomenon reflects the positive potential of human nature as much as intrinsic motivation, the inherent tendency to seek out novelty and challenges, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn. The construct of intrinsic motivation describes this natural inclination toward assimilation, mastery, spontaneous interest, and exploration that is essential to cognitive and social development (Ryan, 1995). The description furthermore serves to support the physical observations I made earlier regarding the small number of individuals designated as 'serial entrepreneurs'.

Yet, despite the fact that individuals have strong tendencies toward intrinsic motivation there is clear evidence that it can easily be disrupted under conditions which are not conducive or supportive of the individual's efforts. Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) was developed by Deci and Ryan (1985) as a sub-theory within SDT with the aim of specifying factors that explain variability in intrinsic motivation. CET is framed in terms of social and environmental factors that either facilitate or undermine intrinsic motivation. The present study focused on the internalised set of meanings and beliefs individuals attribute to a particular behaviour and not the extrinsic social and environmental factors that impact on that motivation.

Intrinsic motivation will be activated when individuals experience conditions that conduce toward its expression. In other words, intrinsic motivation flourishes when circumstances permit. Thus, an individual who identifies an entrepreneurial opportunity will act on it when they perceive conditions are favourable to its exploitation. CET, which focuses on the fundamental needs for competence and autonomy, was based on the results of experiments aimed at determining the effects of rewards, feedback, and other external events on intrinsic motivation. The theory argues, first, that social-contextual events (for example, feedback, communications, rewards) that conduce toward feelings of competence during action can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action. Accordingly, optimal challenges,

positive feedback, and freedom from demeaning evaluations were all found to facilitate intrinsic motivation.

A small percentage of the sample were energised and motivated to start out on their own as a consequence of a 'deep interest' they had in their projects. Without exception all of the sample were positively influenced by the feedback they received from those immediately around them such as co-workers, family and friends as well as some at a distance such as material suppliers and agents interested in what they had to offer. None of the sample suggested that they had been negatively influenced by anyone or challenged in such a way that they had to 'prove' themselves by responding to a challenge.

CET further suggests, and studies have shown (Ryan, 1982), that feelings of competence will not enhance intrinsic motivation unless accompanied by a sense of autonomy or, in more characteristic terms, by an internal perceived locus of causality (deCharms, 1968). The unanimous selection of independence as a primary value for entrepreneurial behaviour reflects the importance that the sample place on autonomy of thinking and action. According to CET, individuals must not only experience competence or efficacy, they must also experience their behaviour as self-determined for intrinsic motivation to be evident. This can only be exercised where individuals feel they are in control and have the actual freedom to make decisions and guide their action of their own accord. It also requires either immediate contextual supports for autonomy and competence through guidance or mentoring; or enduring inner resources, such as a fundamental belief structure or value-set that will underpin an internal perceived locus of causality. A fundamental belief in independence for example therefore enables the individual to behave independently and provides the individual with the essential confidence in their ability (self-efficacy) to achieve the desired outcome.

Values then, are the precursors to intrinsic motivation and provide the individual with a sense of control over how they think and act. Field studies have shown for example, that teachers who personally value independence (in contrast to controlling) trigger greater intrinsic motivation in their students through curiosity, and desire for challenge (Deci, Nezlek, & Sheinman, 1981; Ryan & Grolnick, 1986). Students taught with a more controlling approach not only lose initiative but learn less effectively, especially when learning requires

conceptual and creative processing capability (Amabile, 1996; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987). Thus, in considering entrepreneurship, the individual who values independence should display behaviour that is intrinsically motivated and actively seeks out opportunity.

There is recognition in SDT however that not all behaviour is intrinsically motivated. Individuals will ideally attempt to satisfy their inherent needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence and will feel intrinsically motivated to do so. However, it is frequently the case that the individual acts instead from feelings of external coercion, control and pressure. In such cases the individual is said to be extrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Extrinsic motivation involves the engagement in behaviours that will bring about rewards and praise from others or alternatively avoid criticism or punishment. Thus, under self-determination allowances need to be made to accommodate the view that some values (intrinsic values) are conducive to growth and therefore important to intrinsically motivated behaviour whilst other values (extrinsic values) are specifically targeted at behaviours that attract rewards and praise from others (Kasser & Ryan, 1993). This is entirely consistent with Schwartz's sub-dimensions where Self-direction and Stimulation are related to intrinsic motives while the sub-dimensions of Conformism and Traditionalism (Schwartz, 1992) are related to extrinsic motives.

Entrepreneurial behaviour is not, however, exclusively intrinsically driven. There will be occasions when entrepreneurial behaviour will be the result of a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. In other words an individual will engage in entrepreneurial behaviour because they are intrinsically motivated to do so as well as for the potential extrinsic rewards they stand to gain from doing so. The following excerpt illustrates this combination:

I sense something of a dilemma here. On the one hand you place a lot of emphasis being 'independent' in the way you operate, but on the other you appear to 'conform' to tradition for most of what you do. Help me out here, which do you value more – 'independence' or 'conformity'? (Note that being independent is an intrinsic motivation while conforming is extrinsic);

I suppose both; it's difficult to make a choice between the two. While I'm in my business I value independence more because I get to determine how and when things get done. I

make the decisions; I create the solutions and ensure everyone else is on task. But most of my clients are public institutions, like schools, the polytech, regional and district councils. If I don't follow their rules and regulations I won't do business with them. I can't impose my way of doing things on them, they won't tolerate it. So I grit my teeth and comply because the next time a contract comes around for negotiation I want them to come back to me. I have a good reputation with my clients so they're sure to come back. You see, it's a bit of a 'quid pro quo', I value the independence I have in being able to operate my own business but I also value the recognition I get from my clients by providing them with a great service. That builds the business' reputation and success, which helps me reach my goals (PTCP 21).

Encountering dilemmas such as the one above were infrequent during conversations with the majority of participants. However, clarity was provided when intrinsically motivated entrepreneurial behaviour was associated with the need for stimulation and 'daring' in particular. Participants who claimed independence and control over their business while expressing the need to conform to rules and regulations stated that the differentiating characteristic related to how far they were able to 'push' the rules. Conformism and tradition were perceived by most of the sample as constraints on their freedom to act and make decisions. Accordingly, individuals sometimes took 'risk's to bend the rules or push the boundaries as a way of circumventing what were perceived to be irrational or irrelevant bureaucratic measures preventing them from achieving their goals. For example:

'There is always something which gets in the way of the projects I try to deliver and it usually stems from some local government official following the rule book. When that happens, I usually go around the bureaucrat to the decision maker and try and make a deal. If that doesn't work I've found going to the press and making front page news works a treat because the last thing a local government official wants to be known for is standing in the way of progress – it's how you don't get re-elected. I tried the whole 'do it anyway and beg for forgiveness afterwards thing' but I got my fingers burnt a couple of times. Now I use public opinion and the media to get what I want – it spreads the risk away from me individually and across the community' (PTCP 1).

Schwartz (1994) states that values congregated under the headings of 'stimulation' (daring, a varied and exciting life) and 'self-direction' (curious, creative, freedom, independent, self-respect and choosing own goals) reflect the needs of the individual to seek out novelty and

to be in control of one's own life. Stimulated and self-directed behaviour can therefore be construed as self-determined behaviour. Stimulation and self-direction are also conceptually similar to the notion of autonomy expressed in SDT. Thus, some values reflected in Schwartz's inventory (1992) are represented as extrinsic values, such as, 'power' which bears a strong resemblance to the extrinsic aspirations of 'achievement' and 'conformity/tradition' values. The dilemma encountered in the interview above demonstrates that it is not always possible to discern how important one value is over another and therefore whether an individual is primarily intrinsically or extrinsically motivated. Furthermore, difficulty in identifying the dominant value has implications in trying to determine whether the individual is behaving entrepreneurially. Where similar confusion arose during the interviews, I erred on the conservative side and classified the person's behaviour as normal business activity rather than entrepreneurial.

The results of the value survey however provide only one part of the picture. Although participants rated 'independence' as 'supremely important', it was only through the interview that one gained a better view of the role that value played in entrepreneurial behaviour. Participants mainly reflected on their preference for intrinsic values by selecting concepts from Schwartz's (1990) self-direction typology thus confirming that being entrepreneurial was interpreted as being intrinsically motivated.

An evaluation of this study's findings reveals that of the top five values rated by participants, only one appears as an extrinsic value, namely 'ambition'. Ambition falls under Schwartz's 'Achievement' sub-dimension thus recognising that in order for the individual to feel a sense of achievement, there needs to be an external source willing to provide acknowledgement (praise or recognition) of the individual's accomplishment. However, it could be argued that 'being ambitious' by definition is also targeted at goal setting. In other words the individual is intrinsically motivated to set and achieve ambitious goals. The notion of 'ambition' or 'being ambitious' consequently becomes more of a self-directed value that assists in the choosing of ambitious personal goals and therefore an intrinsic motivation for their subsequent behaviour.

5.5 Assessing Values Content and Meaning

The following discussion examines the content of the top five results as indicated in the previous chapter, namely, independence; ambitious; choosing own goals; creativity; and daring. This section addresses the first and second ancillary research questions, namely, whether entrepreneurial behaviour is based on a common value-set and what meaning participants attribute to those values. The criteria used for this evaluation are those set out by Schwartz (1992) and have been explained at the beginning of this discussion.

Where necessary I have taken excerpts from interviews with the various participants to describe their understanding of the above value-set to the reader. I have followed a psychologist's convention of reporting sample data by providing summary information of the findings (Chase, 2003). This enables the inclusion of relevant data without incorporating vast tracts of discussion extracted from interview transcripts. Care has been taken to provide representative excerpts and quotes from the sample. Excerpts are followed up with my interpretation as a researcher of the key points made during the interview sessions which is consistent with a narrative analysis of the data (van Manen, 1990).

5.5.1 Personal Belief and Meaning

The first criterion for assessing values content refers to values as concepts or beliefs that individuals hold about themselves. From one perspective independence; ambitious; choosing own goals; creativity; and daring were descriptors used by the sample to describe the values that they believed underpin entrepreneurial behaviour through the Schwartz Values Inventory. I therefore considered it necessary to ask an additional question during the interviews to determine whether each individual believed the above values were accurate descriptions of their own behaviour within an entrepreneurial context. With some minor variation regarding the importance of 'daring', the sample clearly identified with the top four values as being typical of themselves in the context of their business.

5.5.1.1 Independence

The first value rated by the sample as 'supremely important' was independence. I have used the term 'autonomy' in previous discussion as a proxy for 'independence' and will continue to do so. Autonomy concerns acting from interest and integrated values (Deci & Ryan, 1985). When acting autonomously, individuals experience their behaviour as an expression of the self, such that, even when this behaviour is influenced by outside forces, the individual agrees with those influences, feeling both initiative and value in respect to them. The Schwartz's Values Inventory does not explicitly use autonomy as a value but Rokeach (1973) does, as a terminal value. A terminal value is one which Rokeach (1973) describes as an 'end state of existence', in other words an individual strives to achieve 'autonomy' but may not fully achieve total autonomy. These meanings are strongly associated with the description used in SDT to explain the role of autonomy in self-determined behaviour.

Concepts associated with autonomy included 'being independent, individualistic, non-conformist, 'not subservient to others'; and 'leadership'. Autonomy refers to the perceived origin or source of one's own behaviour (deCharms, 1968; Deci & Ryan; 1985; Ryan & Connell, 1989). Autonomy, as an intrinsic motivating factor, has appeared in a number of studies as a significant reason for starting a business (Gatewood, Shaver & Gartner, 1995; Kolvereid, 1996; Shane, Locke & Collins, 2003; Wilson, Marlino & Kickul, 2004; van Gelderen & Jansen, 2004).

All participants acknowledged in their value-set that independence was a primary feature of entrepreneurial behaviour. Nearly all of the participants scored independence as 'supremely important' to entrepreneurial behaviour.

... I don't think I could conceive of myself as being anything other than independent. I am in control, I make all the decisions about the business, what projects to work on and who will do it, pricing and where supplies will come from. Others look to me for guidance and I show them the way forward by telling them what the job is, how it will be done and assign tasks and instructions to my employees. I believe it is extremely important to be independent if you're in your own business. You aren't going to get very far being subservient to everyone else in the market (PTCP 15).

Three key characteristics dropped out of the narrative analysis on independence. First is the overwhelming focus on the control individuals need to have over their business and potentially those who work in it. Second is their belief in the freedom to be able to make decisions without influence from others and third is a self-perception of leadership that develops from being sought out for advice or solutions. The first two key themes, control and freedom, refer to the distal and proximal qualities of independence that have both a direct and indirect impact on entrepreneurial behaviour (Kanfer, 1990; 1994; Jansen & van Gelderen, 2006). The distal qualities of independence influence the individual's cognitive choices between alternative behavioural responses and have an indirect impact on entrepreneurial behaviour. Proximal qualities are task oriented and relate to the decision making process within entrepreneurial behaviour which focuses on the 'decisional freedoms' of work related tasks (Breugh, 1999).

The third characteristic is however less apparent and was only uncovered through extensive interviewing. An individual with a strong sense of, and belief in, their independence develops a reputation as a natural leader, especially within the confines of their own organization. In other words, a strong sense of independence draws out the individual's unexplored natural leadership qualities which in turn influence the culture of that enterprise. The success the organization achieves through supporting its leader enhances the individual's self-identity, and projects an image to others outside the enterprise that confirms the individual's independence and leadership capability.

A firm belief in independence furthermore points to a high level of confidence in one's abilities to achieve desirable results. Someone who values their independence is therefore more likely to display high levels of self-efficacy and perseverance in the pursuit of their goals. High levels of self-efficacy and perseverance also support an independent self-identity thus attracting acknowledgement and recognition from others outside the enterprise. That identity is able to be maintained and sustained for as long as the individual is able to project the appropriate image.

The meaning participants attributed to independence focused primarily on the sense of freedom the individual felt. This sense of freedom was perceived to be the source of their confidence in being able to control (to a large extent) what went on in their business and

contributed significantly to their ability to make decisions on their own. This reinforces the findings of previous research regarding the proximal and distal qualities of autonomy (Kanfer, 1990, 1994; Jansen & van Gelderen, 2006). There was however a further emotive interpretation of independence as follows:

For the first time in my life I felt free. I could do what I liked, I was in the driver's seat and I could control my life. That control meant I could set my own goals, make decisions about the direction of the business and guide my employees through instruction and training (PTCP 8).

Being independent really stimulated me. I felt 'right here's my opportunity to take control and do something positive'. I felt refreshed – like this was a brand new start for me and what I saw on the horizon was all positive. I was free to develop my own strategy using what I saw were trends and opportunities in the market. I was able to establish new contacts that would help me fulfil the vision I had for myself and my business (PTCP 23).

When I first started on my own, I was scared, absolutely terrified! I thought I was going to crash and burn. I panicked about the next mortgage payment, how I was going to put food on the table, where the next order would come from and so on. With the encouragement of some close friends however I got over the initial jitters and discovered I really did have the skills and knowledge to accomplish what I set out to do. Small successes with orders and customer feedback that was positive helped me overcome a lot of my initial fears and after that it became lots of fun. As soon as I took my focus away from what I didn't have to what I could have, the whole business turned around (PTCP 10).

For most of the sample being independent was a positive experience and for many a relief or as one participant from above put it; 'being released from the shackles of slavery' (PTCP 23). The overwhelming need to be independent and have a strong focus on control and decision making freedom could well lead one to conclude that such individuals are eccentric nonconformists that stand apart from everyone else and can therefore be easily identified. However, a key feature of self-determined behaviour is the individual's need for 'relatedness' (Deci & Ryan, 1985). 'Relatedness' refers to the individual's psychological need to belong and develop a co-operative spirit. Thus, it is important even for strongly

independent individuals to develop a sense of community and be able to relate to others of a similar mind-set. This enables a positive sharing of experience and knowledge amongst like-minded colleagues. However, it also makes it difficult to pinpoint their individuality as entrepreneurial identities because most of the participants do not stand out in the crowd. Indeed, the sense of community brought about by these independent individuals identifies them more as business owners and operators rather than 'entrepreneurs'. This lack of conscious acknowledgment in the initial stages of the interviews is perhaps why individuals in the sample shied away from being labelled 'entrepreneurs'.

The physical projection of independence in most participant cases does not stand out as an identifying feature in their expressions of self-identity. Despite the bravado provided by participants which in all cases proclaimed the individual as strongly independent, that is, 'being in control' and 'calling the shots'; they also provided subtle verbal cues of a tacit need to 'fit in' and to 'belong' (fulfilling the need for 'relatedness' as expressed in SDT). Acknowledging, as participants did, the need to interact and belong to a group of other independent business owners goes some way toward explaining why an individual with a strong belief in being independence does not fully assimilate this value into their self-identity as an 'entrepreneur'. Others, notably the 'serial entrepreneurs' designated earlier, have no such reservations and are thus more comfortable expressing their independence as an 'entrepreneur' because they possess and express values in addition to independence. These are dealt with in more detail below.

Examples where the individual felt fear or apprehension embarking on their own venture were rare but were in all cases as a result of extenuating circumstances that caused the individual to be forced into independence. For example, one participant's husband had suddenly left her, in another case the participant's husband had died and in a third the participant had been made redundant. Thus, it appears from the data that where an individual addresses their need for independence of their own accord the resulting experience is a positive and self-determined one. However those who are forced into adopting independence through external circumstances the initial experience is somewhat daunting.

Furthermore, the prevailing business environment is a highly competitive one. I therefore expected to find amongst this sample that a strong belief in individual independence would lead to a more assertive behavioural approach to the conduct of business. Culturally however, this is not the New Zealand way. New Zealanders are not confrontational, nor are they aggressive in their approach to business activity. High levels of independence are behaviourally displayed through perseverance and persistent effort. Explicit assertiveness is replaced by resolute determination. This was more apparent from participants who had been forced to engage in entrepreneurship out of circumstantial necessity.

I discovered early on that trying to force my way into market through sheer strength of personality wasn't going to work. I had to back off in my approach because people just wouldn't listen to me. I did however become annoyingly persistent and I think that wins me more business than going in through the front door, guns blazing. I also make a lot of friends this way and it earns me respect for what I do (PTCP 30).

This participant is fiercely competitive and has a strong sense of independence. She exercises absolute control over her business activities and some would say (her employees in particular) that she rules with an 'iron fist'. She is one of the participants who was forced into business through circumstance and had to develop an independent mind set. Subtly though, I also uncovered her tacit need for 'relatedness'. She acknowledged that an aggressive approach was not going to get her very far so she backed off and became more persistent. By altering her approach and becoming less assertive, she was able to succeed and fulfil her need for relatedness as evidenced by making friends.

A downside effect of the individual's belief in independence is the dogmatic adherence to a set of circumstances, procedures or processes that ultimately lead to rigidity and an inflexible business model that does not adapt to changing circumstances. Several participants responded with their interpretations of independences as;

'I run things my way around here' (PTCP 13); 'nobody tells me what to do in my business'(PTCP 19); 'I make the call and final decisions around here'(PTCP 22); 'I call the shots'(PTCP 25); and 'my staff do what I tell them to do'(PTCP 28).

The above comments are indicative of an individual whose belief in independence may have overtaken all other values and where the dominant business theme is one of control and authoritarian decision making. The tone and manner in which these statements were made

during the interview left me with the impression that these individuals would not easily tolerate a challenge to their authority. It seemed, in my view, that acknowledgment of their independence was a prerequisite for interaction with them. The occurrence of this was sporadic through the sample, but it did occur frequently enough to suggest that approximately a third of the participants placed too much emphasis on their independence at the expense of other values. An over-emphasis on control runs counter to the underlying spirit of entrepreneurial behaviour which is based on great flexibility, transparency, inclusion, versatility and creativity both inside and outside the organization.

Thus, independence as a belief appears to be an enabling motivator in initial displays of entrepreneurial behaviour, particularly if accompanied by high levels of confidence (self-efficacy) in one's abilities to get things done. Participants suggested that it was the attraction of 'being independent'; 'being in control' and 'being free to make their own decisions' that motivated them to engage in entrepreneurship. Outright independence, whereby an individual perceives themselves as totally self-reliant, did not present itself. Indeed, there was subtle recognition in the data that participants needed a sense of community, which was given voice through networking with other like-minded individuals. Furthermore, over time, a shift can occur in the value-set that leads to a rigid and inflexible belief in independence at the expense of other values resulting in situations of excessive control and dominance over others. Overbearing control inhibits the free expression of creative behaviour, a characteristic of entrepreneurship and which runs contrary to an entrepreneurial spirit. The initial entrepreneurial behaviour expressed by the individual is thus subverted giving way to another form of self-determined behaviour that is more aptly described as managerial and authoritarian in nature.

The implications of an overly strong belief in independence at the expense of, for example creativity, to entrepreneurial behaviour is significant. New Zealanders are said to be highly entrepreneurial and well represented by comparison to other countries (GEM, 2004). However, New Zealanders are also perceived as 'one hit wonders' or 'lifestyle entrepreneurs' (Fredericks, Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2006), behaving entrepreneurially for just long enough to secure the appropriate long-term lifestyle goals before retiring or withdrawing from entrepreneurial activity. Entrepreneurial behaviour amongst the New Zealand population and in particular this sample of participants can therefore be described

as episodic compared to the sustained entrepreneurial behaviour of so called 'serial entrepreneurs'.

5.5.1.2 Ambition / Choosing own Goals

Ambition in entrepreneurial behaviour is characterised primarily by goal setting, high levels of energy, stamina to stay the course and persistence in the face of obstacles (Shane, Locke & Collins, 2003). Ambition was found amongst participants to influence the degree to which individuals seek to create something great, important, and significant when they pursue opportunities. The nature of entrepreneurial ambition may include curiosity in the course of discovery or the desire to create something new, from conception to reality. Ambition translated into setting high goals for the individual and others. It is well known that ambitious goals lead to better performance results than moderate or low goals (Locke & Latham, 1990). When goal-directed behaviour is sustained over a long period of time, participants called this 'perseverance' and 'courage'.

In the context of Schwartz's (1992) values typology being ambitious equates to 'hardworking/aspiring' (p. 60-62). The inclusion of being 'goal driven' in this discussion not only recognizes that entrepreneurship is a goal oriented process but also that an individual needs to aspire to something, usually a goal, while behaving entrepreneurially. I have therefore chosen to discuss Ambition and Choosing own Goals together because of their complementary nature. 'Ambition', or more appropriately, 'to be ambitious' means;

'To be eager or have an inordinate desire for some object that confers distinction by way of an honour, superiority, political power or a desire to distinguish one's self from other people. It is a personal quality similar to motivation, not necessarily tied to a single goal' (Oxford English Dictionary, 1992).

Choosing own goals is a conscious task, rather than a value, belief or concept, that supplements 'being ambitious'. Choosing own goals is also linked to independence by virtue of the individual freedom needed to be able to choose what goals to pursue. Thus, to 'be ambitious' and 'to have ambition' one needs to be in a position to be able to set one's own objectives and targets (goals) and have the determination to achieve them. Those objectives

and targets will be described as ambitious if they are at a high enough standard that the individual will need to expend more effort than normal to accomplish them.

Participant's rating of being 'ambitious' bordered on 'very important' to entrepreneurial behaviour suggesting that more was demanded from the individual in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour and in terms of cognitive and physical effort to achieve a superior result. Most participants acknowledged that being ambitious was an essential ingredient that distinguished entrepreneurial behaviour from other business behaviours. Ambition manifests itself in entrepreneurial behaviour primarily through the act of setting goals. Ambitious individuals could present and explain a comprehensive set of goals and targets they planned to achieve in their business over a defined period. Participants could also explain how these goals provided stretch and growth beyond normal business metrics. The act of setting these goals down in writing and communicating them throughout their business enabled others to orient themselves toward their achievement. The pursuit of ambitious goals is a necessary incentive for other employees to align their personal aspirations and energise the organization. Being ambitious is recognised for its motivational qualities, as the following excerpt demonstrates;

'There's no question that to be entrepreneurial you also have to be ambitious, the two are integrally tied to one another. Being entrepreneurial means challenging the status quo, coming up with new ideas and looking for new products, services or ways of doing business. Being ambitious means setting targets and goals that will bring those new products or services into reality. You can't be entrepreneurial without being ambitious, what would that achieve? Nothing! That's like coming up with a bunch of really good ideas but with no plans to accomplish them. Ambition is a driving force that gives me the energy to remain focused and on track to get the results I'm looking for (PTCP 4).

There was an inextricable belief shared by most participants throughout the interviews that entrepreneurial behaviour was motivated by ambition and a strong desire to achieve something that was out of the ordinary that would bring with it acknowledgement and recognition of their success. The view of most participants that entrepreneurial behaviour cannot occur without some form of ambition is important. Entrepreneurial behaviour by its very nature seeks to achieve something that is out of the ordinary, creative and innovative.

Without the ambition to set goals, generate targets and formulate plans entrepreneurial behaviour would not occur.

Being ambitious is, however, not the same as being entrepreneurial; the former is subordinate to the latter. Being entrepreneurial sets the context within which ambition functions as a motivating force, driving the individual toward the achievement of goals that are beyond the norms of ordinary business performance. To test this I asked participants whether one could behave entrepreneurially without being ambitious and vice versa;

No, I don't think you can. Being entrepreneurial, to my mind, means that you have to be ambitious enough to accomplish the impossible. If you aren't ambitious then you'll never achieve the entrepreneurial goals you have set yourself. I set goals for myself that, at first blush, look impossible to achieve, even for me! Then I sit back and reflect on what needs to happen in order to achieve them and a process begins to reveal itself, a rough pathway that I begin to follow toward. The way to assess whether someone is genuinely ambitious is to look at their goals (PTCP 18).

Yeah, you can be ambitious without being entrepreneurial. I can be ambitious in sport, or with a hobby or in a job looking for promotion. I don't think it works the other way though. Being entrepreneurial by definition means that you're ambitious, you can't be otherwise. Being ambitious means looking to the horizon and constantly working toward finding out what's on the other side while adjusting what you're doing as you go along. If you want to see ambition ask someone what they're aiming for and if you get an answer that you think sounds out of the ordinary, then it probably is (PTCP 27).

Thus, ambition as a construct can apply outside the bounds of entrepreneurial behaviour but is an essential ingredient to it. Ambition is critically linked to goal setting which is vital to entrepreneurial behaviour. Ambition also acts as a motivating force providing stimulation and the energy to pursue goals that are unique and which yield significant results.

Participants readily agreed however, that being ambitious was somewhat relative to the individual. In other words, some participants might look on others as ambitious based on the level of the goals they were trying to achieve. Others might look on those same goals as perceive them as unexceptional. Furthermore, participants *said* that entrepreneurial behaviour was based on the belief or need of the individual to be ambitious. For more than

two thirds of the participants however, I could find no evidence that they were being ambitious or proactive in their approach to achieve superior goals. Indeed, it was only a small number (7) who could testify to the fact that they regularly set goals beyond their capability and strove to achieve them. This disconnect appears right through the data, that is, there is a difference between what the participant says constitutes entrepreneurial behaviour and their evidence of it. This aspect of what emanates from the data is discussed in more detail in the following chapter.

The episodic nature of entrepreneurial behaviour in New Zealand (as outlined above) suggests that while being ambitious is critical to individual endeavour it is only sustainable if there is a constant striving to set goals that are stimulating and challenging. What is apparent in a New Zealand context is that the focus on unique, entrepreneurial type goals shifts over time to a focus on objectives more aligned with traditional business performance metrics and bottom line results. Ambition and ambitious goals therefore exist in the beginning of entrepreneurial behaviour because they are targeted at creative discovery in opportunity recognition. Once the opportunity is being exploited though, ambitious aims and goals shift to typical business performance metrics such as revenue generation and profitability. Sustained entrepreneurial behaviour points to a small number of participants who regularly discipline themselves to seek out opportunity and set goals to achieve them. Without this discipline many of this small number suggested they would probably succumb to the pressures of the business environment and forget about the future.

You might think this is crazy but every year I do a little exercise I like to call 'wandering around in the future'. I take a week off and go somewhere remote. All I do during that time is think about where I'm going, where the business is headed and what else is out there for me. It's a solitary exercise because there's no one else around but at the end of it I have a set of goals for the next year that I think will stretch me and everyone else around me (PTCP 8).

Like independence, there is a downside to ambition. Being ambitious also means operating within the bounds of reality and setting goals and targets that are practical. What is realistic though within the confines of a business venture is not only debateable but also relative to each individual. What one individual perceives as a realistic opportunity may be perceived by

someone else as trying to perform a miracle. Most participants recognized what was realistically possible as something that was of practical benefit. There is a danger however that by focusing on realism and practical benefit, as a form of measure for the presence or absence of ambition, that goals could become diluted and lose their challenging appeal. Participants explained they were able to ground themselves and set ambitious goals that would accomplish creative results that were feasible, realistic and practical.

There are occasions when I set targets that may be perceived as way too ambitious but when I reflect on them it forces me to think of ways to make the impossible, possible. I rarely re-write my goals even if they do seem to be over ambitious because if I did that I'd lose the opportunity to learn from mistakes and come up with a creative solution (PTCP 18).

I do guard against being over-ambitious but then who's to say that I'm being overly ambitious? If I listen to too many people telling me that what I want to do is impossible, I risk losing interest and don't accomplish anything. If I do get overly-ambitious and don't achieve the results I'm looking for I'm disappointed with myself. There's a balance, so I focus on ambitious goals that will give me a superior result but which can be achieved practically (PTCP 16).

In summary, being ambitious is a critical ingredient to entrepreneurial behaviour because it is vital to the task of setting realistic and practical goals. Moreover, being ambitious provides essential energy to the individual's efforts to accomplish goals and targets that are perceived by others as impossible. A positive outcome of being ambitious is the satisfaction and sense of personal achievement felt by the individual who accomplishes a challenging goal. A potential negative outcome is the sense of disappointment felt by the individual who has been over-ambitious and has set goals that are unrealistic and impractical. Furthermore, there is a subtle distinction from the data that supports a view that ambition is an intensely personal belief that defies a general standard or norm. There will thus be some entrepreneurial individuals who will view others as being less, or more, ambitious than themselves.

5.5.1.3 Creativity

Participants were particularly vocal about creativity and innovation being a defining feature of entrepreneurial behaviour. Common statements under this notion included 'coming up with new ideas (PTCP 9), new ways of doing things (PTCP 29), applied creativity (PTCP 1), identifying new opportunities (PTCP 26), unique problem-solving (PTCP 11), challenging the status quo (PTCP 27), looking at the world differently (PTCP 8), new thinking (PTCP 22), being creative (PTCP 17) and introducing commercial creativity to the market (PTCP 13).' Individuals need to formulate new means-ends relationships in response to information about a particular change or other's prior decision-making errors to be able to identify entrepreneurial opportunities (Shane & Venkataramen, 2000; Shane, 2003). Doing so engages the individual's imagination and creativity because it involves defining and structuring novel solutions to open-ended problems (Sarasvathy, 2001). Research by Utsch & Rauch (2000) confirms that higher scores on an innovation inventory by business owners leads to higher levels of organizational growth and profitability.

The overall result of the rating on creativity was marginally distorted by a third of the sample during the survey stage. The reason for this surfaced during interviews and specifically when participants were asked to describe the role of creativity in entrepreneurial behaviour. Participants who had not rated creativity replied that they believed entrepreneurial behaviour was synonymous with creative behaviour and that consequently there was no need to highlight this separately. Definitional confusion was evident amongst this portion of the sample who construed creative activity, understood to mean generating new ideas about products and services, as identical to entrepreneurial behaviour. I pointed out during the interviews that entrepreneurial behaviour encompassed much more than just creativity and asked those who did not rate creativity as a value to re-evaluate their response. The resulting reassessment of this value would have placed it second to 'independence' in terms of its importance to entrepreneurial behaviour ahead of 'ambitious'.

The above conceptual confusion also points to an interesting finding and one which in large measure supports the assertions made previously. Namely, that values function at a sub-conscious level and are only brought into conscious awareness in the presence of a situation or series of circumstances that are perceived as problematic (Schwartz, 2004b). One

response in particular stood out as representative of not only this point but the role of creativity in entrepreneurial behaviour;

‘... oh, I assumed entrepreneurial behaviour was creative behaviour! Everyone tells me I’m creative and entrepreneurial so I just naturally put the two together.

So, how would you rate creativity now according to the scale and in relation to entrepreneurial behaviour?

Creativity is absolutely critical. I’d rate it right up there behind ‘independence’ in terms of importance. In my view it’s more important than being ambitious. You can’t even begin to be entrepreneurial unless you have an idea; the idea sets everything else off.

And how does creativity manifest itself in entrepreneurial behaviour?

I believe creativity can be portrayed behaviourally in a number of ways; from thinking aloud about a solution to complex problem to making prototypes and testing out whether they’ll work or not. I think at a fundamental level though you need to have a process that allows creativity to flow through the business and a culture that allows that to happen. When things get a bit routine or ‘crusty’ around here we have ‘ideathalons’ where we get into teams and compete to come up with a unique solution for some problem we face. The rule for running this is simple; we can’t rely on any existing process, regulation, method or technique that we have currently to solve the problem – it has to be all new. It’s a sophisticated brain storming session that gets everybody excited – this place turns into mayhem! The winning team, as chosen by all of us, gets a week away at an upmarket lodge anywhere in New Zealand, all expenses paid. If you want to see creativity being played out behaviourally you should sit in on one of these sessions and just see what happens (PTCP 7).

Having witnessed one of these sessions in a follow-up interview several aspects of the relationship between creativity and entrepreneurial behaviour revealed themselves. First, was the business owner’s emphatic belief that creativity drove his business. That individual belief translates itself into an infectious behaviour that ensnares all of his employees into behaving similarly. Second, this shared belief creates an internal culture that demonstrates not only what the business stands for and its purpose for being, but becomes a recognizable identity that encourages and satisfies the individual’s need to belong. Third, it creates an environment free from the pressures of constraint and allows the free-flow of ideas

throughout the business. There is a tacit acceptance that they may not necessarily succeed in the initial stages of opportunity development and may even fail, but this is an environment where mistakes perceived as further learning opportunities. Finally, recognition of the internal environment and the identity it represents, coupled with a number of innovative results, convey an image to the public that this is a progressive, creative and fun operation which attracts business. An individual who is therefore intrinsically motivated by creativity has the capacity to affect the behaviour of others and create an environment that makes it easier for others to adopt similar behaviour.

All of the participants agreed that creativity was a critical component of entrepreneurial behaviour. To test the objectivist/creationist perspectives argued in chapter two I questioned participants regarding opportunity identification as a distinct entrepreneurial behaviour and specifically whether entrepreneurial opportunities were discovered or whether they were created. Responses from the sample were mixed with no clear preference between the two schools of thought. There was however overwhelming support for the adoption of both, that is, entrepreneurial opportunities could be discovered, created or be a mixture of the two. As one participant aptly responded;

It doesn't really matter whether the opportunity was there all the time or someone came up with a good idea. The focus is always on the opportunity itself. If I recall the opportunity I ran with, which ultimately became my business, it was a blend of both. I 'discovered' there was no one in the market providing a particular service and so went about 'creating' new ways of dealing with the problem. The discovery was a sort of 'eureka!' moment for me but everything that came after that had to be creative because there was no recipe or formula to follow. No one had ever done what I was attempting to do (PTCP 12).

Given my perception of the episodic nature of entrepreneurial behaviour amongst New Zealanders, I was keen to find out more about the ongoing significance of this value to sustained entrepreneurial behaviour. The underlying assumption of this probe was that if creativity was so critical, as a differentiating feature between entrepreneurial behaviour and normal business activity, then participants would be able to demonstrate, as part of their

behaviour, an ongoing focus on creativity that culminated in commercially viable and marketable innovations.

Only a small number (seven out of thirty) of the sample were able to demonstrate a belief in, and active commitment to, sustained creativity within their businesses. As demonstrated by the above excerpt from participant 7, only a few others (earlier designated serial entrepreneurs) could demonstrate ongoing creative activity in their business by product development and service innovation.

... yes, we have a long-term commitment to continuous improvement and innovative product development. But it's hard! We have product in the pipeline at the moment that has taken years to develop. My view is that if you don't believe in the importance of creativity you deserve to be put out of business by a competitor who does believe it (PTCP 5).

Eighty percent of the sample substantiates a finding, particularly in a New Zealand context, that entrepreneurial behaviour is sporadic and often limited to a singular event which culminates in the establishment of a business. All participants acknowledged the importance of a belief in creativity for entrepreneurial behaviour. Unfortunately only a few understood the long term import of that acknowledgement for themselves. My view of this reinforces an assertion that most individuals lack a routine or discipline that regularly separates them from their business and gives them an opportunity to be creative. I refer to the excerpt above from PTCP 8 for example who takes off annually to engage creatively with his future and further to PTCP 7 with his 'ideathalons'. Creativity, and by extension entrepreneurial behaviour needs regular work. The small number of so called 'serial entrepreneurs' in the sample know this and therefore engage in activities that demonstrate their belief in creativity as a defining feature of entrepreneurial behaviour. The balance of the sample provide justification in this study for a claim that 'creativity' as a value, diminishes in importance in the value-set hierarchy as the individual begins to focus on traditional business performance metrics and maximising returns.

The above excerpt and feedback suggests that creativity has an initial motivational quality and provides the individual with the enthusiasm to pursue opportunity. However, once that creative initiative is exploited, the individual's focus becomes more operational and

entrepreneurial behaviour changes to management behaviour. The value placed on creativity therefore changes to a focus on typical business results and the bottom line. Goals shift to focus on operational efficiency and the effective distribution of product or services. Creativity is either lost or at least relegated to a much lower position in the values hierarchy. The acknowledgement by participants that creativity remains an important part of entrepreneurial behaviour means that it is not entirely lost from the individual's value set. It is possible therefore that shifts in emphasis and importance between values can take place in the values hierarchy depending on where the individual is positioned in the entrepreneurship process as well as the circumstances they are confronted with during that process. This was particularly evident in instances where participants reported that 'they were in control'; 'they called the shots' or 'staff do as they are told' (see above). A heightened sense of independence which supersedes other values in the entrepreneur's value-set is likely to be detrimental to the expression entrepreneurial behaviour in the long-term.

5.5.1.4 Daring

To be daring means to be adventurous and willing to take on or look for risk (Oxford English Dictionary, 1995). A small number of the participants (8) in the sample chose daring as an important value to entrepreneurial behaviour and those who did select daring rated it quite highly as 'very important'. Daring is classified under Schwartz's values inventory as part of the 'Stimulation' sub-dimension as an intrinsic value source. Daring is synonymous with risk and has long been identified as one of the first characteristics used to define the entrepreneur.

Despite theoretical claims, previous research suggests that firm owners do not differ significantly from managers or even the general population in risk taking (Low & Macmillan, 1988) For example, Litzinger (1961) failed to find any difference between motel owners and motel managers on risk preference. Kogan & Wallach (1964) found that firm founders clustered around the mean risk-taking score of the general population. In comparisons of firm founders and managers, Palich & Bagby (1995) found no significant differences between the two groups in terms of risk-taking propensity. However, none of the above studies identified if new venture owners were low, moderate, or high risk-takers. Only

Brockhaus, (1980) tested for the actual level of risk taking, and he found that new venture founders did prefer moderate risk but that this did not differ significantly from managers in established firms.

A notable point in this study was the difference in perception regarding the self-described risk profile of participants and the perceptions of the risk profile of others who behave entrepreneurially. In this study participants suggested that entrepreneurial behaviour, as performed by others, carried significantly more risk than what they themselves had been exposed to in their own ventures. The perception of their own risk taking propensity at the time of starting their ventures was relatively low. Their perception was that the businesses they had started or the products and services they had produced were natural progressions of what already existed in the market. In other words, there was little risk in what they had done because if they had not launched when they had, someone else would have filled that space before long anyway. Yet, their perception of others' propensity toward risk in the launching of their ventures, products or services was significantly higher. The following excerpt illustrates:

I did think about that a little bit but didn't get too caught up in doing too much analysis. The market needed this and if I didn't do it, someone else was going to beat me to it. I couldn't let that happen so I went ahead and launched the company.

But you said earlier that being entrepreneurial meant taking on considerable risk, how do you reconcile that with what you're saying now?

Oh, well, this was a sure thing; I couldn't miss. I already knew from my market research that there was going to be a high degree of demand so any risk associated with the venture was going to be low. What I meant to say was that the risks taken by other people I know in their business must be significantly higher, but then I don't really know much about them personally or their ability to absorb that risk (PTCP 6).

The notion of 'daring' was an interesting one. Participant's suggested that this was a further defining feature between ordinary business owners, who were perceived as conservative and cautious, and those who behaved entrepreneurially. Among those participants who identified daring as an important value were the seven participants who also demonstrated ongoing creativity as being crucial to entrepreneurial behaviour.

To be daring is to break free from the norm, to do things differently. Some will suggest that it means to be radical but I don't see it this way. You don't have to do things wildly differently just for the sake of getting noticed. A moderate amount of daring is sufficient (PTCP 7).

I suppose being daring is like what we used to do as kids where we dared our friends to do something different. Daring to me means to go against convention. If the 'herd' is going off in one direction, the daring people are the ones going against the flow (PTCP 2)

When you go out of your way to be daring there's something of an adrenaline rush, like skydiving for the first time. There's this fear that runs through you and you ask yourself what the hell you're doing up there. I see risk as much the same – the more fearful you are the more potential risk there is. That can be a good thing because it gives you energy to pursue the challenge. As they say; no risk, no reward. The downside of that is that you should also be prepared for failure. Not all risks are good nor are they necessarily successful (PTCP 20).

Answering the question regarding how daring/risk motivated individuals in entrepreneurial behaviour is perhaps easier to address than how the value is acquired in the first place. From the above examples it is clear that daring /risk have their own level of energy that provide the motivation for individuals to achieve uncertain outcomes. Provided the rewards for successful performance are forthcoming and attractive enough, the individual may pursue the accomplishment of goals for purely extrinsic reasons. However, I was intrigued with the last excerpt (PTCP 20) above, which seemed to be a more deliberate quest for exposure to risk by virtue of the energy it provided. It also seemed to provide a more positive orientation toward risk propensity that has not been widely investigated.

The interviews around daring and risk pointed out several inherent qualities. First, and from an entrepreneurial behaviour perspective, there was a positive orientation toward being daring when it was used in the context of being adventurous. The overall meaning attributed to daring suggested once again that entrepreneurial behaviour was adventurous behaviour associated in particular with discovering or creating new opportunities. Being adventurous was interpreted by participants as an opportunity to go out and explore viable options and create useful networks. Most participants suggested that risk was primarily encountered during the second phase of entrepreneurship, namely, opportunity assessment. Some

obvious risks were identified immediately along with the opportunity but if these were not fatal to the original idea then the opportunity proceeded to the next phase of assessment where a more detailed risk analysis would reveal any potential problems. Participants further noted that to 'be daring' was synonymous with 'taking risks', to be prepared to deal with them as they were encountered and having an appreciation that not all risk could be eliminated.

A second quality relates to the degree of risk. As PTCP 20 pointed out the higher the estimated risk the higher the potential for failure, but equally, the higher the level of energy needed to overcome or take steps to mitigate the risk. If the individual perceives the risk as insurmountable, energy is conserved to seek out alternative ideas. However, some individuals have a higher tolerance for risk than others and that higher tolerance demands a higher level of creativity to mitigate the risk. Thus it follows that individuals with a propensity for high levels of risk would also have a relatively high creative ability as they seek out unique solutions to the problems they are confronted with. It also follows that a higher propensity for risk translates into a higher degree of self-efficacy where the individual possesses a better ability to deal with and mitigate risk.

The third quality related to daring/risk has a potentially negative effect on the individual and has to do with the individual's response to failure. Entrepreneurial behaviour cannot be sustained in the face of perpetual failure. How the individual responds to that failure is more a matter of whether they have developed sufficient skill to deal with rejection and therefore their level of self-efficacy. The more able the individual is to deal with failure the more able they will be to recover from setbacks and sustain their entrepreneurial behaviour. I believe this is a further support for the episodic nature of entrepreneurial behaviour amongst New Zealand entrepreneurs, that is, they have not acquired the skills to handle rejection or failure.

Acquiring the propensity to take or calculate risk is better addressed by the discussion on self-efficacy in the next chapter. The more skilled, knowledgeable and experienced the individual the more comfortable and confident they will feel about their exposure to risk. The corollary to this proposition is that while the individual may feel comfortable with taking risks or being daring, they should also be able to handle potential failure and significant loss.

An inability to cope with failure will have a negative effect on future entrepreneurial behaviour and may restrict or prevent future entrepreneurial performance.

5.5.2 Value-sets and perceptions of desirable behaviour

Assessing the content of the value-set as a whole with regard to desirable behaviour, that is, whether the value-set is appropriate and sought after in relation to the behaviour under scrutiny, is dependent not only on the individual's perspective but also the wider society's view of that behaviour. An individual who sees entrepreneurial behaviour as desirable would be attracted to a value-set that allows for independence, ambition, choosing own goals, creativity and daring. On the other hand an individual, organization or society that does not see entrepreneurial behaviour as desirable might choose a compliant value-set that leans more toward dependency, conformity, stability, tradition and equality.

All of the participants agreed however (again with minor variations around the value; 'daring') that the above value-set was typical of their perceptions of entrepreneurial behaviour and what they as individuals believed in themselves. Participants verified that the above value-set described an end state for which they were striving. None of the participants suggested that they had or could in fact fulfil the achievement of that end state. For example, participants appreciated they could never achieve total independence in the context of a wider society where there is pressure to conform to social norms. However, the values themselves were useful constructs through which they could energise themselves and focus their efforts. The value-set was also perceived as a valuable mechanism against which participants could evaluate their skills and abilities; and build their competence toward the achievement of their desired end state.

A key aspect of role identity in the literature discussed previously focuses specifically on the positive or negative perceptions held by others about a specific social role. Research has found that personal evaluative judgments can differ from what individuals believe are the broader society's view of role identity (Sellers, Smith, Shelton, Rowley & Chavous, 1998). A distinction therefore exists between the public's perception (public regard) of entrepreneurial behaviour and the individual's perception (private regard) of what constitutes entrepreneurial behaviour. Public regard refers to the evaluations the individual

believes the broader society holds with respect to the entrepreneurial role. Private regard refers to the positive or negative evaluations that the individual holds about entrepreneurs as a group (Dutton, Dukerich & Harquail, 1994). These opinions are likely to be informed by personal experience, social relationships, and awareness of broader political and economic discourses in which entrepreneurship is often an important theme.

Public regard for the entrepreneurial role, for example, may be overwhelmingly positive and supportive. Entrepreneurial behaviour is thus encouraged, publicly acknowledged and may even be politically applauded. This has the effect of raising awareness amongst those behaving entrepreneurially, positively reinforcing their identity (Sellers, et al, 1998). A negative Public regard will have the opposite effect and may even drive entrepreneurial behaviour underground. The 'tall poppy syndrome' prevalent in New Zealand culture is an example of Public regard which is somewhat negatively skewed against achievement and success in business (Mouly & Sankaran, 2002; Kirkwood, 2007). Research in this area suggests that public attitude in the context of the 'tall poppy syndrome' may discourage individuals from engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour, such as starting a business (Kirkwood, 2007). Individuals who have experienced a business failure may furthermore be reluctant to establish another business because of the stigma attached to their 'failure'. Moreover individuals will also intentionally limit their involvement in entrepreneurial behaviour because they do not want to attract attention.

New Zealand culture is only marginally individualistic in its outlook and therefore only slightly skewed toward behaviour which is perceived to be independent or entrepreneurial (Hofstede, 2001). The consequence is a minor positive private regard toward entrepreneurial behaviour which has little open public agency support. Yet, Individuals continue to regard entrepreneurial behaviour as not only essential to their economic wellbeing but also something to strive for. It is therefore positively perceived by individuals (Hetts, Sakuma & Pelham, 1999). Indeed it is with some pride that New Zealand is generally acknowledged and highly represented in annual international surveys of the prevalence of entrepreneurs (GEM, 2004). Public regard, like Private regard, can change over time and it may ultimately eventuate that the entrepreneurial role in New Zealand becomes more favourably perceived.

I have referred before to the perception that entrepreneurial behaviour in New Zealand is somewhat episodic and lacking in sustainability in most individuals. Public regard to the entrepreneurial role may also be a contributing factor to the sporadic displays of entrepreneurial behaviour encountered in New Zealand society. It may also be the reason why some individuals choose not to publicly identify with their entrepreneurial behaviour and why they have not fully assimilated these values into their self-identity.

5.5.3 Value-sets and transcending specific situations

Past research has suggested that values play a role in specific situations when they are activated by a set of altruistic concerns. Schwartz (1996) for example argued that altruistic behaviour would occur when individuals hold personal values with regard to a specific situation or event. He furthermore argued that these values were as a result of both awareness of the consequences of engaging or not engaging in the behaviour and the acceptance of personal responsibility for carrying out the altruistic behaviour. Thus values influence behaviour when they are activated by situational concerns. Stern, Dietz and Kalof (1993) for example found that use of Schwartz's Values model accurately predicted environmental behavioural intentions.

The Schwartz Values model is largely predictive because it is both situational specific and because it includes an additional concern beyond personal values. First, personal values are measured at the same level of analysis as the behaviour. For example, an individual who values their independence will in all likelihood disengage from situations requiring consensus decision making and collective effort. Second, the model addresses one rational calculation by the individual; that is, the realization of the costs and benefits of engaging in the behaviour and an awareness of the consequences. Thus, the individual who places significant value on creativity for example, consciously measures the costs and benefits of engaging in behaviour that supports that value well before their actual involvement. This is why in many cases there is a distorted image of the risk profile associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. What may be perceived as a risky venture has often been thoroughly analysed and measured to ensure risks are minimised, or are at the very least made manageable.

Personal values may also be influential when they are not specifically aligned with a particular situation or event. Rokeach (1973) argued that values were generalized internal standards that transcended situations. He argued that these internalized standards were relatively few in number and that they were generally stable over time. Most importantly however, he stated that they were guides for behaviour and that they should have a measureable influence on behavioural choice. Values could therefore also guide behaviour independently of any cost/benefit calculation.

What I wanted to know from participants was whether they had ever encountered situations outside the entrepreneurial domain where the same value-set they attributed to entrepreneurial behaviour, influenced their decision making and subsequent behaviour. Several examples were forthcoming but the best demonstration of the portability of a value-set came from the following participant;

The best situation I can think of where my entrepreneurial values come into play is when I participate in triathlons. I feel a strong sense of independence because I'm competing against myself and my previous performance. My goals are always to do better than the last time and to push myself harder. My goals are ambitious; I'm not interested in marginal improvement like shaving a couple of seconds off, I want whole minutes off. I need to be creative in training otherwise I'd get too bored with the routine and finally there's always the risk of injury, but it can be minimised or at least managed if you do your preparation properly (PTCP 24).

Values appear to function at a strategic level and across multiple situations where the individual is in a position to be able to confidently express them. For the above participant the principles that guide the way he behaves in business also guide his behaviour in a sporting context. Thus value-sets are not necessarily situation bound nor are they sacrificed for short-term gain. Remaining 'true to your values' is therefore in a sense remaining 'true to yourself' in whatever endeavour the individual engages.

5.5.4 Value-sets influence the selection of behaviour

It should be apparent from previous discussion that values play a significant role in the intrinsic motivation of the individual to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour. Once the

individual is convinced that an appropriate and inherently interesting idea could lead to a significant opportunity the process of entrepreneurship is underway with the individual assessing and planning the exploitation of the opportunity.

Participants reported that they were consistently driven by their needs for independence and creativity to pursue opportunities they considered attractive and personally rewarding. Values therefore act as a source of intrinsic motives that provide energy and passion to capitalise on attractive opportunities that are congruent with their beliefs and goals. Similarly, values provided an essential guideline against which situations could be evaluated and potentially avoided if they were not in accordance with those values. Values therefore influence perceptions, attitudes, decisions and behaviour such that meaningful gains can be made in activities that are aligned with personal values and situations are avoided where there was inconsistency or conflict with their value set.

I weigh up all of my alternatives and make all of my decisions against what I fundamentally believe in. If a situation arises that threatens or runs counter to my beliefs, and I can't think of a way around it, I'd rather walk away from it. I've sacrificed too many things before by following somebody else's beliefs and I've ended up losing out. Now I look after me, I find I'm much happier that way (PTCP 7).

The strength of belief in individual values-sets was a noteworthy aspect of all the conversations with participants thus underscoring the premise that entrepreneurial behaviour is fiercely autonomous and self-determined. Not only does the value-set typically underpin entrepreneurial behaviour, but it also extends into other behavioural domains and roles as well. Values are therefore brought into conscious awareness in situations where key decisions need to be made or where fundamental beliefs are brought into question.

5.5.5 Value-sets are ordered by relative importance

Entrepreneurial behaviour is perceived to be a form of Self-directed behaviour because of the majority of values falling within this sub-dimension (Schwartz, 1992). Self-directed behaviour is synonymous with Self-determined behaviour so entrepreneurial behaviour can be construed as the same.

Albeit with minor variations, the majority of the participants selected values that reflect a hierarchy of importance within a self-directed typology (Schwartz, 1990). Of utmost importance to entrepreneurial behaviour is the belief in independence. Entrepreneurial behaviour begins with the search for, or creation of, an opportunity which is primarily driven by the individual. The strong sense of independence is a consistent thread that runs throughout entrepreneurial and management behaviour.

Despite the initial definitional problems, creativity is the next most important value in the hierarchy in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour. Regardless of whether opportunities are discovered or created a large degree of creativity is necessary throughout the entrepreneurship process in order to bring an idea to commercial reality. Ambition and ambitious goals are the third most important value on the hierarchy which not only provide the targets for the individual to strive for but also supply the necessary encouragement to the individual to expend the effort required to reach a higher level of performance. Being adventurous or daring is the final value in this hierarchy and has more to do with the acceptance of risk and uncertainty, a characteristic closely associated with entrepreneurial behaviour. Being daring along with ambitious goals motivated the individual to stretch their abilities in an environment where the risk of failure is real and apparent.

Of note in this study was the vacillation between creativity, ambition and daring. Independence as a value remains consistently at the top of the hierarchy. Entrepreneurial behaviour in the initial phases places strong emphasis on creativity which is consistent with a high need for the individual to either recognise through discovery or create an entrepreneurial opportunity. However, once the idea is being assessed and exploited creativity becomes progressively displaced on the hierarchy and there are changes to ambition and goals. The latter shift to a focus on traditional business performance metrics such as revenue generation and profitability and risk management takes precedence over creativity. This shift in focus within the values hierarchy is significant and largely explains the sporadic and episodic nature of entrepreneurial behaviour within New Zealand. Only a very small number of participants are able to maintain and sustain a focus on creative activity.

5.6 Summary

If the basic need of individuals is toward growth and integration then one would expect an individual's value orientation to lean toward intrinsic motivation rather than extrinsic motivation. As was previously argued, growth and integration require behaviour that is intrinsically motivated and aimed at addressing the needs for autonomy, relatedness and competence. This was noted with participants when discussing their answers to the values inventory. Individuals expressed a marked orientation toward self-direction and to a lesser degree stimulation. Those who favoured stimulation through valuing daring however, were among those who also demonstrated consistent entrepreneurial behaviour. With relatively few exceptions participants responded that they were less concerned with extrinsic values and outside pressure to perform.

There is however a corollary to the above that was discovered amongst participants. While individuals will have a natural orientation toward intrinsic motivation in order to satisfy their needs, they do not operate in a vacuum. Environmental circumstances can and do conspire against the individual's efforts to achieve personal need satisfaction. In such cases controlling environmental conditions can undermine intrinsically motivated activity (see the above excerpt for an example of this). Deci (1972) for example, found that rewarding individuals for engaging in behaviour they originally had found inherently fun and pleasing decreased the likelihood of future engagement in that activity. So, while engagement in entrepreneurial behaviour may initially satisfy the individual's intrinsic needs for independence, creativity, ambition and daring, over time, external factors can begin to take over forcing the individual to seek satisfaction from extrinsic sources.

In the context of this study for example, rewarding (either monetarily or through public recognition) an individual to engage in entrepreneurship impedes the natural process of 'being entrepreneurial'. The individual, who may otherwise have identified their behaviour with a great deal of personal satisfaction suddenly becomes less than enthusiastic due to a perceived loss of control over the process. The introduction of an extrinsic reward can undermine the individual's feeling of independence. Research investigating families and socio-economic circumstances support the proposition that individuals are more likely to

orient toward extrinsic rewards when environmental conditions do not support their needs (Kasser, et al, 1995; Khanna & Kasser, 1999). When individuals perceive that their inherent needs for growth, expression, autonomy and relatedness are unlikely to be satisfied, they turn to extrinsic rewards as a compensatory strategy to achieve some satisfaction and gain some feeling of worth and security. The result of extenuating external circumstances therefore sees a fundamental shift in the individual's value-set hierarchy with an emphasis on protecting their ability to operate independently at the expense of other values such as creativity and ambition.

In summary, four primary values intrinsically motivate entrepreneurial behaviour, namely independence, creativity, ambition and daring. These four values are often expressed as personal needs that must be satisfied by the individual if they are to achieve their aspirations and lead meaningful lives. Each of the values has both positive and negative characteristics, which suggests that a balance must be sought if entrepreneurial behaviour is to be initiated and sustained. Independence for example, is characterised by a high degree of control that is, control over the self, the situation and others. Too much control however can be exercised resulting in valuable resources being lost through attrition. Too little control brings the individual's commitment and focus into question. Regardless of whether there is too much or too little control, there is always a measure of dependency present through situational factors over which the individual has no influence.

Shifts take place within the value-set hierarchy which reflect the influence external circumstances have on the relative importance of one value over another. This could lead to a shift in focus from intrinsic to extrinsic motivation depending on the impact external circumstances have on entrepreneurial behaviour. Entrepreneurial behaviour therefore becomes sporadic and episodic under conditions where the individual focuses on extrinsic rewards. The few participants who are able to maintain a commitment to, and belief in, creativity at a relatively high level in their value-set are also able to sustain entrepreneurial behaviour over a longer period of time. Those same individuals remain intrinsically motivated by their values because they have become ingrained at a sub-conscious level and are therefore second nature. The next chapter explores the role of values in each of the behavioural constructs that were discussed earlier, namely, self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy.

Chapter 6: Values and Entrepreneurial Behaviour

This chapter is aimed at expanding further on the findings of the study and developing the underlying premise of this thesis as it was presented in Chapter two, namely, that individuals are intrinsically motivated through personally held values to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour. Motivation concerns energy, direction, persistence and all aspects of activation and intention (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Perhaps more important, in the real world, motivation is highly valued because of its consequences; motivation produces results. Thus, an individual who not only believes in but is strongly influenced by their values will pursue activities that satisfy the individual's need express those values.

The following section (6.1) broadly discusses values in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour and identifies specific motivators. The next section (6.2) examines values as intrinsic motivators of entrepreneurial behaviour in greater depth. Sections 6.3; 6.4 and 6.5 discuss the relationship between values and the three 'self' constructs that comprise entrepreneurial behaviour, that is, self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy. The chapter is summarised in 6.6 and is followed by Chapter seven, which draws conclusions from the study and suggest further avenues for research.

6.1 The motivation to behave entrepreneurially

Personally held values are an internalised set of subjective interpretations of external events and situations in which the individual may engage (Rokeach, 1973). These values assist the individual in making decisions and selecting those behaviours that are appropriate in response to external events (Schwartz, 1992). Some individuals, for example, strive to operate independently of others, to determine their own path of development and growth without interference from others. In the context of business, individuals who choose to independently express themselves through their own enterprise are said to be 'entrepreneurial'. Being entrepreneurial means being motivated by personally held values to engage in entrepreneurship.

Values play a motivational role in entrepreneurial behaviour by providing the individual with the drive and willingness to expend effort during the enactment of those values. Values themselves come from the individual's social environment, through society's wider culture, interaction with social institutions and through relationships the individual develops with others (Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1998). Values are then integrated into the self as a set of internalised meanings that contribute to the formation of the individual's self-identity. The way the individual perceives themselves, generates the energy for them to pursue activities they are intrinsically interested in as well as to pursue the requisite knowledge and skills that enable entrepreneurial performance.

Although motivation is often treated as a singular construct, even superficial reflection reveals that people are moved to act for very different reasons, with highly varied experiences and results (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Individuals can be motivated because they value an activity or because there is strong external coercion. They can be urged into action by intense personal interest or by a bribe. They can behave from a sense of personal commitment to a belief or from fear of being punished (Ryan & Deci, 2000). The contrasts between being intrinsically versus extrinsically motivated, are well established in the literature. The issue of whether individuals engage in a particular behaviour out of self-interest and their personal values, or because of reasons external to the self, is a matter of consequence for entrepreneurship and represents a basic dimension by which individuals make sense of their own and others' behaviour (deCharms, 1968; Ryan & Connell, 1989).

Comparisons between individuals whose motivation is authentically self-generated and those who are externally motivated typically reveal that the former, relative to the latter, have more interest, excitement, and confidence. These factors in turn manifest themselves through enhanced performance, persistence, and creativity (Deci & Ryan, 1995) and as heightened energy, a higher degree of self-esteem (Deci & Ryan, 1985), and generally positive welfare (Ryan, Deci, & Grolnick, 1995). This is so even when individuals have the same level of perceived competence or self-efficacy for the activity.

Since functional and experiential differences exist between self-motivation and external regulation, a major focus of self-determination has been to provide a more differentiated approach to motivation, by asking what kind of motivation is being exhibited at any given

time (Ryan & Deci, 2000). By considering the perceived forces that move an individual to act, Self-determination Theory (SDT) identifies several distinct types of motivation, which have specifiable consequences for the individual's identity, performance, and personal efficacy. The significance of discovering these underlying principles in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour enables a better understanding of the internal drivers that need to be developed and assimilated by the individual.

6.2 Values and Intrinsic motivation

Perhaps no single phenomenon reflects the positive potential of human nature as much as intrinsic motivation, the inherent tendency to seek out novelty, challenge, to extend and exercise one's capacities, to explore, and to learn. The construct of intrinsic motivation describes this natural inclination toward assimilation, mastery, spontaneous interest, and exploration that is essential to cognitive and social development (Ryan, 1995).

Yet, despite the fact that individuals have strong tendencies toward intrinsic motivation there is clear evidence that it can easily be disrupted under conditions which are not conducive or supportive of the individual's efforts (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Cognitive evaluation theory (CET) was developed by Deci and Ryan (1985) as a sub-theory within SDT with the aim of specifying factors that explain variability in intrinsic motivation. CET is framed in terms of social and environmental factors that either facilitate or undermine intrinsic motivation. This current study however, focuses on the internalised set of meanings and beliefs individuals attribute to a particular behaviour and not the extrinsic social and environmental factors that impact on that motivation.

Intrinsic motivation will be activated when individuals experience conditions that conduce toward its expression (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In other words, intrinsic motivation flourishes when circumstances permit. Thus, an individual who identifies an entrepreneurial opportunity will act on it when they perceive conditions are favourable to its exploitation. The conditions under which intrinsic motivation appear to be stimulated toward entrepreneurial behaviour include a realization of the opportunity's potential; a sense of excitement at creating a viable solution; a feeling of confidence in their ability to create a solution; and a determination to follow through with actions that will produce the desired

result. Most participants related incidents where conditions were positive for the introduction of commercial innovations and how this affected them;

I saw a situation developing that would call for specialised services and discovered there was no one in the market that I was aware of prepared to deal to it. That got the creative juices flowing, but to make sure I wasn't getting excited for nothing , I went away for a week to Oz and checked out what was happening across the ditch; nothing was going on there either. So I sat down one weekend, worked out an operational strategy to deliver a unique package of services and when the circumstances played out, as I thought they would, I was ready to roll – I made an absolute killing because I tied into the banking sector in two countries instead of just one (PTCP 7).

Several features of intrinsic motivation can be extracted from the above excerpt. The first is the realization that an opportunity exists and has potential. The serial entrepreneurs in the sample in particular (PTCP's 1;3;7;11;15;23;27), related the need for, and importance of, continuous environmental scanning and thinking about future events.

I'm always on the lookout for new opportunities. Most are unworkable but a very small percentage has merit and could turn into something if conditions change. I make a note of these and come back to them when I have the time to think about them (PTCP 3).

Scanning for ideas is critical. You need to be in a position to do this if you're to make anything of it though. Being independent enables you to develop your own ideas without letting everyone else around you know what you're up to (PTCP 11).

You're not being very entrepreneurial if you aren't always looking for new ideas. You don't have to be the originator of them though. Sometimes someone will say something that goes over the head of most people but you get it and it leads you to someone who can develop a new solution. You don't have to sit there all day thinking up new ideas; you can leverage off someone else's ideas too and still be entrepreneurial (PTCP 7).

A second feature of conditions is the excitement it generates in the individual once a potential idea has been recognized. It is important to mention here that these feelings of excitement were consistently underpinned by stimulation, challenge and creativity and not by perceptions of potential reward following the successful exploitation of the opportunity. Participants were unanimous in their response that they were not motivated (extrinsically)

by the attraction to money or rewards. Tangible rewards such as money or status emanating from successful exploits were perceived to be peripheral benefits and measures of personal performance rather than targets to achieve.

For me the excitement comes from the challenge of processing another idea that no one else has come across. Whatever comes out of the back-end of that process is a bonus. In my case the profit that comes out of a successful implementation just funds my next venture. I get my kicks out of making things happen (PTCP 15)

Money?! No, no! I don't do this for money. I do this for the pleasure I get out of being creative. Like I said before, creativity is pure fun, and I like having fun. I know there are people out there who do this for the money. Most of them end up without it. I'm a firm believer in the old saying; 'if you make money your goal, you'll never have any!' (PTCP 23).

Yes, I suppose the rewards that come from implementing a new idea are a good incentive but they aren't what drive me to keep on doing what I'm doing. Going through the process of innovating is a frustrating experience and I can understand why a lot of people give up after the first go of it. But I get stimulated by complexity and difficult problems – I've developed a determination not to let a difficult situation be left unresolved. My wife tells me I'm like a dog with a bone; I just can't leave it alone! (PTCP 27).

The third feature of suitable conditions has to do with the individuals feeling of confidence in their ability to introduce a commercially viable innovation. The individual's feelings of confidence are created by perceptions of the individual's self-efficacy, that is, the degree of knowledge, skill and experience the individual brings to the opportunity. The relationship of confidence, intrinsic motivation, values and self-efficacy is expanded on further below, however, it bears mentioning here that most participants approached an opportunity confident that they would be able to follow through with the process of entrepreneurship to its introduction. The small minority of participants who were not initially confident they could follow through suggested that this was more as a consequence of the circumstances they found themselves in rather than a lack of skill, knowledge or experience. For example;

I think the situation I was in caused a lot of self-doubt. I know my stuff and I'm good at what I do. I also had years of experience so it's not like I lost all of that. It was probably

the shock and suddenness of the situation that left me overwhelmed and made me think that it was my fault. Once I got over that, with a lot of help from everyone else, I felt more myself and more confident that I could go out on my own (PTCP 10).

Finally, conditions need to be such that they allow the individual to express their determination to achieve a positive result. I believe this point relates more to the individual's perception of the opportunity and an intuitive ability to visualise an end result they are confident they can achieve. For example;

When I said conditions must be right to pursue an entrepreneurial opportunity, I meant that, taking all present factors into account, I need to be able to see light at the end of the tunnel. I need to be able to see in my mind's eye what the final result will look like and how it will be accepted by the market. Once I get started down this path I don't want to have to stop and I don't want to go backwards. It takes a lot of energy and effort to bring an idea into reality so I don't want to waste that if I can't see how the result is going to play out (PTCP 1).

However, there are situations where opportunities do reveal themselves but related circumstances and situational factors are not conducive for entrepreneurial behaviour to be stimulated. There appear to be two primary reasons for this. First, conditions are genuinely constrained; barriers to the exploitation of the opportunity are so high and so restrictive that, in the estimation of the individual, it makes no sense for them to pursue the opportunity at that time. These conditions do not however remove the possibility that the opportunity may become viable at some future time; it simply delays its exploitation to a point when conditions become more favourable. For example;

... oh yes, I have some ideas that are pretty radical which this country hasn't even heard of but I can't introduce them yet because we have local elections coming up this year. The powers that be are up for re-election and if they get in again I haven't got a snowball's chance in hell of getting support. But if there are some more progressive, less narrow-minded people that get in, then maybe we can have some fun. That's what I'm working on at the moment, trying to influence those that intend standing for local body elections to open up their minds and see the possibilities (PTCP 3).

Second, and this was the case for most participants, having expended vast quantities of personal effort and energy through exploiting an opportunity a first time, the motivation to

'do it all over again' seemed to require further huge effort that the individual was not prepared to sacrifice.

No, not again, no, I'm pretty certain I'll never do it again. My priorities have shifted. I destroyed one marriage through the first opportunity I took to market and I place too much value on my second to do it all over again. It consumes so much of you the first time that I simply don't have the energy to start from square one (PTCP 21).

Intrinsic motivation can therefore be lost, particularly if, in the mind of the individual, the cost of behaving entrepreneurially becomes too high. Furthermore, shifts in the value-set hierarchy do occur and this can also lead to diminished entrepreneurial performance. The above participant, and most of the rest of the sample, acknowledged that creativity and daring should feature highly on the entrepreneurial value-set but that as far as they were concerned they were content simply to be independent and ambitious within the confines of their own operation. Creativity and Daring as intrinsic motivators therefore appear to consume vast quantities of psychic energy and their impact diminishes as the individual's focus shifts to extrinsic motivating factors such as more tangible rewards and recognition from others. Entrepreneurial behaviour therefore becomes secondary to management behaviour, that is, behaviour focused on operating a successful business rather than seeking out further opportunities.

However, CET, which focuses on the fundamental needs for competence and autonomy, was also based on the results of experiments aimed at determining the effects of rewards, feedback, and other external events on intrinsic motivation. The theory argues, first, that social-contextual events (for example, feedback, communications, rewards) that conduce toward feelings of competence (self-efficacy) during action can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action. Accordingly, optimal challenges, feedback, and freedom from demeaning evaluations were all found to facilitate intrinsic motivation.

When my Ex left, I got really scared; I was constantly ill and worried about how I was going to live alone with my daughter. I was in this downward spiral and it got really bad, to the point that I would just wake up, feed my baby and go back to sleep. Then my dad came to visit and he tore into me like there was no tomorrow. He told me to get a grip, face up to what had happened and get myself sorted. I didn't think he could get angry at

me ever, but wow, he really let rip! If it wasn't for him I'd have probably died but he kept telling me how good I was and that if I didn't do something for myself I'd be throwing my talent away. He supported me for a long time by encouraging me and telling me how I was going to make it big. I had to keep going; I wasn't going to let him down (PTCP 10).

CET further suggests, and studies have shown (Ryan, 1982), that feelings of competence will not enhance intrinsic motivation unless accompanied by a sense of autonomy or, in more characteristic terms, by an internal perceived locus of causality (deCharms, 1968). Thus, according to CET, individuals must not only experience competence and the confidence that comes with it, they must also experience their behaviour as self-determined for intrinsic motivation to be evident. This requires either immediate contextual supports for autonomy and competence through guidance or mentoring; or enduring inner resources, such as a fundamental belief structure or value-set that will underpin an internal perceived locus of causality. A fundamental belief in independence enables the individual to behave autonomously and provides them with an essential confidence in their ability (self-efficacy) to achieve the desired outcome. For example;

Yep, I'm in charge, I'm in control and I get things done. Nobody tells me what to do or how to run my business. That doesn't mean I don't listen to advice though. If someone, one of my staff or my accountant, comes up with an idea, I do listen and see whether I can make it work. I don't control what others do or think, I know how to run a business, they know how to do a job, that's what I employed them for and they know it. Yeah, I suppose I am pretty independent (PTCP 13).

Values are consequently antecedent to intrinsic motivation and provide the individual with a sense of control over how they think and act. Field studies have shown for example, that individuals who personally value and encourage independent action from those around them (in contrast to controlling) trigger greater intrinsic motivation through curiosity, and desire for challenge (Deci, Nezlek, & Sheinman, 1981; Ryan & Grolnick, 1986). Individuals subjected to a more controlling approach not only lose initiative but operate less effectively, especially when the work they are doing requires conceptual and creative processing capability (Amabile, 1996; Grolnick & Ryan, 1987). Thus, the individual whose value-set includes independence, creativity, ambition and daring should display entrepreneurial

behaviour that is intrinsically motivated and demonstrates that value-set. Furthermore, the individual's focus on this particular value-set emphasises the self-determined nature of their behaviour.

6.3 Values and Self-determination

Self-determination theory (SDT) is based on a fundamental principle that all human nature is inherently oriented toward growth and development, that it demonstrates positive endeavour, activity and commitment in the lives of individuals. Furthermore, individuals possess innate psychological needs that are the basis for self-motivation and personality integration (Deci & Ryan, 1995). Much of the discussion in Chapter Five focused on values content and meaning and how this is embedded in behaviour that is construed as self-determination. The aim of this section is to explain the causal shifts that take place in self-determined behaviour and how this contributes to the sporadic / episodic nature of New Zealand entrepreneurship.

Deci & Vansteenkiste (2004), state that humans are inherently proactive and actively seek to control their inner drives and emotions. They also suggest that the positive orientation individuals have toward growth, development and integrated functioning is innate but subject to stimulation either by individual choice or by external circumstances. The three innate needs identified in SDT are a) Competence - which refers to being effective in dealing with the environment an individual finds themselves in (White, 1959) and can be construed as largely equivalent to the notion of self-efficacy; b) Relatedness – which is a universal need to interact, be connected to and experience caring for others (Baumeister & Leary, 1995) which is closely associated with the individual's psychological need for self-esteem (Maslow, 1959); and c) Autonomy - which is the individual's universal desire to be causal agents in their own life and to act in harmony with their integrated self (deCharms, 1968; Deci, 1975) which is also strongly associated with the individual's need for independence. These needs are seen as universal necessities that are inherent to human nature and can be observed in individuals across time regardless of gender and culture (Chirkov, Ryan, Kim and Kaplan, 2003).

Self-determination theory posits a different view of individual motivation, suggesting that a specific analysis of what motivates an individual at any given time provides a more satisfactory explanation of their behaviour than dealing with motivation as a unitary concept. Intrinsic motivation is the natural, inherent drive to seek out challenges and new possibilities that SDT associate with cognitive and social development.

It was pointed out in the previous chapter and above that Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) as a sub theory of SDT specified the factors that explain intrinsic motivation and variability within it. CET focuses on how social and environmental factors assist or impede intrinsic motivation and concentrate on the individual's need for competence (self-efficacy) and autonomy (independence). Autonomy is strongly associated with competence so that individuals can perceive their behaviour as authentic and self determined. Individuals perceive the authenticity of their actions when there is contextual support or inner resources based on prior development support for both needs (Reeve, Bolt & Cai, 1999). This was demonstrated throughout the sample as participants declared themselves independent business people, owning and operating on their businesses and using their autonomy to make decisions and exercise control over it. Intrinsic motivation is also linked to relatedness (self-esteem needs) through the assertion that it will grow if the individual associates it with a sense of security and cooperation in the context of belonging to an acknowledged group of peers. While control appeared to be expressed as absolute over the business there was tacit acceptance by participants that total independence is illusory and there is a need for them to commune with others. The sense of community among participants acknowledges a basic human need to associate and build their self-esteem with their peer group.

The defining goal of Self-direction as a subcategory of Schwartz's (1992) values inventory is independent thought and action, that is, choosing which opportunities to pursue, creating innovative ideas and exploring alternative solutions. The sub-category of self-direction was derived from the individual's need for control and mastery (White, 1959; Deci, 1975; Bandura 1977) both of which are significantly inherent to the construct of self-determination. Control and Mastery are also interactional requirements of autonomy and independence (Kluckhohn, 1951; Morris, 1956; Kohn & Schooler, 1983). Self-direction, as a

values sub-dimension in Schwartz's values profile, can therefore be equated with and compared to self-determination through values content and the overarching goal both constructs set out to achieve, namely individual growth and development. Four of the most important values to entrepreneurial behaviour selected by participants in the values survey (independence, ambition, choosing own goals and creativity), fall in the sub-category for self-direction. I made the assertion earlier in chapter two that entrepreneurial behaviour was self-determined behaviour. Self-determination, and by association, entrepreneurial behaviour, are therefore predicated on the same values.

My behaviour is definitely self-determined. I am the creator and master of my own destiny. I set my own goals for the future and I make my own decisions. I operate independently and I'm not influenced by what my competitors are doing because I know I lead the field when it comes to the services I deliver. My challenge is to stay ahead of the pack and I can only do that if I stay in control and keep doing what I'm doing (PTCP 27).

The last value, Daring, is classified under Schwartz's stimulation sub-dimension and is derived from the individual's need for variety and stimulation in order to maintain an optimal level of performance (Berlyne, 1960; Maddi, 1961; Houston & Mednick, 1963). The fact that only a small number of participants (notably the serial entrepreneurs) selected this as an important value associated with entrepreneurial behaviour; supports an assertion that entrepreneurial behaviour is episodic and sporadic in a New Zealand context. In other words, there are those who consistently seek out opportunities to be adventurous and daring and there are others who are more reserved or constrained in this respect. The target of entrepreneurial behaviour is therefore different for the two groups. One is focused on developing a successful business venture / product or service while the other group are focused on consistent entrepreneurial opportunity discovery or creation. Thus, an easier option to identifying entrepreneurial behaviour is to focus on individuals who consistently direct their energies toward opportunity identification rather than trying to do so on the basis of personality traits.

One conclusion that can be drawn from the above discussion is that entrepreneurial behaviour focused exclusively on identifying entrepreneurial opportunities places more

emphasis on creativity and daring in the value-set and is more consistently self-determined than entrepreneurial behaviour focused on the creation of one entity. There is a shift away from creativity and daring in the latter situation toward values more appropriately suited to a managerial role, that is with greater emphasis on values such as independence, ambition and risk.

The shift in emphasis from self-determined behaviour focused on creativity and daring to self-determined behaviour focused on independence, ambition and risk has implications for the individual's conception of their self-identity. While individuals may have been perceived by others to be solely and entirely entrepreneurial, a shift in value emphasis may cause a shift in other's perceptions of the individual's behaviour.

6.4 Values and Self-identity

The aim of this section is to further develop the premise that entrepreneurial behaviour is supplemented through the development of an entrepreneurial self-identity and further, that values play a role in the creation of that self-identity. Values not only have an intrinsic role to play in motivating the individual to make decisions and act but they are also necessary for the development of the individual's self-identity. If the individual does not develop an identity congruent with their entrepreneurial value-set then entrepreneurial behaviour cannot authentically occur. Thus, an individual who values creativity for example, but who has not subjectively internalised its meaning into their value-set will not be able to behave creatively.

I have mentioned previously in this study that personally held values are an internalised set of subjective interpretations of external events and situations in which the individual may engage. These subjective interpretations not only influence the individual's perception of external events and their behavioural response to them but also, through physical enactment, reinforce the individual's self-identity. Individuals feel pride and satisfaction when they live up to their values, guilt or shame when they do not, and anger or fear when their values are threatened. Values play an essential role in the formation of self-identity and can significantly impact the individual's emotional and behavioural response to external events.

Values underpin personality and character (Gecas, 2000). For those who behave entrepreneurially external reinforcement of their self-identity is important because it can often be useful in situations where resources are being negotiated or opportunities can be exploited. Values themselves come from the individual's social environment. Values are therefore observed, assessed and subsequently internalised if they lead to benefits for the individual. Once internalised into the self-identity the individual projects these values through their behaviour. Reinforcement of the value-set comes about through the acknowledgement from others that verify the individual's identity.

6.4.1 Self-identity

An individual's self-identity emerges out of a reflected self-appraisal process (Gecas & Burke, 1995). Through this self-appraisal the individual discovers multiple identities each of which relates to different roles in social structure (Stryker, 1980). A role refers to the behavioural expectations attached to certain social positions such as teacher, coach, mentor or entrepreneur. An identity is defined as a cognitive schema (Stryker & Burke, 2000) that results from the interpretive meaning attributed to a role and which an individual aspires to. Thus, an identity is a set of meanings an individual attributes to the self (Burke, 1980).

This set of meanings is a subjective interpretation of idealised behaviours and beliefs associated with that role. In the context of entrepreneurship the individual perceives and experiences independent, innovative, ambitious and stimulating behaviour as strongly associated with being entrepreneurial. The more an individual positively values these behaviours, the more likely it is to reinforce their self-identity as an individual who is entrepreneurial (Dukerich, Golden, & Shortell 2002). Individuals identifying with entrepreneurial behaviour have internalised a set of attributes congruent with independence, ambition, creativity, and daring. Furthermore, that self-identity is sustained through recognition and reinforcement, so, identifying, recognizing, and internalizing successive experiences of entrepreneurial behaviour is likely to reinforce the individual's self-identity. However, to reiterate from chapter two;

Self-identity is not a distinctive trait, or even a collection of traits, possessed by the individual. It is the self as reflexively understood by the person in terms of his or her

biography. A person's identity is not to be found in behaviour, nor – important though this is – in the reactions of others, but in their capacity to keep a particular narrative going (Giddens, 1991, p.53-54).

Self-identity therefore gains expression through the individual's ability to draw on various cognitive schemas and to articulate an accurate representation of their identity in such a way that it is consistent, believable and can be sustained over a period of time.

In articulating those cognitive schemas, and their self-identity, the individual needs to first establish a platform upon which that particular identity is based. This means that the individual needs to establish a belief structure and demonstrate 'what they stand for' or be able to articulate the principles upon which they base their behaviour. For example, PTCP 18 who claims to believe in 'independence', needs either to convey this belief (value) through his individual behaviour or articulate it in such a way as it becomes associated with his identity. PTCP 18 is 'entrepreneurial' when he conveys a message or behaves in a manner that suggests he is independent, ambitious, creative and daring. Furthermore, PTCP 18 is able to sustain this self image through his own narrative by articulating what is important to him and what he consistently believes in. Others come to know this about PTCP 18 because they see it in his behaviour and he reminds them of it through his narrative. For example;

Yes, I'm an entrepreneur and people know me to be an entrepreneur. They call me that because they see and hear of the things that I do. They know me to be an independent person because I operate several of my own businesses. They certainly know that I'm ambitious because I'm always on the prowl and connecting with my networks looking for opportunities. People call on me because I provide creative solutions and they all think I'm a bit mad because of the things I do but I take that to mean that I'm adventurous, I'm not scared to go into territory or businesses I know nothing about (PTCP 18).

The individual also needs to substantiate the role they play in a particular social structure through the demonstration of behaviours and the application of narratives that apply to that particular role. The individual can only do this if they have some conception of what the role entails as well as an understanding of the qualities that contribute to success in that role. This is so because tasks define the scope for individual action (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000), understanding the content of role identities can lead to more refined

predictions about the conditions under which one is likely to observe certain behaviours. The following excerpts illustrate the participant's understanding of the entrepreneurial role within a social structure;

Entrepreneurs are 'shakers and movers'. Their role is to introduce innovation to the market (PTCP 14).

An entrepreneur's job is to start and grow new business (PTCP 11).

We need entrepreneurs to develop new technology and make life easier for everyone else in this complex society (PTCP 19).

Their job is to challenge the status quo, think outside the box and give society products and services that are unique and innovative (PTCP 22).

Entrepreneurs are creative; their function is to turn that creativity into commercially viable innovation and share it with the rest of society (PTCP 27).

Without exception participants focused primarily on the constructs of creativity and innovation as part of the entrepreneurial role. However, while participants acknowledged the role of the entrepreneur was to perform the tasks set out above they had difficulty in aligning themselves to that role. For a few of the participants (notably the 'serial entrepreneurs identified earlier) there was a strong link between their individual values, an understanding of entrepreneurship, clarity regarding the entrepreneurial role and the part it plays in a social context and their assimilation of all this into their own self-identity. The similarity of belief, meaning, definition and self-identity amongst this small group was particularly noteworthy and strongly associated.

A curious disconnect occurred with other participants however. When asked whether they fulfilled the tasks they themselves had described, most of the participants claimed that they may have performed these tasks in the initial stages of setting up their businesses but that their performance had lapsed thereafter into more of a management role in subsequent years. Their self-identity had therefore evolved from 'being entrepreneurial' to 'being managerial', although most participants labelled themselves as a successful business person rather than an entrepreneur or manager.

Along with the shift in values and motivation toward extrinsic rather than intrinsic rewards, it appears the self-identity can therefore also shift away from 'being entrepreneurial' to 'being managerial'. When this happens the individual redefines their role and through that redefinition relinquishes the entrepreneurial identity in favour of the management identity. Furthermore, it also means that the values profile for each of the roles shifts from an entrepreneurial values set that places a premium on creativity and daring to one where values such as independence and ambition dominate. However, the same shift does not take place in the public's perception of the individual, who may continue to view them as 'being entrepreneurial' no matter what they do.

Role content also implies the presence of goals and strategies (Ashforth et al., 2000). Different role contents will consequently have different implications for behaviour. Naturally, PTCP 1 has a sense of purpose and motivation in adopting this role because he is guided not only by his strong sense of values but also by strategies and goals he has yet to achieve. So when one sees this individual being creative and daring with regard to the ideas and projects he is proposing, those around him accept that this is what PTCP 1 does. He is being his entrepreneurial self and is behaving in the context of the role he defined for himself.

Basing, as this study does, entrepreneurial behaviour, and by extension its association with identity, on its inherent value structure a number of definitional and qualitative problems are resolved. Identities based on values are more transcendent, in other words they are less situation-bound and may typically occur across a range of diverse situations and roles (Gecas, 2000). Thus, removing the focus from what constitutes an entrepreneur in terms of personality traits and qualities to one that focuses on the value base of entrepreneurial behaviour one is able to achieve a more consistent platform upon which to make comparisons. People's identities and roles within a social structure can therefore be discerned from the way they behave and further by analysing their underlying value-set.

One implication of such an assertion would be that an individual with an entrepreneurial self-identity is not confined to one specific situation or event but can demonstrate their entrepreneurial behaviour across many different domains and situations from business to sport to the arts, albeit examples of this seem to be quite rare. Entrepreneurial behaviour is

difficult to replicate across different industries and disciplines when the individual has no expertise or competence in areas outside those they are engaged with. This is potentially another reason for the episodic nature of New Zealand entrepreneurship and a further distinction between 'lifestyle' and 'serial' entrepreneurs. Instances of cross industry and cross disciplinary entrepreneurship do however occasionally arise particularly when the individual has fully assimilated an entrepreneurial value-set at a sub-conscious level into their self-identity;

I get bored quickly! No, I'm not kidding, I really do. I realised pretty early on in my career that I have this creative streak that I can't control. Once I set up the 'X' business I felt that there had to be more to it than this, so I took a back seat and started up something new in manufacturing. That turned out to be a raving success but it certainly wasn't revving my clock after a while so I went and started 'Y'. Don't get me wrong, I like all of my businesses and I'm happy to get involved if I need to but I've got good people who are better at the detail than I am. I believe that if you're going to be happy in business you need to do something you place a lot of personal value in. For me, that means being creative and innovative, I enjoy it, it's what I do and it makes me happy – why would I want to do anything else? (PTCP 15).

Engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour involves a degree of reflection and self-assessment. This results in feedback which prompts greater awareness and acceptance of the entrepreneurial 'self-identity', that is, 'the way I see myself in the context of my surroundings' (Louis, 1980, pg.8).

The subjective importance of a particular identity is evidenced by the greater likelihood that a specific identity will be used in a social setting. Thus, an individual who behaves entrepreneurially is more likely to identify with an entrepreneurial role particularly in social settings where there is positive reinforcement of that image.

...Right in the beginning when I was scrounging around for start up funding I went to one of these business networking things where a particular venture capitalist was doing a presentation. I'd been trying to track him down for weeks to see if I could get anything, even just some advice on my business concept. I had about 15 seconds worth of pitch prepared in case I met him and that's what happened. Long story short, I got my funding, he gave me the benefit of his advice and his personal network and I haven't

looked back. I still go to those networking things because you never know what ideas you might come across (PTCP 7).

A number of features about self-identity can be extracted from this encounter. First, there is the sub-conscious acceptance of an entrepreneurial value-set that is expressed through behaviour. For example, there is an authentic acceptance by the individual of their independence and need to source start-up funding. Equally, there is an understanding that there is a measure of dependence that cannot be avoided by seeking out someone who can assist with that funding. The strength of independence causes behaviour that is persistent and demonstrates perseverance. Knowledge and understanding of the entrepreneurship process forces the individual in this example to devise creative solutions that will result in a chance meeting that may convince a potential investor of the commercial viability of their idea. Learning has also taken place through a realisation that networking not only provides worthwhile advice but is also a potentially valuable source of ideas.

Assuming a new role requires that others react to the new role performance as if the person has the identity appropriate to that role (Goffman, 1959). As a result, the greater the number of valued social ties that would be lost from a particular role identity, the stronger the role identity will be maintained. This feature of self-identity refers to 'relatedness' (Deci & Ryan, 2000) in Self determination Theory. Relatedness, as mentioned previously occurs when the individual feels that they are surrounded by like-minded others, that is, others who identify with entrepreneurial behaviour. Self-identity is therefore integrally tied to self-determination through the construct of 'relatedness', which underpins the individual's need to have their status within their network recognised and acknowledged. In other words, that recognition and acknowledgement fulfils the individual's motivational need for 'self-esteem' (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Maslow, 1959).

Acceptance as someone who is entrepreneurial in the network is one aspect of self-esteem, ongoing acknowledgement of that status is another feature entirely. Most participants agreed that recognition and acceptance of an entrepreneurial standing were crucial in a networked environment. The 'feeling of belonging' was an important aspect of their interaction with others because it reinforced the individual's self-confidence that they were among peers. However, only a few, notably the small group of 'serial' entrepreneurs, were

able to sustain that position within the network. Once an individual had been accepted into the network and was perceived by others as entrepreneurial, it fell to the individual to sustain their identity through narrative interaction. In new and unfamiliar surroundings, other's perceptions of the individual would be based on that person's demonstrated behaviour to prove they were entrepreneurial. As one serial entrepreneur put it 'talk is cheap' (PTCP 23). An individual's entrepreneurial behaviour becomes important when they operate outside their networked environment because it substantiates their ability to sustain their status within a network.

It follows then, that in circumstances where the individual seeks to reinforce their entrepreneurial identity there will be more expressions of entrepreneurial behaviour from them. From an agency perspective individuals make or create a role through behavioural choices and decisions (Thoits, 2001). Thus, the individual who decides to be entrepreneurial will create their definition of that identity based on the behaviours they have observed from others and which they endorse. Furthermore, positive feedback from counter-identities (those who are not entrepreneurial) on the individual's performance in their self-defined role is more likely to reinforce this behaviour and support its adoption as characteristic of the individual.

6.4.2 Self-identity and Values

There is a marked similarity between the values ascribed to by individuals who perceive themselves as entrepreneurial and their explanation of the attributes used to describe others who behave entrepreneurially. This is so because the attributes described here are so much a part of the participants in this study that it has become integrated into their own identity. Furthermore, the need for 'relatedness' (self-esteem) drives these individuals to seek out others with the same attributes. The attributes discussed below are in order of importance for the participants. This discussion will once more be supplemented with excerpts from various conversations in support of each of the attributes.

6.4.2.1 Creative

Not surprisingly, the most important attribute participants used to identify entrepreneurial behaviour and themselves to others was the notion of creativity and innovation. This is not

to discount the importance placed on 'independence'. However, considering all of the participants are 'independent' already, the next prominent identifier and of almost equal value to entrepreneurial behaviour they rated was the notion of creativity. Coming up with new ideas or new ways of doing things was the single most important identifying feature of entrepreneurial behaviour. Creativity was said to yield significant benefits for the individual who persisted and followed through with an idea from conception to market. Participants furthermore reported that creativity on its own was insufficient to describe entrepreneurial behaviour. There was a further need to be bold and to persevere particularly when challenging the status quo and trying to build support for creative initiatives.

Being creative, however, is not always easy and more than a few of the participants reported that it could result in a frustrating, lengthy and potentially futile exercise.

I've started several businesses from scratch, but more importantly most of those have come about because I've been able to see opportunities in the market. I've had to think up some pretty creative ideas to cover the gaps and that has led to all of my business start ups.

I see from your survey that you place quite a bit of value on creativity, why?

You can't be an entrepreneur without creativity. That's what separates me from everybody else. It's a part of who I am. I'm always coming up with some kind of idea to do something better. My staff call me the 'ideas guy'.

Can you give me a current example of your creativity?

Right now I'm busy with a project that will have a significant economic impact on It involves a major road and waterfront re-development project that uses innovative engineering techniques that have never been used before and turns what is now an industrial disaster zone into a community and tourist friendly attraction. The money has been allocated for the project and the way I've costed it, I can deliver the project under that. The plans have been drawn up, I have several local business associations enthusiastic about the project and it meets all of the regional and local strategic growth directives.

But?

I'm dealing with the 'flat earth society'. It's a huge, frustrating problem when you have to deal with local bureaucrats who aren't known to have an ounce of creativity ...! Trying to convince local government that it's the right thing to do and that it will result

in huge benefit to the region is like trying to find a local politician with half a brain!! I've been in discussion with the local and regional council for almost a year now and they still don't get it. Never mind, elections are coming up and I'm busy lobbying new candidates – that also needs a creative approach. Creativity isn't restricted to just unique products and services, sometimes you have to use creative approaches to get things done (PTCP 1).

Creativity is something of a two-edged sword. From one perspective it is perceived to be exciting, unique, novel and full of potential. The positive energy emanating from a passion for creativity creates the intrinsic drive to push the individual toward the achievement of ambitious goals. However, the other side of creativity is that it is frustrating, demoralising and energy-sapping as the individual tries to gain the interest and commitment of others. Most participants explained how excited and energised they were in the beginning of their projects. Only a few, again notably the 'serial' entrepreneurs, were able to sustain this same level of energy over time. This was so because the 'serial entrepreneurs' had discovered a process of invoking creativity which allowed them to sustain this activity over longer periods.

This finding reinforces the impact a non-supportive and bureaucratic environment can have on entrepreneurial behaviour. It also explains the sporadic occurrence of entrepreneurial behaviour in a New Zealand's environment where strategic barriers to long term performance are often prevalent despite the relative ease with which individuals can start up businesses.

Sustainable creativity within the individual's value-set lies in the successful implementation of ideas. If the individual cannot see the potential payoff of their efforts or if barriers to implementation are too high, creativity is withheld and eventually diminishes in importance in the value-set. Integrating sustainable creativity into one's self-identity implies having the ability and skills to creatively address obstacles when they are encountered as well as having the persistence to follow through. Thus, creativity as a value is not as simple as generating ideas; it also means dealing creatively with obstacles and persevering in the face of high barriers or strong resistance.

6.4.2.2 Independence

Comments from participants rated independence second in importance when identifying others who behave entrepreneurially despite in the value survey their rating themselves higher on their own level of independence. In this context independence and creativity rate at the same level with one another when compared to entrepreneurial behaviour. When asked about normal business behaviour participants notably commented that a successful business person would be one who places high value on being independent. Given that independence is not an inherent need expressed by the individual (it is the interpretation of independence, that is, 'being in control' that is expressed as a need) but rather a learned value response to events and situations the individual is exposed to, I was interested in discovering the internal perceived locus of causality (deCharms, 1968) that stimulated the adoption of independence as part of the individual's identity.

My Dad encouraged me to think for myself, he never gave me the answers and he certainly didn't help me solve problems. I got used to sorting myself out, finding my own answers and solving my own problems at an early age. When I got older I found I was better than most at dealing with life's little problems. Having a strong sense of independence made me stand on my own two feet and make my own decisions (PTCP 13).

When I lost my husband I felt there was this void. I had always relied on him to make all the decisions; now I had to do that. Fortunately David was always organised and systematic, everything was set up in such a way that if I needed anything I could get an answer in seconds. Knowing I could get my hands on whatever I needed helped give me the confidence to make my own decisions and a sense of independence (PTCP 18).

The above excerpts illustrate the 'learned' nature of a sense of independence for participants and suggest there is some competence associated with being independent. Furthermore, one cannot simply declare oneself independent without taking cognizance of other external factors, such as context and the social structure. These arguments support a view that there is far more to valuing independence than just treating it as a learning experience. Not only must the individual have the knowledge and skills to be independent but they must also be in a position to be acknowledged as independent by others. Without external acknowledgement and recognition by others there is little chance for the

assimilation of independence into the self-identity or the expression of independent entrepreneurial behaviour.

Two qualities that have been discussed in the previous chapter related to independence are control and freedom. Being in control is the learned aspect of independence requiring competence in areas such as the context of the business the individual operates in and knowledge and skill in independent problem solving and decision making. An individual may therefore value their independence highly but this will be ineffective if the individual does not possess the skill and knowledge to be able to act independently. Freedom on the other hand is an enabling feature that allows the individual to exercise their independence through being solely accountable for the decisions made and the consequent actions taken. Unless these two qualities are acknowledged and recognized by others as being true descriptions for that individual, they will not be perceived as having assimilated independence into their identity.

Those that behave entrepreneurially were said to be independent and individualistic in much the same manner as participants perceived themselves. Moreover, there was an emphasis on non-conformism and not being subservient to others:

Non-conformism means not following the rules, not being influenced by someone else's way of doing things. If you have a better way of achieving the same result by not following standard practice then so be it provided of course that it is legal (PTCP 7).

In the manner that non-conformism has been addressed here participants agreed that sometimes major organizations and even industries required the occasional shake-up. As such, participants felt that it was entrepreneurial if one rocked the boat occasionally and implemented solutions in unconventional ways so as to spark debate or even to shock others into action.

Subservience means being in a position of secondary importance or being eager to follow the instructions of others. Being independent in an entrepreneurial context means the individual is in control, they make the decisions; they are of primary importance to their operation and are therefore in the position of handing out the instructions to others.

Conformism and subservience are values deemed to be the antithesis of the entrepreneurial identity.

6.4.2.3 Ambition

To the participants, ambition also meant 'goal directed' and 'goal driven'. Participants suggested that being ambitious and goal driven in entrepreneurial behaviour meant, 'being excited, putting in 110%, using their initiative' and 'being perceived by others as truly successful'.

It has been discussed that being 'ambitious' was to be extrinsically motivated to act and this is reflected in the comment above 'to be perceived by others as truly successful'. However in the context of being entrepreneurial most participants referred to being ambitious as the source of a sense of energy to perform, with a focus on 'ambitious goals'. So, while being considered ambitious by others is an extrinsic acknowledgement of the individual's self-identity, it reinforces the individual's intrinsic motivation to perform and behave in such a way as to live up to that expectation.

You need to be ambitious if you want to be entrepreneurial. You need to be able to set your own goals and have the energy to achieve them. It doesn't make sense to call someone ambitious if they're being given their goals by someone else (PTCP 16).

Using one's initiative was another indicator that ambition was an intrinsic quality essential for entrepreneurial behaviour. The individual is often called upon to be resourceful, inventive and enterprising; all of these process requiring substantial internal energy from the individual.

6.4.2.4 Daring

The small number of individuals, mostly the identified serial entrepreneurs, perceived daring as being adventurous. Being adventurous was a quality these individuals more closely associated with their self-identity. Along with being adventurous an association was made with the notion of risk. To these individuals, 'daring' was of prime importance to entrepreneurial behaviour because it gave them a sense of their ability to go beyond the

limitations of normal effort in order to succeed. In some cases, individuals expressed this as a strong need, like an 'adrenaline rush' to get started or to test some novel solution.

I'm a bit of an adrenaline junky and I need a fair amount of energy to follow through with whatever I'm doing. If I lose that energy then I lose interest and someone else has to pick up where I've left off. So, to keep myself stimulated I look for novel ways to keep myself interested in a project and to keep the energy levels up.

One particular project required buying and taking ownership of two thirds of the New Zealand navy and blowing them up. When I tell people that I always get a weird reaction – 'you did WHAT?! I know, a bit scary, but the project was to create an artificial reef off Poor Knights for divers. Besides the Navy was just going to cut them up so I offered to create a tourist attraction out of them. That's what I mean about being daring – nothing ventured, nothing gained. Sometimes you need to take radical action that can shock people. But when you believe 100% in what you do and you're determined to see it through, people get on board and give you their support (PTCP 1).

To have a daring self-identity implies more than being independent. To be daring or adventurous, as the serial entrepreneurs preferred to call it, means more to the individual's identity than just being independent. Independence is about being in control and being free to decide for oneself. Participants agreed this was a necessary condition for entrepreneurial behaviour. However to be adventurous on top of independence implies a greater level of tolerance for risk than that associated with other business people which enhances the individual's self-identity. To be acknowledged by others as daring or adventurous adds another distinguishing feature to entrepreneurial behaviour.

The radical nature of the event or opportunity is likely to draw the attention and interest of others due to its novelty or the perceived risk involved. The need to be 'daring' is based on the individual's need for stimulation. That stimulation and challenge inspires the individual toward their goal and provides much needed energy to achieve a superior result.

However, interpreting and incorporating the above values into the individual's self-identity is meaningless unless it can be substantiated by demonstrated competencies and personal confidence. Thus the discussion now turns to an examination of the role values play in self-efficacy.

6.5 Values and Self-efficacy

This section of the discussion is focused on the role and influence values have on self-efficacy, the third dimension of entrepreneurial behaviour. If values are so central to self-determination and provide the intrinsic motivation for the individual to be entrepreneurial, it follows logically that an individual will also actively pursue those activities associated with that behaviour confident in the knowledge that they can perform them. Kilby's (1971) popular and much quoted portrayal that entrepreneurs are like 'Winne the Pooh's Heffalump – you know one when you see one,' is not misplaced in this context. 'Entrepreneurs' can usually only be identified through behavioural expression. Application of the competencies associated with entrepreneurial behaviour brings with it a sense of confidence that not only reinforces the individual's values but also provide necessary corroboration to the individual's self-identity.

It was suggested in Chapter Two that self-determination and self-identity on their own are insufficient prerequisites to identify entrepreneurial behaviour. Entrepreneurial behaviour can only be physically identified and objectively assessed through demonstrations of self-efficacy. Thus, to use a consistent example from previous sections, an individual who values creativity and who is known to believe themselves to be creative as part of their identity can only be recognized as creative through behaviours which demonstrates their ability to introduce creative new ideas.

The importance of self-efficacy beliefs is furthermore critical to understanding the relationship between self-determination and self-identity. Self-efficacy beliefs stand at the core of social cognitive theory and affect all human functioning. Self-efficacy beliefs are 'people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances' (Bandura, 1997, p. 391). Furthermore, Self-efficacy beliefs provide the foundation for human motivation, that is, the channel through which values can be expressed at a behavioural level (Bandura, 1997). The notion of self-efficacy beliefs also refers to other concepts embedded in social cognitive theory such as competence, perception, intentions, expectations and control (Maddux & Gosselin, 2003).

Self-efficacy beliefs are beliefs about one's competencies and one's ability to enable those competencies within the context of specific situations or under certain conditions. They are in essence concerned with what individuals believe they can do with those skills and abilities in specific situations (Maddux & Gosselin, 2003). Self-efficacy is therefore a self-evaluation of how well the individual believes they can mobilise the resources needed to capitalise on an entrepreneurial opportunity.

6.5.1 Self-efficacy - behavioural factors

Participants in this study were asked whether they would be able to identify individuals with the capacity to behave entrepreneurially, and if so, what they would look for. If, as was stated earlier, entrepreneurial behaviour can only be physically identified through the displays of self-efficacy then one would expect evidence of the individual's self-determination and self-identity to be expressed as well. The findings from participants identified four factors that they believed set individuals who behaved entrepreneurially apart from others; work, values, behaviour and competence.

6.5.1.1 Work

Work refers primarily to observations of the individual's work ethic and an entrepreneurial individual's inherent inclination to be a workaholic. The observations that entrepreneurial individuals work hard; focus on the simple things and do them well; and live and breathe what they do; are all indicative of an individual who has the determination and capability to succeed in their endeavours. Self-efficacy is therefore demonstrated through their dedication to task, confidence in their ability to produce a superior result and a track record of previous successes. This is the first and strongest source of self-efficacy belief (Bandura, 1977; 1997). Successful performance is a powerful reinforcement of the individual's value-set that enables subsequent positive performance. Moreover, successful performance also reinforces the individual's self-identity as someone who is entrepreneurial and supports their determination to continue with more of the same behaviour.

I didn't realise at first how incredibly difficult it was going to be going out on my own. For the first couple of years all I seemed to do was work, work, work! I thought about packing it in and looking for a job but I just couldn't go back to working for someone

else. The thought of being told what to do and how to do it, just wasn't me anymore (PTCP 23).

Once an individual has built up a belief in their capability and has achieved a high level of competence in their work, they become self-efficacious and experience an elevated level of confidence in their ability to perform. Returning to a situation of paid employment, for example, has certain risks. First, a high level of self-efficacy could result in conflict as the individual's way of performing the work could be at odds with the expectations of the person in charge of that work. Second, the individual experiences frustration at having to perform in such a way that they believe is inherently at odds with their normal work performance. Highly competent and confident individuals also value their independence, particularly in situations where they believe their control over the situation or freedom to make decisions is being challenged. Either way, an individual whose value-set places significant importance on independence, will perceive returning to paid employment as regressive and one that ultimately robs them of what they value most, that is, their independence. For example;

I know I'm good at what I do, in fact, I know that I'm better than good and even better at what I do than anyone else I've come across. Knowing that gives me a lot of confidence in what I do and the advice I give to others. That knowledge and confidence have reinforced who I am – I suppose I am a bit of an expert in what I do. I'm a specialist, that's what I identify with. ... I couldn't work for someone else though, I'm not about to discount my expertise by reporting to a boss (PTCP 27).

With regard to work and self-efficacy there is an element of intuitive 'knowing'. It extends to not only intuitively knowing what work needs to be done and how to do it, but also on the skills associated with insight and forethought that help the individual perceive opportunities or potential obstacles that enhance or impede their ability to perform the work.

6.5.1.2 Beliefs

A distinguishing difference previously alluded to in this study between small business owners and those that behave entrepreneurially is not surprisingly found in the observed

behavioural expressions of an individual's values (self-efficacy beliefs). These behavioural expressions correspond in some cases to Rokeach's (1973) instrumental values. Values and descriptions such as Independent, determined, goal driven, autonomous, optimistic, positive, proactive, confident, persistent, non conformist and prepared to break the rules, emphasize the presence of a consistent entrepreneurial value-set. Of particular relevance to this part of the discussion is that the individual's behaviour is perceived to be 'confident', 'optimistic', 'positive' and 'proactive', in addition to being based on values such as independence, ambitious, creative and daring.

You can see it; it's in the way they act. They come across as confident; they don't hesitate or hold back when they communicate and the language they use is positive. You can see it in their eyes as well, the passion they have in what they do (PTCP 14).

Look at how they behave. You know how sometimes you can identify where someone works just by looking at how they dress and behave? People express what they believe in through their behaviour (PTCP 11).

Oh, that's easy; just watch how they act and how they communicate. You'll pretty soon find out what values they hold dear. Then watch who they surround themselves with. You are, by the way, who you associate with (PTCP 25).

Bandura (1997), states that a further source of self-efficacy beliefs is vicarious experience or observing the behaviour of others. By watching others or working together with someone who is entrepreneurial, individuals learn the antecedent beliefs that make individuals act in an entrepreneurial way. There is however a much stronger commitment needed from the observer and it is usually expressed as a specific long term goal. An experienced entrepreneur is unlikely to waste time teaching an individual who only has a passing interest in behaving entrepreneurially. The adoption of the relevant value-set for entrepreneurial behaviour takes time, effort and experience;

..., but I had a great teacher I could always go back to if things got out of hand. I learned most of what I had to do from my mother. She owns and operates several businesses herself and I helped out in most of them while growing up. When I went to uni I used to work in one of them during the holidays. She taught me what to do and how to deal with suppliers and customers. She also taught me why she dealt with them that way and in many ways that was more important to me than the 'what' and 'how'. Those few

key principles (beliefs, values) were her basic philosophy for going into business so when I hit a problem I just ask myself what my mother would do in those circumstances. I've accepted those principles myself and have eventually learned to trust in my own judgement (PTCP 10).

6.5.1.3 Behaviours

Participants in this study provided a number of observations that characterise entrepreneurial behaviour. These observations noted that entrepreneurial individuals were always on the go, energetic, enthusiastic, passionate, driven, excited, adaptable, inspirational, extroverted, and so on. Participants furthermore perceived themselves as acting in much the same manner, so their expressions were as much self-descriptions as well of the type of behaviour they would ascribe to someone acting entrepreneurially.

In all of the interviews participants were invited to explore their own behaviour and the causes for it. The intent with this line of questioning was to determine whether individuals could pinpoint their own internal locus of causality, that is, what motivating factor caused them to behave entrepreneurially. For most of the participants the key motivating factor was a deep seated interest in the area where they had established their business rather than some chance opportunity that had suddenly appeared in the market;

I have a passion for tourism and marine life, so much so that you'll hardly ever find me out of the water, certainly never far from it. That started me thinking about how I could combine the two and create an awareness amongst tourists that there was far more to see below the waterline than above it (PTCP 20).

For serial entrepreneurs, the internal locus of causality is much the same but it tends to evolve. What starts as a deep seated interest gives way to an excitement associated with creating something new, unique and innovative; over and over again. The serial entrepreneurs in the sample admitted to having started their genesis projects in areas where they had considerable expertise, knowledge and experience. However the attraction and challenge of creating something new in a related but different industry or discipline was perceived to be more rewarding than doing more of the same thing over in their field of expertise;

I could have stayed where I was and ended up like Stephen Tindall, creating more and more warehouses in different locations but I would have ended up bored to tears. I like a challenge and I really enjoy being creative so I started moving into areas where I'd never been before and started learning how they worked. Eventually, over time, it didn't matter what industry or discipline it was, as long as I understood the basics, I discovered I could be creative wherever I wanted to be (PTCP 1).

For the majority of the participants, their perceived internal locus of causality for behaving entrepreneurially emanated from deep seated interests in specific fields or disciplines or as a consequence of frustration experienced within their field of expertise. The belief within most individuals was that they could generate a more creative solution or better idea to solve a problem that would be sufficiently strong so as to cause them to expend effort in bringing that idea or solution to fruition. Sustained entrepreneurial behaviour and continuous intrinsic motivation is achieved however when the individual's perceived internal locus of causality shifts from deep seated interests to specific values within the value-set, most notably toward creativity and daring.

A consistent finding was the participant's often unconscious expression of the behaviour they were describing. I noted a heightened level of energy and intensity once participants began discussing the behaviour of others as well as their own businesses. For most participants these examples were descriptive and historic, that is, what had inspired them at the time to behave entrepreneurially or what they had observed in someone else who had started up a business. The small number of 'serial entrepreneurs' expressed their experiences in the present tense. These were primarily situations and experiences that this small group were currently engaged in. Participants explained the 'passion' they had for their business and how 'excited' they were about achieving their goals. The serial entrepreneurs could be identified as extroverts (energised by their surroundings) while most of the other participants behaved as sporadic extroverts or introverts who were more withdrawn and internally energised.

6.5.1.4 Competence

The notion of competence has many different interpretations and like defining 'entrepreneurs' it remains a diffuse term, the meaning of which is shaped by those who use

it. In the context of entrepreneurial behaviour however I have adopted the meaning that a 'competence' comprises a combination of skill, knowledge, experience, and value orientation to engage with a process (Bergenhengouwen, 1996, p. 29). Skill, knowledge and experience are common expectations of what it means to be competent. The inclusion of a value orientation implies that competence is driven by an intrinsic motive or desire to engage in a particular behaviour. My adoption of this interpretation stems from my own encounters with highly knowledgeable and skilled people with a wealth of experience but who hate their job, profession or work. The lack of belief in what these individuals were doing indicates, in my view, a level of incompetence and therefore a lack of motivation to engage in activity.

Observations from participants with respect to competence included the capability to; 'think on their feet, generate ideas and explore them, critical evaluation, networkers, willing to learn, curious, experienced , have the business skills, actively pursue knowledge, know the processes', and 'challenge the status quo'. Skills, knowledge and experience are thus well recognised dimensions of competence amongst participants. The 'willingness to learn; active pursuit of knowledge and curiosity', imply an underlying need to know more and explore new opportunities.

However, skill, knowledge and experience are not the sole prerequisites to competent entrepreneurial behaviour. Without belief in oneself, ones' capability and an intrinsic drive to explore and create, entrepreneurial behaviour would not be possible. Self-efficacy beliefs influence the individual's choice of goal directed behaviour, expenditure of effort and perseverance in the face of challenge and obstacles (Bandura 1986; Locke & Latham, 1990), as the following excerpt illustrates;

What made you get involved with this project?

I saw an opportunity to make a difference to the region and felt confident that I could make it happen.

But it's not something related to any of your businesses or what you have to offer, isn't that a bit 'out of left field' for you?

Yes, but that doesn't matter, I have the skills and experience to be able to get the job done.

Still, that doesn't explain 'why' you're taking on this project. How do you stand to gain from it?

"I probably don't. But that's not the point. I'm engaged in it because I like this place. This is home for me, so if I can give something back, that makes me feel good. I didn't get stuck into this project because of what I was going to get out of it; I got stuck in because I can see the potential and because I genuinely believe I can produce the results. You see, to me being entrepreneurial isn't about successful products or services or even making a lot of money, it's about the process, the challenge and the opportunity to utilise the skills and experience I have. I don't need to be an engineer to drive a project like this; I just need to be good at bringing the necessary resources together and getting the job done, on time and within budget. That's where the satisfaction lies. If there's some recognition that comes my way afterwards, well, that's nice, but that's not what I'm aiming for (PTCP 15).

Individuals high in self-efficacy not only prefer challenging activities; they also display higher staying power in those pursuits because the process of entrepreneurship is a stimulating one (Bandura, 1997).

Gecas (1982, 2000) has argued about the importance of three self motives as the motivational foundation for value identities, namely, self-esteem (relatedness in SDT), self-efficacy and authenticity (autonomy in SDT). The self-esteem motive refers to the individual's ability to promote a favourable view to others and to maintain or enhance that view in their presence. In Self Determination Theory (SDT) this refers to the notion of 'relatedness' (Deci & Ryan, 1985) and is enabled through the individual's ability to sustain a convincing narrative of their self-identity (Giddens, 1991).

Bandura (1986) suggests the capability that is most 'distinctly human' (p. 21) is that of self-reflection. Through self-reflection, individuals make sense of their experiences, explore their own cognitions and beliefs, engage in self-evaluation, and alter their thinking and behaviour. Self-reflection is also critical to maintaining a self-identity that is congruent with expressed behaviour. At the core of self-efficacy lies the individual's capacity to think; a process whereby the individual applies their experience, knowledge and perceptive ability to actively seek opportunities. Personal values provide the individual with the drive and

intrinsic motivation to engage in this reflexive exercise which requires critical as well as creative thinking in order to construct and visualize the end goal.

Participants were asked what knowledge, skills and competence were needed for entrepreneurial behaviour. The responses clustered around three distinct areas, namely, conceptual skills, applied skills and practiced skills. Although the clusters were recognised primarily as 'skill bases' participants emphasized that they could not exist unless the requisite knowledge was also in place. In other words, to be able to 'envision the future' participants noted that it would not be possible for this skill to be exercised unless the individual had some prior knowledge of what it stood for and its purpose.

6.5.2 Self-efficacy – skills and competence

Participants noted that the first area where skills were particularly important was at the conceptual level. Conceptual skills were noted as being able to 'envision the future, dream, make connections at an abstract level, think through the implications, evaluate the possibilities, draw mental maps, generate ideas, perceive innovations, do 'what-ifs', argue with themselves, work through processes in their mind, think of the possibilities, perceive rewards, intuitively feel that it is right, mental agility, complete incomplete pictures, predict possible obstacles and pitfalls, and establish patterns'. The emphasis on most of these distinctions was focused on the individual's ability to 'think', not in a mundane way but to think about the 'past, future and present' as well as at a 'pragmatic' level and a level of 'abstraction'. When participants were probed further about this type of thinking responses included:

You need to be able to daydream about the future in order to capitalise on opportunities (PTCP 12).

Things happen quickly in the environment, so your thinking also needs to be up to speed. If you're too slow, you'll lose out (PTCP 17).

People think that ideas just pop up and you're off. It's not like that at all. All you see is a small piece of what could be a good idea. You have to be able to think through the rest in order to make it real (PTCP 23).

Ideas are the easy bit; everyone has a good idea occasionally. But that's all it will ever be unless you exercise that muscle between your ears. You need to think about the possibilities, the obstacles and the potential pay-off otherwise its worthless (PTCP 19).

I like to think in opposites. I look at something and try to find out what it can't do. That helps me generate more new ideas because I start asking myself; 'what if it could do this or that?' (PTCP 27).

Self-efficacy is the motivation to perceive oneself as a causal agent in one's environment as efficacious and competent (Gecas, 2000, p.101). Authenticity refers to the individual's striving for meaning, coherence and significance such that the individual is motivated to experience themselves as meaningful and real. In other words the individual strives to achieve congruence between their values and the outward expressions of their behaviour. Failure to achieve this congruence, leads to feelings of being 'false' and disappointment with one's efforts. Being true to one's values therefore means being true to oneself in a fundamental but also applied way.

The second cluster identified by participants related to the applied skills. Participants noted conceptual skills were essential but if all this thinking could not be transformed into meaningful action then what one was observing would constitute simple daydreaming; not entrepreneurial behaviour. Self-efficacy therefore needed to be demonstrated through the application of what the individual had been thinking about, that is, implementing their ideas. Applied skills included; 'Knowing the rules of the game, moving from abstraction to concrete form, taking ideas and planning the tasks to achieve them, gathering resources, organising, finding workable solutions, mapping efficient processes, managing conflict, communicating, interpersonal skills, being persuasive, conducting research, doing presentations, building reputation, mixing socially, networking, behaving ethically, demonstrating responsibility, being accountable, leading from the front, and setting the example. Participants agreed that one could only really determine whether an individual was behaving entrepreneurially by observing what they were actually engaged in doing;

Talk is cheap. I don't know how many times I've listened to people tell me about their ideas, and some of them are really pretty good. But when I ask them whether they're

doing it, they can't show anything for it. That's always a sign that they might have the thinking skills but they don't have the practical skills (PTCP 7).

I get behind ideas when I watch the floor show. When someone comes up with a revolutionary idea and they can show you not only what it is, but how they're going to do it, with passion, then I get excited with them and tell them they're on to something, let's get going (PTCP 28).

People are mentally lazy. They have the ability to sort things out and be creative, but that's sometimes where it stops. It's when you get the idea, the plan and the passion to get going in the same package that you start feeling the excitement yourself (PTCP 30).

The final cluster refers to 'practiced skills' the emphasis of which is on repetition and gaining experience through continuous application. Participants suggested a range of skills and processes under this heading such as; 'Finding out what works and repeat it, asking for help when its needed, utilising expertise, managing information flow, political skills, being sensitive, engaging diversity, listening, managing the culture, maintaining the excitement, prolonging engagements, being unafraid, rotating through roles, developing intuition skills, evaluating strategies'.

Deci & Ryan, (1985; 1995), argue that interpersonal events such as networking and formal structures, such as rewards, communication, and feedback, that conduce toward 'feelings of competence' (self-efficacy) during action can enhance intrinsic motivation for that action. Thus the more the individual uses their conceptual and applied skills the more intrinsically motivated the individual becomes to continue applying them. They allow the individual to feel satisfaction because of the basic psychological need for competence.

However, my concern with this line of reasoning is that simply practicing conceptual and applied skills is insufficient to sustain intrinsic motivation over a long period of time without also acknowledging the role values play in that motivation. An individual can be conceptually astute and highly skilled in realising new ideas but it does not necessarily imply that they are motivated to do so. As mentioned above, knowledge, skill and experience are only part of the competence equation. Intrinsic motivation comes from a deeper source which I suggest is based in on the individual's value-set. Because those conceptual abilities and competently applied skills are essentially expressions of the individual's value set, they

enable them to feel authentic and behaviourally connected to their values. Furthermore, an individual's self-identity is reinforced when they feel their behaviour is authentic and that they are self-efficacious. Therefore, optimal challenges, like entrepreneurial opportunities, that stimulate creativity, promote positive performance feedback, and the achievement of personal ambitions, facilitate intrinsic motivation.

6.6 Summary

This chapter has discussed the role values play in entrepreneurial behaviour through self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy. Identification of entrepreneurial behaviour operates through the recognition of, values, behaviours and competence. Values are expressed through behaviour by observing how individuals approach their opportunities and what they focus on. Someone who behaves entrepreneurially is energised from within and pursues opportunities where they are both conceptually and physically competent; and where they have a deep seated interest in developing creative solutions within the confines of a specific field or discipline. Sustained entrepreneurial behaviour is the result of an intense focus on the value-set and in particular, creativity and daring. A narrow focus on the dynamics inherent to a particular field or discipline is therefore secondary to the overriding need to be creative and to solve unique problems.

This chapter has discussed the relationship of values with the individual's self-identity. There is a commonality of meaning between entrepreneurial values and the attributes entrepreneurial individuals are said to possess. This commonality provides further proof of how values become assimilated into the individual's self-identity and how they are expressed not only through their behaviour but through narrative discourse as well. The identified attributes of innovation, independence, ambition, and daring have significant cross over in interpretation with the values identified in the discussion on self-determination.

Participants viewed self-efficacy as comprising three related skills cluster. Conceptual skills were critical for creativity, the generation of ideas as well as assessing potential pitfalls and obstacles to their introduction. Applied skills were necessary to bring those ideas to fruition and to deal with the ongoing issues related their implementation. Participants stated that

entrepreneurial behaviour was reliant on both sets of skills otherwise it could not be separately identified. The final skill set related to practiced skills which were necessary to build experience but more importantly to improve confidence through application and to reinforce the individual's self-image. The final concluding chapter sets out the discoveries made in the two previous discussion chapters and suggests further areas for research into entrepreneurial behaviour.

Chapter 7: Values, Intrinsic Motivation and Entrepreneurial Behaviour

My sense of the journey I have undertaken thus far leads me to believe that I have ended up with something of a dilemma. I have yet more questions to ask than the answers provided by this study. I am comforted by the fact that this is not necessarily a bad thing, if I reflect on Veblen's comment that; 'the outcome of any serious research can only be to make two questions grow where only one grew before' (1919, p. 34). This being the case, I am encouraged that I will be able to continue examining entrepreneurial behaviour in a way that builds on relevant and current theory in entrepreneurship.

I started this study with something of a confused sense of what constituted an 'entrepreneur' and what didn't. This confusion arose as a result of all the literature I had read on the topic and after extensive debate with colleagues both in and outside a widespread network of successful business people. A belief that I formed during this study was that any individual, regardless of their field of endeavour or discipline, could *be entrepreneurial*. This idea resulted in a shift in focus from seeking out individually labelled 'entrepreneurs' to one where there was a closer examination of entrepreneurial behaviour and the motives that spur individuals toward engagement in the process of entrepreneurship.

The evidence provided in this thesis goes a significant way toward supporting a premise that individuals have an intrinsic need to unleash their entrepreneurial talent. Further study is necessary and indeed critical to better understand the dynamics of entrepreneurial behaviour and how it can be facilitated. The original research question in this study was to determine;

What role do personally held values play in entrepreneurial behaviour?

On further reflection of this question, I felt it was necessary to break this up into three ancillary questions as follows;

i. What set of values do entrepreneurial individuals subscribe to?

- ii. What meaning do entrepreneurial individuals attach to each of these commonly held values?**
- iii. How do these commonly held values manifest themselves in entrepreneurial behaviour?**

These three questions proved useful in targeting specific aspects of entrepreneurial behaviour and soliciting valuable information from the participants to this study. Chapter two proposed a model of entrepreneurial behaviour as comprising self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy all of which are underpinned by a specific set of values. It was furthermore posited that these values acted as intrinsic motivation for the expression of entrepreneurial behaviour.

Chapter three set out the research design and methodology used to source information relevant to the above ancillary questions. The study was conducted within a constructivist paradigm utilizing a phenomenographic approach and subjecting the resulting in depth interview narratives to discourse analysis. A consequence of which was the identification of a comprehensive value-set associated with entrepreneurial behaviour, an interpretive compilation of meanings classified into categorised themes and a descriptive inventory of manifestations of entrepreneurial behaviour. These results are recorded in chapter four. Chapter five focused on discussing in greater depth the first two questions above, that is, the comprehensive value-set and the meaning attributed to each of these commonly held values. Chapter six discussed the manifestation of a commonly held value-set in the context of entrepreneurial behaviour using the model set out in Chapter two as a discussion framework.

This final chapter draws together the many different strands of investigation I followed in this study and presents the evidence as a comprehensive model of entrepreneurial behaviour. This chapter addresses and summarises the conclusions of each of the above ancillary research questions in turn. Limitations to this study will be addressed (section 7.5) as will several questions that have arisen as a consequence of this study and where future research may be conducted (section 7.6).

7.1 The Entrepreneurial Value-set

The first ancillary question of this study was based on a premise that entrepreneurial behaviour is predicated on a small set of deep seated values. Further, these values provide the individual with the intrinsic motivation to behave entrepreneurially. Prior theory directed toward explaining what these core values were has previously been focused on confirming the presence of such Western beliefs as 'individualism, competitiveness, material gain' and a 'strong work ethic' (Schumpeter, 1950; Cauthorn, 1989; Hebert & Link, 1998). In this study the entrepreneurial value-set was discovered to be marginally different comprising 'independence; creativity; ambition and 'daring'.

Comparatively the two values-sets only share 'Individualism' and 'independence' in terms of similarity. 'Individualism, for example, has some equivalence in meaning with 'independence' that is, acting and thinking independently. 'Individualism' is however a broader notion prevalent in a wider social context as descriptive of a whole communities and indeed countries such as the United States. 'Individualism' is shunned in collective cultures (Hofstede, 1980) and individuals perceived by others to be acting outside collective boundaries for their own independent gain are rejected or ignored (Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars & Hampden Turner, 1998). New Zealand culture is not classified as 'individualistic' in nature and shares many of the features that resonate with a collectivist culture (Hofstede, 1980). Rural communities in particular demonstrate collectivist culture by banding together and rejecting attempts by independently minded property developers to be progressive. Many participants to this study however were situated in an urban demographic where the culture tends to be more diverse and accepting of independent thought and action. Entrepreneurial behaviour in rural areas tends to be shrouded with those engaged in entrepreneurial activity reluctant to accept an entrepreneurial identity, expressing a personal need for greater degrees of confidentiality. Entrepreneurial behaviour in bigger cities, on the other hand because of their broader demographic and cultural diversity, was more readily acknowledged as a positive 'individualistic' activity and where there was more integration of an entrepreneurial identity by the individual and the public. This raises the potential for further comparative study of the dynamics of entrepreneurial

behaviour between smaller 'collective' sub-cultures and larger, more diverse and independent sub-cultures.

I could find no evidence amongst the participants of any deliberate worth being placed on being 'competitive', as suggested by Hebert & Link (1998). The trigger and motivation to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour was driven almost exclusively by the individual's inherent need for independence and to be able to express their creativity. Indeed, 'competitiveness' in my view had been replaced, at least initially without exception by all participants, with 'creativity'. All participants were at great pains to explain that their initial motive for engaging in entrepreneurial behaviour was as a consequence of an individual need to express their ideas in a creative way.

None of the participants engaged in entrepreneurial behaviour (insofar as it relates to the start-up phase for a new venture) for 'material gain' but rather to express their independence and creativity. For the majority of participants however, this intent did change to a focus on wealth creation and financial reward once they were established. It could be argued that such a shift represents a renewed focus on funding the individual's need for creativity but this was not the case. Only a small number of participants maintained a continuing focus on creativity. The results show that there is an emphasis on creative expression in the early stages of venture development but that this emphasis shifts from entrepreneurial behaviours that are intrinsically motivated toward management behaviours that ultimately attract extrinsic rewards the longer a business has been established. Value-sets therefore evolve and shift over time, resulting in the emphasis being placed on management oriented behaviours that respond more readily to changing situational circumstances that preserve the bottom-line and profit while ensuring the business continues to perform.

A 'strong work ethic' is a belief shared and appreciated by all participants and is recognition of the amount of effort needed to pursue ambitious goals and to be daring. It was not perceived by participants to be an intrinsic motivation in its own right that drives entrepreneurial behaviour; it was acknowledged as an inherent reality of engaging in entrepreneurship. There was clear recognition by participants that entrepreneurial behaviour not only required considerable physical effort but also perhaps even more

psychic and mental effort. There was a need amongst participants to constantly focus on goals and activities that advanced their creativity. Entrepreneurial behaviour, because of its independent and ambitious nature, placed considerable pressure on the individual to focus solely on entrepreneurial activity, often at the expense of relationships outside business and leisure. The determination and motivation participants needed to follow through with their ideas became a differentiating feature between them and other business people. Thus, while values are often construed as beliefs or principles by which individuals guide their behaviour, they are also perceived of and expressed as psychological needs the individual seeks to satisfy.

7.2 The Meaning of Entrepreneurial Values

Independence was rated as supremely important by participants thus confirming what Van Gelderen & Jansen (2006) and others have already explored in the context of autonomy. Individuals who value autonomy are focused on achieving a state of independent self-determination (p.25). In all of the interviews conducted in this study participants expressed that independence meant the need to be in control, the need to make decisions independently of others, the need for freedom and the need for variety, stimulation and challenge. Being independent also evoked qualities of natural leadership where participants were acknowledged, particularly in the larger centres, for their expertise and ability to get things done.

The assertion that individuals, particularly those who behave entrepreneurially, need to be autonomous provides a critical link to Self-determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985) through the notion of authenticity. In other words, an individual not only needs to feel that they are independent but also that they are in a position to be independent. The positive aspects of independence were expressed through the notion of control and freedom; positive control in the sense that issues requiring attention could be dealt with quickly and efficiently; and freedom from the perspective of the individual having the opportunity to self-determine direction and make independent choices. A negative effect of independence was exercising so much control that it stifled the expression of other values such as creativity and daring. In these cases entrepreneurial behaviour has been sacrificed in favour

of behaviour where there is little latitude provided for entrepreneurial expression. A potentially damaging effect of too much focus on independence could result in dogmatic control and an authoritarian style of management that is not conducive to entrepreneurial behaviour. A further effect is the relegation of creativity to a less important position in the value-set hierarchy. Thus, while creativity is acknowledged as critical to entrepreneurial behaviour the individual's dominant motivation to control supersedes creative effort.

The need to be creative was deemed to be the second most important value to entrepreneurial behaviour. It was also established that creativity is a critical distinguishing feature between small business operators and those who behave entrepreneurially. All participants agreed that creativity was critical to entrepreneurial expression however it was sustained creative activity through recognised processes within entrepreneurship that differentiated normal businesses from entrepreneurial businesses. Simply generating new ideas is therefore insufficient to support an entrepreneurial identity. Applied skills are required to convert conceptual abstractions into concrete form. An individual who believed in creativity and who could bring their idea into a commercially viable product or service was perceived to be entrepreneurial. Creativity as an intrinsically motivating force was sometimes tempered or constrained by the conditions under which individuals found themselves. Situational conditions either promoted the pursuit of creativity by infusing the individual with energy, passion and confidence or caused the individual to withhold and back away from introducing creative ideas because of a lack of confidence in their ability (self-efficacy) or genuine external barriers and limitations.

There is a sense of purpose and direction to entrepreneurial behaviour that enables focus and provides energy to the pursuit of entrepreneurial opportunity. Individuals who behave entrepreneurially believe in creating their own future and setting ambitious targets that provide stretch and challenge. Ambition is an important feature of entrepreneurial behaviour because without it there would be little point in setting goals that encourage the individual to stretch their capability or expend the effort to achieve a superior result. The whole point regarding ambition was to be able to set ambitious but realistic targets to achieve. Thus ambition and choosing own goals were discussed together because of their complementary nature. Caution was expressed by participants of the need to guard against being overly ambitious with regard to setting unrealistic goals. Realistic but ambitious goals

were said to be those where the individual had a high probability of achieving a superior outcome under prevailing circumstances.

Daring was more closely associated with being adventurous rather than the notion of risk. Only a third of the participants rated daring as part of the value-set, yet it was rated as highly important to entrepreneurial behaviour. Those who rated daring highly, also rated creativity alongside it as of equal importance. Participants stated that a combination of daring and creativity were essential motivation for entrepreneurial behaviour. Risk, as a partial description of daring, was perceived to be an element of entrepreneurial opportunity identification that needed to be managed. Risk was not perceived to have any motivating qualities that would encourage individuals to deliberately seek it out. Being adventurous on the other hand was seen to be an opportunity to stretch one's creative wings and it is the combination of both daring and creativity that energised participants to look for opportunities.

An entrepreneurial value-set was seen to be a description of desirable end states against which individuals could set long term goals. These desirable end-states not only provide focus and energy but also a useful metric against which individuals could assess their portfolio of skills and abilities. The long term nature of these preferred end states, connected as they are to the individual's goals, transcend situations and may also guide and influence behaviour displayed by the individual in other roles they occupy.

Values influence decision making and guide the selection of behaviours the individual uses to respond to specific situations. Participants stated that values were intrinsic needs that provided energy and passion to explore, assess and exploit unique opportunities that were congruent with their beliefs. Values therefore influence perceptions, attitudes, intentions and behaviour in such a way that gains can be made in activities that are aligned with personal goals.

7.3 The interaction between self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy in entrepreneurial behaviour

The original approach to this study was to focus on separating entrepreneurial behaviour from the individual. The argument was made that rather than trying to identify entrepreneurs as the unit of study, a more productive route was to identify instances where entrepreneurial behaviour had occurred and to unravel the antecedent components leading up to it. This resulted in the selection of a sample of participants who had demonstrated experience in entrepreneurship through business start-up or the introduction of innovative products and services.

The intent of this thesis was to discover what motivated individuals to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour. In pursuit of that intent it was posited that entrepreneurial behaviour could be examined through the lenses of three 'self' constructs namely, self-determinism, self-identity and self-efficacy. Furthermore, it was proposed that underpinning these three constructs was a common set of values or beliefs that provide the intrinsic motivation for individuals to identify entrepreneurial opportunities and to pursue entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial opportunity identification was used in this study as a point of separation and distinction between small business owners and those who behaved entrepreneurially.

One of the first key findings of this study were the differing meanings attributed to 'being an entrepreneur' versus 'being entrepreneurial'. For most of the participants the preference was for 'being entrepreneurial'. The rationale for this preference was that the term entrepreneur had become diffuse with no real discerning features that would distinguish one business person from another. The term had also become a label that had little or no distinguishable meaning in today's business environment of the differences between ordinary business people and talented innovators. 'Being entrepreneurial' was aimed at expressing certain behaviours that were deemed to be original, unique and innovative, which set the individual apart from the day-to-day management activities of other business people. Furthermore, 'being entrepreneurial' was preferred because it relieved the

individual of external expectations and pressures associated with being labelled an entrepreneur thus enabling the individual to decide when, where and how to 'be entrepreneurial'.

In chapter two a model was introduced that demonstrated the composition of entrepreneurial behaviour as a series of isolated yet interrelated elements. The objective of that model was to deconstruct and segregate individual elements of entrepreneurial behaviour in order to investigate their underlying composition as well as discover how each of the model's sub-elements related to one another. Having conducted an analysis of each of the constructs with the assistance of this study's participants and previous discussion I am able to redesign the model used in Chapter two and clarify its underlying logic as follows:

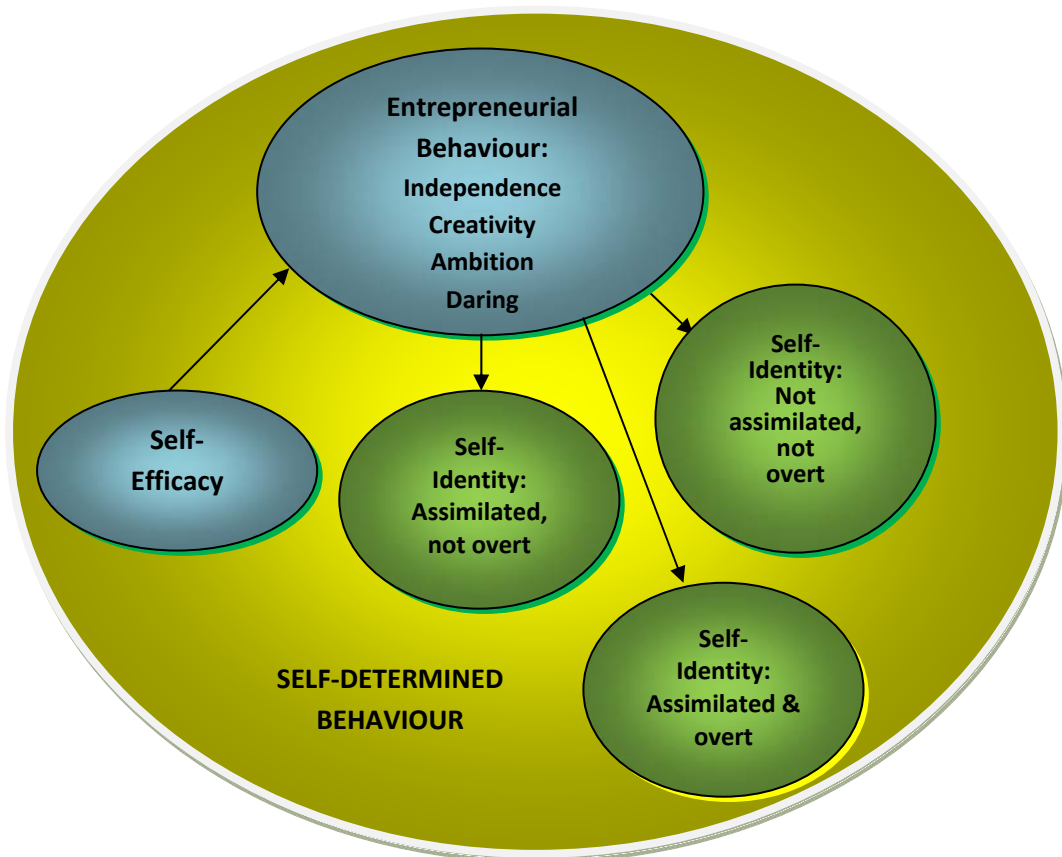


Figure 3. The Relationship between Entrepreneurial behaviour, Self-efficacy and Self-identity in Self-determined Behaviour.

Entrepreneurial behaviour is a sub-category of self-determined behaviour. Self-determined behaviour can occur in a variety of different situations and in any number of social roles, for example, sport, science and art. Entrepreneurial behaviour can be conceived of as a form of

self-determined behaviour in a business context on the basis that it has a goal or objective that needs to be achieved; it is planned and intentional; and there is a motivated individual, willing and able, to give effect to performance. Entrepreneurial behaviour is predicated on a number of common values, namely, independence, creativity, ambition and daring. These values provide the necessary motivation and energy to generate a successful outcome. Self-efficacy is a necessary element for not only entrepreneurial behaviour, but any self-determined behaviour and thus sits apart from entrepreneurial behaviour.

How well the above values are assimilated by the individual into their sub-conscious and how confident they feel about their competence, determines how they identify themselves through behavioural expression. There are three possibilities; a) values and competence (self-efficacy) are not sub-consciously or consciously assimilated into the self-identity resulting in an individual who behaves entrepreneurially but is not sub-consciously or consciously aware of it nor is it overtly displayed; b) values and competence (self-efficacy) are sub-consciously assimilated into the self-image but not consciously countered resulting in an individual who behaves entrepreneurially but chooses not to overtly identify themselves as such, and; c) values and competence (self-efficacy) are subconsciously and consciously assimilated into the self-image and the individual confidently behaves entrepreneurially in a way that can be overtly identified by those around them. Note that the model is static and does not depict or explain shifts in the entrepreneurial value-set. It does however provide a template against which the identification of entrepreneurial talent can be estimated.

7.4 The Role of Values in Entrepreneurial Behaviour

In summary, values are beliefs, deep beliefs (Kreuger, 2007) that influence the way an individual thinks, makes decisions and behaves. Those same values are psychological needs that require satisfaction in order for the individual to function optimally within a given social context and to the requisite social role. Values are also intrinsic motivators that provide the individual with the energy to pursue ambitious opportunities. Values are assimilated into the 'self' through subjective interpretation and the adoption of a specific meaning that fits within the context of a specific role. The adoption and internalisation of specific values

associated with a role provide the individual with the drive and energy to seek out and acquire the necessary knowledge, skills and experience to perform that role. Furthermore, application and practice in the skills lead to competence which in turn enhances the individual's level of confidence (self-efficacy) to perform tasks associated with the role.

Repeated application of the competencies associated with entrepreneurial behaviour ensure the assimilation of these values and their meaning into the individual's sub-conscious to the extent that they become 'second nature' and therefore part of the individual's identity. The result is that values become sub-consciously embedded and the individual is able to physically respond to entrepreneurial opportunities without first bringing them into conscious awareness and analysing every situation against them. Values are only brought into conscious awareness in the presence of value conflicting situations and are used to provide the individual with guidance in decision-making and behavioural response.

The attraction of independence, creativity, ambition and daring intrinsically motivate self-efficacious and confident individuals to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour that is self-determined. Repeated engagement in entrepreneurial behaviour and the successful achievement of self-determined goals can enhance the individual's image of themselves and their reputation as an entrepreneurial individual amongst their peers. The development of an entrepreneurial self-identity is contingent not only upon repeated entrepreneurial performance but also socio-cultural factors that either reward or neutralise that identity. The acknowledgement and recognition from others of the individual's entrepreneurial behaviour leads to the development of an entrepreneurial self-identity. An autonomous, competent (self-efficacious), independent, creative, ambitious and daring (self-determined) self-identity; satisfies the individual's psychological need for relatedness amongst their peers and community.

The commonality of meaning amongst participants of their values provides further evidence of the presence of a common entrepreneurial value-set. The perceived attributes of independence, creativity, ambition, and daring would indicate that there is a link between values and the attributes individuals assign to entrepreneurial behaviour. The implication of this suggests that rather than trying to identify individuals with the right characteristics or

traits, the focus should turn to identifying behaviours that closely align with an entrepreneurial value-set.

Values therefore act as intrinsic motivating factors that trigger entrepreneurial behaviour through self-determination. The more attention the individual devotes to these values, the more they become integrated into their self-identity. It has been further demonstrated that values play a significant role in the development of self-efficacy and the expression of values through entrepreneurial behaviour.

7.5 Limitation of this study

I conclude with a reminder concerning the limitations of this research and the extension of the findings to a generalised population comprising individuals who may or may not behave entrepreneurially. This is not to say that such individuals hold values substantially different in other roles or areas of their lives outside a purely business context. The values rated by participants in this study had relevance to their view of entrepreneurial behaviour and were confined to a subjective interpretation within a constructivist paradigm.

Similarly, all participants have assimilated several different identities for the different social roles they occupy. Within those varying roles there is the possibility that both individual and group values will differ from what is reported here. The purpose of the study was to isolate as far as possible entrepreneurial behaviour independently from other roles and values, however, the likelihood does exist that values held by some individuals from other spheres of their lives could take precedence over their entrepreneurial role and thus influence their survey results.

Another limitation is that the study does not address shifts in the value-set, that is, it does not explore the causal conditions or factors that would make an individual place more emphasis on certain values in the hierarchy over others, for example, independence over creativity. Despite there being some explanation and justification provided in the discussion of New Zealand's lifestyle options for engaging in entrepreneurship, I believe it would be worthwhile exploring this typically characteristic property of local entrepreneurs.

A final limitation is making a commitment to a view that all entrepreneurial behaviour is entirely self-determined. While there is considerable attraction for that assertion, there may be other factors not covered by Self-determination Theory and Cognitive Evaluation Theory that could have an equal if not more significant influence on motivating entrepreneurial behaviour. All participants were asked the same key interview questions however I noted their responses and subjected them to my own interpretation. I am confident that there will be significant similarity in responses in the event of another self-selected sample however this evidence is not replicable, nor generalise-able. Subjective interpretations are not only complex but also subject to variations in the individual's setting, background and experience. While this raw data may vary I am reasonably confident that similar threads of meaning will emerge to substantiate my interpretations. What will differ will be the responses to supplementary questions I asked in order to engage participants in a narrative discussion particularly about the characteristics of their entrepreneurial behaviour, in order to clarify particular nuances of their conversation.

7.6 Potential Research Questions

The approach taken in this study by identifying, isolating and examining the antecedent components to entrepreneurial behaviour appears to be unique. I am not aware of any other studies that have approached the entrepreneurial phenomenon in this way. The implication that one can separate the individual from their behaviour and study it is significant and raises a number of potential research questions which have fallen beyond the scope of this thesis but are suggested here as future avenues for investigation.

A first potential research avenue would be to further refine the investigative approach by isolating entrepreneurial behaviour from the individual. The purpose would be to offer further clarity and definition to the notion that behaviour and specifically entrepreneurial behaviour can be examined independently and in the context of a specific role. Such an examination could include; the constitution of entrepreneurial behaviour, an attempt to define and classify this type of behaviour; further in-depth of analysis of the tasks that go to make up the behaviour and a comparative study of those tasks against entrepreneurial opportunity identification.

Values chosen under Schwarz's typology of self-direction have a strong relationship with self-determination and intrinsic motivation. Self determination is based on the notions of 'autonomy', 'relatedness' (self esteem) and 'competence' (self-efficacy). Although beyond the scope of the present study there is potential to analyse Schwarz's typologies further to assess their intrinsic / extrinsic motivational influence on behaviour. The value of doing so could determine the strength of the relationship between personal values, entrepreneurial behaviour and self-determination.

A further research prospect is to determine how entrepreneurial values are introduced and are adopted by individuals. It is fairly common knowledge that values come from culture (Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars, 1992; Schwartz, 1992). This study identifies what those values are in the context of a particular socio-economic role and how they affect entrepreneurial behaviour through self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy. What it does not address however is an explanation of how the individual is exposed to these values in the first place. A further related project could investigate those environmental or extrinsic factors that impede or prevent the intrinsic motivation of entrepreneurial behaviour.

7.7 Conclusion

The original intent of this study was to discover what, if any, influence personally held values had on individuals who engaged in entrepreneurship. The pathway to the discoveries made here were by way of examining entrepreneurial behaviour in the context of entrepreneurial opportunity identification within the process of entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurial behaviour was deconstructed in order to examine its composite parts that is, self-determination, self-identity and self-efficacy. This study investigated the influence personally held values had on each of the above components by first identifying a common value-set and then examining meaning through in-depth interviews. This study found that entrepreneurial behaviour is underpinned by strong beliefs in independence, creativity, ambition and daring. These values influence entrepreneurial behaviour by influencing the individual's thinking, perception, attitude and intentions to engage in entrepreneurial activity. Furthermore, these values provide the individual with the energy and sense of

direction needed to fulfil ambitious and adventurous goals. This study concludes that entrepreneurial behaviour is intrinsically motivated through a personal value-set comprising independence, creativity, ambition and daring. The individual displaying entrepreneurial behaviour can furthermore be understood to be self-determined; possessing the necessary confidence derived from the individual's sense of self-efficacy; and choosing whether or not to overtly display entrepreneurial behaviour in order to build their self-identity.

These findings make a contribution to the body of knowledge that comprises entrepreneurship and answers the question regarding what motivates individuals to engage in entrepreneurial activity. An unintended outcome of this study has been a potential explanation for the sporadic and episodic occurrence of entrepreneurial behaviour in New Zealand that often brands individuals as 'lifestyle entrepreneurs'. Further research of entrepreneurial behaviour is intended to determine how individuals acquire an entrepreneurial value-set and what changes take place over time that influence shifts within that value-set leading to sporadic occurrences of entrepreneurial behaviour.

REFERENCES

- Acs, Z.J., (2002). *Innovation and the growth of cities*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited.
- Acs, Z.J., Arenius, P., Hay, M., & Minniti, M., (2005). *Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2004*, Babson Park, London.
- Agran, M., (1997). *Student-directed learning: Teaching self-determination skills*. Pacific Grove, CA.: Brooks/Cole.
- Akerlind, G.S., (2005). Variation and Commonality in Phenomenographic Research methods. *Higher Education research and Development*, 24(4), pp. 321-340.
- Alderfer, C.P., (1969). An empirical test of a new theory of human needs. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 4(2), pp. 142-175.
- Aldrich, H. (1999). *Organizations evolving*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Alvarez, S.A., Agarwal, R., & Sorenson, O., (2005). *Handbook of Entrepreneurship Research: Interdisciplinary Perspectives*. New York, NY: Springer.
- Alvarez, S. A., & Barney, J.B., (2007). Discovery and Creation: Alternative Theories of Entrepreneurial Action. *Strategic Entrepreneurship Journal* 1, (1–2): pp. 11-26.
- Amabile, T. M., DeJong, W., & Lepper, M. R., (1976). Effects of externally imposed deadlines on subsequent intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 34, pp. 92-98.
- Amabile, T.M., (1996). *Creativity in context: update to the social psychology of creativity*. Boulder, CO: Westview.
- Amo, B.W., & Kolvereid, L., (2005). Organizational Strategy, Individual Personality and Innovation Behaviour. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 13(1), pp. 7-19.
- Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M., (2000). All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(3): pp. 472-491.
- Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M., (2000). Attitudes and the attitude–behavior relation: Reasoned and automatic processes. In W. Stroebe & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *European review of social psychology* (Vol. 11, pp. 1-33). Chichester, UK: Wiley.
- Audretsch, D.B. & Thurik, A.R., (2001). Linking Entrepreneurship to Growth. *OECD Science, Technology and Industry Working Papers*, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/736170038056>.
- Bandura, A., (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, 84(2), pp. 191-212.
- Bandura, A., (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Bandura, A., (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, 28, pp. 117-148.
- Bandura, A., (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman Press.
- Bandura, A., (1999). A Social cognitive theory of Personality. In L. Pervin and O. John (Eds.) *Handbook of Personality (2nd Ed.)*, pp. 154-196. New York, USA: Guilford.
- Bandura, A., (2001). Social Cognitive Theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology*. 52, pp. 1-26.
- Bandura, A., Pastorelli, C.; Barbaranelli, C., & Caprara, G.V., (1996). Multifaceted impact of self-efficacy beliefs on academic functioning. *Child Development*, 67, pp. 1206-1222.
- Baron, R.A. & Shane, S., (2005). *Entrepreneurship: a process perspective (2nd Ed.)*. Mason, Ohio: Thomson Higher education.
- Barone, D., Maddux, J.E., & Snyder, C.R., (1997). *Social Cognitive Psychology: History and current domains*. New York: Plenum Press.
- Baumeister, R.F. and Vohs, K.D., (2003). Self Regulation and the Executive Function of the Self. In *The Handbook of Self and Identity*. In Leary, M.R. and Tangney, J.P. (Eds.). New York: Guilford Press.
- Baumeister, R.F., & Leary, M.R., (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(3), pp. 497-529.
- Bennett, A., (1999). Sub-cultures or Neo Tribes: Rethinking the relationship between youth, style and musical taste. *Sociology*, 33(3), pp. 599-617.
- Bergenhengouwen, G.J., (1996). Professional code and ethics for training professionals. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 20(4), pp. 23-29.
- Berger, B., (1991). *The culture of Entrepreneurship*, San Francisco, CA: ICS Press.
- Berlyne, D.E., (1960). *Conflict, Arousal and Curiosity*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Birley, S., & Westhead, P., (1994). A taxonomy of business start-up reasons and their impact on firm growth and size. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 9, pp. 7-31.
- Boelen, W.A.M., (1992). Street Corner Society: Cornerville Revisited. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 21(1), pp. 11-38.
- Bowden, E.M., Jung-Beeman, M., Fleck, J., & Kounios, J. (2005). New approaches to demystifying insight. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 9, pp. 322–328.
- Boyd, N.G. & Vozikis, G.S., (1994). The influence of Self-Efficacy on the Development of Entrepreneurial Intentions and Actions. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 18, pp. 63-68.
- Breaugh, J.A., (1999). Further investigation of the work autonomy scales: two studies. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 13(3), pp. 357-373.

- Brockhaus, R. H., (1980). Risk Taking Propensity of Entrepreneurs. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 23(3), pp. 509-520.
- Bruner, J.S., (1986). *Actual Minds, Possible Worlds*. Cambridge, MA., USA: Harvard University Press.
- Burke, P.J., (1980). The Self: Measurement implications from a symbolic interactionist perspective. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 43, pp. 18-29.
- Busenitz, L., (1996). Research in entrepreneurial alertness. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 36(5), pp. 35-44.
- Cable, D. M., & Judge, T. A., (1996). Person–organization fit, job choice decisions, and organizational entry. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 67(3), pp. 294–311.
- Campbell, J.P., Dunnette, M.D., Lawler, E.E., & Weick, K.E., (1970). *Managerial Behaviour, Performance and Effectiveness*, New York, NY: McGraw Hill.
- Cantillon, R., (1755) ‘Essai sur la nature du commerce en general’, Chapter 13, pg. 12.
- Caprara, G.V., & Cervone, D., (2000). *Personality: Determinants, Dynamics and Potentials*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Cardow, A., (2006). The metaphorical rise of entrepreneurship. *Department of Management and International Business Research Working Paper Series 2006, no. 8*. Auckland, NZ: Massey University. Department of Management and International Business.
- Carland, J. W., Hoy, F., Boulton, W. R., & Carland, J. A. C., (1984). Differentiating entrepreneurs from small business owners: A conceptualization. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(2): pp. 354-359.
- Carroll, G.R., & Hannan, M.T., (2000). *The Demography of Organizations and Industry*. Princeton, NJ, USA: Princeton University Press.
- Carter, N. M., Gartner, W. B., Shaver, K. G., & Gatewood, E. J., (2003) The career reasons of nascent entrepreneurs. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18: pp. 13-39.
- Carver, C.S., & Scheier, M.F., (1982), Cognition, Affect and self-regulation. *The Seventeenth Annual Carnegie Symposium on Cognition*, p. 157.
- Casson, M., (1982). *The Entrepreneur*. Totowa, New Jersey: Barnes & Noble Books.
- Cauthorn, R. C., (1989) *Contributions to a Theory of Entrepreneurship*. New York: Garland.
- Charmaz, K., (2005). Grounded theory in the 21st century: Applications for advancing social research. In Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln, *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative research*, (pp. 507-536). Thousand Oaks CA: Sage Publications.
- Chase, S.E., (2003). Learning to listen: Narrative principles in qualitative research methods course. In R. Josselson, A. Lieblich & D.P. McAdams (Eds), *Up close and personal: the teaching and learning of narrative research* (pp. 79-99). Washington DC: American Psychological Association.

- Chell, E., Haworth, J., & Brearley, S., (1991). *The entrepreneurial personality: Cases, concepts and categories*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Chen, C. C., Greene, P. G., & Crick, A., (1998). Does entrepreneurial self-efficacy distinguish entrepreneurs from managers? *Journal of Business Venturing*, 13: pp. 295- 316.
- Chikofsky, E.J., & Cross, J.H., (1990) Reverse Engineering and Design Recovery: A Taxonomy. *IEEE Software*.
- Chirkov, V., Ryan, R. M., Kim, Y., & Kaplan, U., (2003). Differentiating autonomy from individualism and independence: A self-determination perspective on internalisation of cultural orientations, gender and well being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84, pp. 97-110.
- Churchill, N. C., & Lewis, V. L. (1986). Entrepreneurship research. In D. L. Sexton & R. W. Smilor (Eds.), *The art and science of entrepreneurship*, pp. 333-365. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing.
- Cohen, W.M., & Levinthal, D.A., (1989). Innovation and learning: The two faces of R&D. *Economics Journal*, 99: pp. 569-596.
- Cohen, W.M., & Levinthal, D.A., (1990). Absorptive Capacity: A New Perspective on Learning and Innovation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 25, pp. 128-152.
- Cohen, W.M., & Levinthal, D.A., (1994). Fortune Favors the Prepared Firm. *Management Science*, 40, pp. 227-251.
- Cohen, L., & Mallon, M., (1999). The transition from Organizational Employment to Portfolio Working: Perceptions of 'Boundarylessness'. *Work, Employment & Society*, 13(2), pp. 329-352.
- Collin, A., & Watts, A.G., (1996). The death and transfiguration of career and of career guidance. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 24(3), pp. 385-398.
- Collis, J., & Hussey, R., (2003). *Business Research: a practical guide for undergraduate and postgraduate students (2nd Ed.)*. Basingstoke, Hampshire, UK: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Combs, A.W., (1982). *A Personal Approach to Teaching: Beliefs that make a difference*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Cooper, A., Folta, T., & Woo, C., (1995). Entrepreneurial Information Search. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 10(2), pp. 107-120.
- Cooper, D. R., & Schindler, P. S., (2006). *Business Research Methods (9th ed)*. International Edition. New York, USA: McGraw-Hill.
- Cope, J., & Watts, G., (2000). Learning by doing: An exploration of experience, critical incidents and reflection in entrepreneurial learning, 6(3), pp. 104-124.
- Cresswell, J.W., (2008). *Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods*. New York, NY: Sage Publications.

- Cronkhite, G., (1969). *Persuasion, Speech and Behavioural Change*. Indianapolis, Indiana: The Bobbs-Merrill Company.
- Crotty, M., (1998). *The Foundations of Social Research: Meaning and Perspective in the Research Process*. New York: Sage Publications.
- Czarniawska, B., (2002). *Narratives, Interviews and Organizations: The Handbook of Interview Research*. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- DeCharms, R., (1968). *Personal causation*. New York: Academic Press.
- Deci, E., (1972). Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Reinforcement, and Inequity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 22 (1), pp. 113-120.
- Deci, E. L. (1975). *Intrinsic motivation*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., Nezlek, J., & Sheinman, L., (1981). Characteristics of rewarder and intrinsic motivation of the rewardee. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 40, pp. 1-10.
- Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M., (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behaviour*. New York: Plenum.
- Deci, E. L., & Vansteenkiste, M., (2004). Self-determination theory and basic need satisfaction: Understanding human development in positive psychology. *Ricerche di Psicologia*, 27, pp. 17-34.
- Denzin, N. K., Lincoln, Y. S., (1999). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S., (Eds.) (2005). *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd Ed.) London: Sage Publications.
- Down, S., (2006). *Narratives of enterprise: Crafting Entrepreneurial Self-identity in a small firm*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar.
- Downing, S., (2005). The Social Construction of Entrepreneurship: Narrative and Dramatic Processes in the Co-production of Organizations and Identities. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 29(4), pp. 185-204.
- Drucker, P., (1985). *Innovation and Entrepreneurship*. New York, NY, USA: Harper and Row.
- Dukerich, J.M., Golden, B.R., & Shortell, S.M. (2002). Beauty Is in the Eye of the Beholder: The Impact of Organizational Identification, Identity, and Image on the Cooperative Behaviours of Physicians. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47, pp. 507-534.
- Dutton, J., Dukerich, J. M., & Harquail, C. V. (1994). Organizational images and Member identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39: pp. 239-263.
- Eagly, A.H., & Chaiken, S., (1993). *The Psychology of attitudes*. Dallas, Texas: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

- Eccles, J.S., & Wigfield, A., (2002). Motivational Beliefs, Values and Goals. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53, pp. 109-132.
- Epel, E.S., Bandura, A. & Zimbardo, P., (1999). Escaping homelessness: The influence of self-efficacy and time perspective on coping with homelessness. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 29, pp.575-596.
- Feather, N.T., (1992). Values, valences, expectations, and actions. *Journal of Social Issues* 48, pp. 109-124.
- Feather, N.T., (1995). Values, valences, and choice: the influence of values on the perceived attractiveness and choice of alternatives. *Journal of Personal and Social Psychology*, 86, pp. 1135-1151.
- Fetterman, D. M., (1989). *Ethnography: Step by Step*, Vol. 17, Applied Research Methods Series. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Fiet, J.O., Piskounov, A., & Gustafsson, V., (2000). How to decide how to search for entrepreneurial opportunities. *Frontiers of Entrepreneurship research* Babson University Press.
- Floren, H., (2005). Managerial Work and Learning in Small Firms. *Unpublished thesis Department of Project Management, Chalmers University of Technology, and School of Business and Engineering at Halmstad University, Sweden.*
- Ford, M.E., & Nichols, C.W., (1987). A taxonomy of human goals and some possible application. In M.E. Ford & D.H. Ford, (Eds.) *Humans as Self Constructing Living system: Putting the Framework to work*, pp. 289-311. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Fontana, A. & Frey, J.H. (1994). *Interviewing: The Art of Science*. In N.K.Denzin and Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Handbook of Qualitative Research*. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Franks, D.D. & Marolla, J., (1976). Efficacious action and social approval as interacting dimensions of self-esteem: A tentative formulation through construct validation. *Sociometry*, 39, pp. 324-341.
- Frederick, H.H., Kuratko, D.F. & Hodgetts, R.M., (2006). *Entrepreneurship: Theory, Process, Practice*. Melbourne, Australia: Thomson.
- Gartner, W. B., (1989). "Who Is an Entrepreneur?" Is the Wrong Question. *Entrepreneurship: Theory & Practice*, 13(4), pp. 47-68.
- Gartner, W.B., Bird, B.J. & Starr, J.A., (1992). Acting as if: Differentiating Entrepreneurial from Organizational Behaviour. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16(3), pp. 13-31.
- Gartner, W.B., Carter, N.M., Shaver, K.G., & Gatewood, E.J., (2003). The career reasons of nascent entrepreneurs. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18, pp. 13-39.

- Gartner, W. B., Carter, N. M., & Reynolds, P. D., (2004). Business Start-up Activities. In W. B. Gartner, K. G. Shaver, N. M. Carter, & P. D. Reynolds (Eds.), *Handbook of entrepreneurial dynamics* : pp. 285-298. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.
- Gatewood, E.J., Shaver, K.G., & Gartner, W.B., (1995), 'A longitudinal study of cognitive factors influencing start-up behaviours and success at venture creation', *Journal of Business Venturing*, 10, pp. 371-391.
- Gecas, V., (1982). The self-concept. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 8, pp. 1-33.
- Gecas V., (2000). Value identities, self-motives, and social movements. In S. Stryker, T.J. Owens, & R.W. White, (Eds.) *Self, Identity, and Social Movements*, pp. 93-109. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.
- Gecas, V. & Burke, P.J., (1995). Self and identity. In K.Cook, G.A. Fine and J.S.House (Eds.) *Sociological perspective son social psychology*, pp. 41-67, Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Giddens, A., (1976), *New Rules of Sociological Method* (1st Ed.), London, UK: Hutchinson.
- Giddens, A., (1991). *Modernity and Self-identity: Self and Society in the late Modern Age*. Cambridge, UK: Polity Press.
- Gilad, B., Kaish, S., & Ronen, J., (1989). Information search and entrepreneurship: a pilot study. *The Journal of Behavioural Economics*, 18(3), pp. 217-235.
- Gilder, G (1971), *The Spirit of Enterprise*, New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.
- Gimeno, J., Folta, T. B., Cooper, A. C., & Woo, C. Y., (1997). Survival of the fittest? Entrepreneurial human capital and the persistence of underperforming firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly* , 42, pp. 750-83.
- Gist, M.E., (1987). Self-efficacy: implications for organizational behaviour and human resource management. *Academy of Management Review*, 12, pp. 472-485.
- Goffman, E., (1959). *The presentation of Self in everyday life*. Garden City New York: Doubleday.
- Grolnick, W. S., & Ryan, R. M. (1989). Parent styles associated with children's self regulation and competence in schools. *Journal of Eductional Psychology*, 81, pp. 143 154.
- Guba, E.G., & Lincoln, Y.S., (1989). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*, (pp. 191-216). Thousand Oaks, CA, USA: Sage Publications.
- Gubrium, J.F., & Holstein, J., (2001). *Handbook of interviewing research*, Thousand Oaks, London, UK: Sage.
- Harper, D., (1996). *Entrepreneurship and the Market Process*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Harter, S., (1978). Effectance Motivation Reconsidered Toward a Developmental Model. *Human Development*, 21(1), pp. 34-64.

- Hebert, R., & Link, A., (1988). *The Entrepreneur: Mainstream Views and Radical Critiques*. New York, NY: Praeger.
- Hechter, M., (1992). Should values be written out of the social scientist's lexicon? *Sociological Theory*, 19, pp.214-230.
- Herron, L., & Sapienza, H.J., (1992). The entrepreneur and the initiation of new venture launch activities. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16: pp. 49-55.
- Herzberg, F., (1966). *Work and the Nature of Man*. Cleveland, OH: World.
- Hetts, J.J., Sakuma, M., & Pelham, B.W., (1999). Two Roads to Positive Regard: Implicit and Explicit Self-Evaluation and Culture. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 35(6), pp. 512-559.
- Hewitt, J.P., (1997). *Self and Society: a Symbolic Interactionist Social Psychology*, (7th Ed) Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Higgs, J., (2001). Charting standpoints in Qualitative Research. In H. Byrne-Armstrong, J.Higgs & D. Horsfall (Eds.), *Critical Moments in Qualitative Research*, pp. 44-67, Oxford, UK: Butterworth Heinemann.
- Hinchman, L.P., & Hinchman, S.K., (2001). *Memory, Identity, Community: The idea of narrative in the human sciences*. New York: State University of New York Press.
- Hitchcock, L., (2006). *Methodology in computing education: a focus on experiences*. Proc. 19th Annual NACCQ Conference, 7-10 July, Wellington New Zealand.
- Hitlin, S., (2003). Values as the core of personal identity: drawing links between two theories of the self. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 66, pp. 118-137.
- Hofstede, G., (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (1994), "Defining culture and its four dimensions", *European Forum for Management Development: Focus: Cross-cultural Management*, Vol. 94 No.1, pp.4.
- Hofstede, G (1996), *Cultures and Organisations*, London, UK: Harper Collins.
- Hofstede, G (2001), *Culture's Consequences: Comparing values, behaviours institutions and organizations across nations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Holt, D.H., (1997). A Comparative Study of values amongst Chinese and US entrepreneurs: Pragmatic convergence between contrasting cultures. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 12(6), pp. 483-505.
- Houston, J.P., & Mednick, S.A., (1963). Creativity and the need for novelty. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 66(2), pp. 137-141.
- Howard, J.A., (1995). Social cognition. In Cook, K.S, Fine, & G.A., House, J.S., (Eds.), *Sociological Perspectives on Social Psychology*, pp.90-117, Needham Heights, MA: Allyn Bacon.

- Ibarra, H., (1999). Provisional selves: Experimenting with image and identity in professional adaptation. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44(4): pp. 764-791.
- Jones, C., (2002). Foucault's Inheritance/Inheriting Foucault. *Culture and Organization*, 8(3): pp. 225–38.
- Kanfer, R., (1990). Motivation Theory and Industrial and Organizational psychology. In Dunnette, M.D. and Hough, L.M. (Eds.) *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Consulting Psychologists Press: Palo Alto, CA, pp. 75-170.
- Kanfer, R., (1994). Work motivation: New directions in theory and research. In Cooper, C.L. and Robertson, I.T. (Eds.) *Key reviews in Managerial Psychology*, Wiley: New York, NY., pp. 158-188.
- Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M., (1993). Further examining the American dream: differential correlates of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 22, pp. 280-287.
- Kasser, T., Ryan, R. M., Zax, M., & Sameroff, A. J. (1995). The relations of maternal and social environments to late adolescents' materialistic and prosocial values. *Developmental Psychology*, 31, pp. 907–914.
- Kasser, T., (2002). Sketches for a Self-determination theory of values, in E. L. Deci and R. M. Ryan (eds.), *Handbook of Self-Determination Research* (University of Rochester Press, Rochester, NY), pp. 123–140.
- Khanna, S., & Kasser, T., (1999). Materialism, objectification, and alienation from a cross-cultural perspective. Unpublished manuscript.
- Kilby, P., (1971). Hunting the Heffalump. In P.Kilby (Ed.) *Entrepreneurship and Economic Development*, pp. 1-40. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Kirkwood, J., (2007). Tall Poppy Syndrome: Implications for entrepreneurship in New Zealand. *Journal of Management and Organization*, 13, pp. 366-382.
- Kirsch, I., (1999). *How expectancies shape behaviour*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- Kirzner, I (1979), *Perception, Opportunity and Profit Studies in the Theory of Entrepreneurship*, Chicago, IL: London University of Chicago Press.
- Kirzner, I., (1997). Entrepreneurial discovery and the competitive market process: An Austrian approach. *The Journal of Economic Literature*, 35, pp. 60-85.
- Kluckhohn, C., (1951). Values and value orientations in the theory of action. In Parsons, T., & Shils, E.A. (Eds.), *Toward a General Theory of Action*, pp. 388-433, New York: Harper.
- Klepper, S., & Sleeper, S., (2000). Entry by spin-offs, working paper, Carnegie Mellon University, USA.
- Knoblich, G., & Flach, R., (2001). Predicting the Effects of Actions: Interactions of Perception and Action. *Psychological Science*, 12(6), pp. 467-472.

- Kogan, N., & Wallach, M.A., (1964). *Risk taking: a study in cognition and personality*. Oxford, England: Holt, Reinhart & Winston.
- Kohn, M.L., & Schooler, C., (1983). *Work and personality: an enquiry into the impact of social stratification*. Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Kolvereid, L., (1996). 'Organizational employment versus self-employment: reasons for career choice intentions', *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 20(3), pp. 23-31.
- Kreuger, N.F., (2007). What Lies Beneath? The experiential essence of entrepreneurial thinking. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* 31(1), pp. 123-139.
- Kreuger, N.F., Reilly, M.D., & Carsud, A.L., (2000). Competing Models of Entrepreneurial Intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15, pp. 411-432.
- Kristof, A. L., (1996). Person–organization fit: an integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49(1), pp. 1–49.
- Kuhn, T. S., (1952). *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Kuratko, D.F., (2008). *Entrepreneurship: Theory, Process and Practice, (8th Ed.)*. Mason, Ohio: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Kuratko, D.F., Naffziger, D.W., & Hornsby, J.S., (1993). An examination of owner's goals in sustaining entrepreneurship. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 35, pp. 24-41.
- Landy, F.J., (1989). *Psychology of Work Behaviour*, 4th Ed, Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Larsson, J. & Holmstrom, I., (2007). Phenomenographic or phenomenological analysis: does it matter? Examples from a study on anaesthesiologists' work. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies on Health and Well-being*, 2(1), pp. 55-64.
- Lipset, S.M., (2000). Values and Entrepreneurship in the Americas, pp. 110-128. In R. Swedburg, (Ed.) *Entrepreneurship: The Social Science View*, London: Oxford University Press.
- Litzinger, W.D., (1961). Entrepreneurial Prototype in Bank Management: A Comparative Study of Branch Bank Managers. *The Journal of the Academy of Management*, pp. 39-45.
- Loasby, B., (2002). *Knowledge, Institutions and Evolution in Economics*. New York, NY: Routledge
- Locke, E. A., (1968). Toward a theory of task motivation and incentives. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 3, pp. 157-189.
- Locke, E.A., & Latham, G.P., (1990). *A theory of goal setting and task performance*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Louis, M. R., (1980). Surprise and sense making: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 25: pp. 226-251.

- Low, M. B., & MacMillan, I. C., (1988). Entrepreneurship: past research and future challenges. *Journal of Management* 14, pp. 139-161.
- Maddi, S. R., (1961). Affective tone during environmental regularity and change. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 1961, 62, pp. 338-345.
- Maddux, J.E., (1999b). Expectancies and the social-cognitive perspective: Basic principles, processes and variables. In I. Kirsch (Ed.), *How expectancies shape behaviour*. Washington DC: American Psychological Association.
- Maddux, J.E., & Gosselin, J.T., (2003). Self-Efficacy. In M.R.Leary and J.P. Tangney (Eds). *Handbook of Self and Identity*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Mahoney, J. T., & Michael, S. C., (2005). 'A subjectivist theory of entrepreneurship'. In Alvarez, S. A., Agarwal, R. & Sorenson, O. (Eds), *Handbook of Entrepreneurship*, pp. 33-53. Boston, MA: Kluwer.
- Malone, T. W., & Lepper, M. R. (1987). Making learning fun: A taxonomy of intrinsic motivations for learning. In R. E. Snow & M. J. Farr (Eds.), *Aptitude, learning, and instruction: III. Conative and affective process analyses* (pp. 223-253). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Markman, G.D., & Baron, G.D., (2003). Beyond social capital: the role of entrepreneurs' social competence in their financial success. *Journal of Business Venturing* 18(1): pp. 41-60.
- Markman, G., Phan, P., Balkin, D. & Gianiodis, P., (2005). Entrepreneurship and university-based technology transfer. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 20: pp. 241-264.
- Martin, J.E., & Marshall, L.H., (1995). Choice Maker: A comprehensive self-determination transition program. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 30, 147-156.
- Marton, F., (1981). Phenomenography – Describing conceptions of the world around us. *Instructional Science*, 10, pp. 177-200.
- Marton, F., (1986). Phenomenography: A research approach to investigating different understandings of reality, pp. 141-161. In R.R. Sherman & R.B. Webb, *Qualitative Research in Education*, New York: Routledge.
- Marton, F., & Booth, S., (1997). *Learning and Awareness* New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum
- Marton, F., & Pang, M.F., (1999). Two faces of variation. Paper presented at the *8th European Conference for Learning and Instruction*, Gottenborg, Sweden, August 24–28.
- Maslow, A.H., (1959). *Motivation and Personality*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Mason, J., (2002b). *Qualitative Researching*. London, UK: Sage
- McBride, M., (1989). A Foucauldian Analysis of Mathematical Discourse. *For the Learning of Mathematics*, 9, 1, pp.40-46
- McCall, G.J. & Simmons, J.L., (1978). *Identities and interactions: An Examination of Human Associations in Everyday Life*. New York: Free Press.

- McClelland, D.C., Atkinson, J.W., Clark, R.A., & Lowell, E.L., (1953). *The achievement motive*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts.
- McClelland, D.C., (1961). *The Achieving Society*. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand Reinhold.
- McConnell, D., (1996). *Complexity, harmony and diversity of learning in collaborative e-learning continuing professional development groups*. Brighton, Uk: Falmer Press.
- McGrath, I., MacMillan, R.G., Yang, E.A., & Tsai, W., (1992). Does culture endure, or is it malleable? Issues for entrepreneurial economic development. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 7(6), 441-458.
- McKelvey, W., (2004). Toward a complexity science of entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 19(3), pp. 313-341.
- McLaughlin, B., (1965). "Intentional" and "incidental" learning in human subjects: The role of instructions to learn and motivation. *Psychological Bulletin*, 63(5), pp. 359-376.
- Merton, R.K., (1957). *Social Theory and Social Structure*. Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press.
- Merton, R. K., (1957). Priorities in scientific discovery: a chapter in the sociology of science. *American Sociological Review*, 22: pp. 635-659.
- Michener, H.A., DeLamater, J., & Meyers, D., (2004). *Social Psychology* (5th Ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Miner, J.B., (1997). *A psychological typology of successful entrepreneurs*. London, UK: Quorum Books.
- Mischel, W., (1973). Toward a cognitive social learning re-conceptualization of personality. *Psychological Review*, 80, pp.252-284.
- Mitchell, R.K., Smith, B., Seawright, K.W., & Morse, E.A., (2000). Cross-Cultural Cognitions and the Venture Creation Decision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(5), pp. 974-993.
- Morris, C.W., (1956). *Varieties of Human Value*. Chiucago, IL: Univrsity of Chicago Press.
- Morris, M.H., (1998). *Entrepreneurial intensity: sustainable advantages for individuals*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing.
- Morris, M., & Schindhutte, M., (2005). Entrepreneurial Values and the Ethnic Enterprise: An Examination of Six Subcultures. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 43(4), pp. 453-479.
- Morrison, A., Rimmington, M, & Williamson, C., (1998a), *Entrepreneurship in the Hospitality Industry*, Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Morrison, A., (2000) International Professional Development Programme: Quality and Impact Assessment, Scottish Tourism Research Unit, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, Scotland.
- Mouly, V.S., & Sankaran, J., (2002). The enactment of envy within organizations. *The Journal of Applied Behavioural Science* 38(1): pp. 36-56.

- Murnieks, C.Y. & Mosakowski, E.M., (2007). Who am I? Looking inside the entrepreneurial identity. Unpublished dissertation, University of Boulder, Colorado, USA.
- Mussweiler, T., (2003). Comparison processes in Social Judgement: Mechanisms and Consequences. *Psychological Review*, 110(3), pp. 472-489.
- Naffziger, D.W., J.S. Hornsby, & D.F. Kuratko. (1994). A Proposed Research Model of Entrepreneurial Motivation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* 19, pp. 29-42.
- Ostrom, T.M., (1968). Interdependence of Attitude Theory and Measurement. In **A.R. Pratkanis, S. J. Breckler, & A.G. Greenwald, (Eds).** *Attitude structure and function*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Palich, L.E., & Bagby, D., (1995). Using cognitive theory to explain entrepreneurial risk-taking: challenging conventional wisdom. *Journal Of Business Venturing*, 10(6), 425-443.
- Parker, S, Brown, R, Child, J, Smith, M (1972). *The Sociology of Industry*, London, UK: George Allen and Unwin.
- Purkey, W. W., & Schmidt, J. J., (1987). *The inviting relationship: An expanded perspective for professional counselling*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Purkey, W. W., & Stanley, P. H., (1991). *Invitational teaching, learning and living*. Washington, DC: National Education Association.
- Rauch, A., & Frese, M., (2007). Let's put the person back into entrepreneurship research: A meta-analysis on the relationship between business owner's personality traits, business creation and success. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 16(4), pp.353-385.
- Reeve, J., Bolt, E., & Cai, Y., (1999). Autonomy Supportive Teachers: How they teach and motivate students. *Journal of Education Psychology*, 91(3), pp. 537-548.
- Roccas, S., Sagive, L.S., Schwartz, S.H., & Knafo, A., (2002). The big five personality factors and personal values. *Personal and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28, pp.789-801.
- Rokeach, M., (1967). *Value Survey*. Sunnyvale, CA: Halgren Tests.
- Rokeach, M., (1973). *The Nature of Human Values*. New York: Free Press.
- Rogers, C.R., (1964). Toward a modern approach to values: The valuing process in the mature person. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 68, pp. 160-167.
- Romanelli, E., & Schoonhoven, K., (2001) The local origins of new firms, in K.Schoonhoven & E. Romanelli (Eds), *The Entrepreneurial Dynamic*, Stanford, US: Stanford University Press, pp. 40-67.
- Rosenburg, M., (1979). *Conceiving the self*. New York: Basic Books.
- Ryan, R. M. (1982). Control and information in the intrapersonal sphere: An extension of cognitive evaluation theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43, pp. 450-461.

- Ryan, R.M., (1995). Psychological needs and the facilitation of integrative processes. *Journal of Personality*, 63, pp.397-427.
- Ryan, R. M., & Grolnick, W. S., (1986). Origins and pawns in the classroom: Self-report and projective assessments of individual differences in children's perceptions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50, pp. 550–558.
- Ryan, R.M., & Connell, J.P., (1989). Perceived Locus of Causality and Internalization: Examining reasons for acting in two domains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, pp. 749-761.
- Ryan, R. M., Deci, E. L., & Grolnick, W. S. (1995). Autonomy, relatedness, and the self: Their relation to development and psychopathology. In D. Cicchetti & D. J. Cohen (Eds.), *Developmental psychopathology: Theory and methods* (pp. 618–655). New York: Wiley.
- Ryan, R. M., Kuhl, J., & Deci, E. L., (1997). Nature and autonomy: Organizational view of social and neurobiological aspects of self-regulation in behaviour and development. *Development and Psychopathology*, 9, pp. 701–728.
- Ryan, R.M., & Deci, E.L., (2000). Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivations: Classic Definitions and New Directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25, pp. 54-67.
- [Saljo](#), R., (1996). Mental and physical artifacts in cognitive practices, In P. Reimann, & H. Spada (Eds.), *Learning in Humans and Machines*. UK: Pergamon.
- Sarasvathy, S., Simon, H., & Lave, L., (1998). Perceiving and managing business risks: Differences between entrepreneurs and bankers. *Journal of Economic Behaviour and Organization*, 33, pp. 207-225.
- Sarasvathy, S., (2001). Causation and effectuation: Toward a theoretical shift from economic inevitability to entrepreneurial contingency. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(2), pp. 243-263.
- Sarasvathy, S. D., (2005). 'What makes Entrepreneurs Entrepreneurial?'. *Unpublished article* University of Virginia Darden School Foundation Charlottesville Virginia.
- Scheibe, K. E., (1970). *Beliefs and Values*. Oxford, England: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Schuman, H., (1995). Attitudes, beliefs and behavior. In Cook, K.S., Fine, G.A., House, J.S., (Eds.). *Sociological Perspectives on Social Psychology*, pp. 68–89, Needham Heights, MA: Allyn Bacon.
- Schumpeter, J. A., (1934). *The Theory of Economic development: An Inquiry into Profits, Capital Credit, Interest and the Business Cycle*. Cambridge, MA, USA: Harvard University Press.
- Schumpeter, J. A., (1942). *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy*. New York, NY: Routledge
- Schumpeter, J.A., (1950). *Capitalism, Socialism and Democracy (3rd Ed)*. New York: Harper Row.
- Schwartz, S.H., (1990). Individualism / Collectivism: Critique and proposed refinements. *Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology*, 21, pp. 139-157.

- Schwartz, S.H., (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries, In M.P. Zanna, (Ed), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, pp. 1-65. San Diego, CA: Academic.
- Schwartz, S.H., (1994). Are there universal aspects in the structure and content of human values? *Journal of Social Issues* 50, pp. 19-45.
- Schwartz, S.H., (1996). Value priorities and behaviour: applying a theory of integrated value systems. See Seligman et al. 1996, pp. 1– 24.
- Schwartz, S.H., (2004b). Mapping and interpreting cultural differences around the world. In H. Vinken, J. Soeters, & P. Ester (Eds.), *Comparing Cultures, Dimensions of Culture in a Comparative Perspective*, Leiden, The Netherlands: Brill.
- Schwartz, S.H., & Bardi, A., (1997). Values and adaptation to communist rule. *Political Psychology*, 18, pp. 385-410.
- Schwartz, S.H., & Bardi, A., (2001). Value hierarchies across cultures: taking a similarities perspective. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 32: pp. 268-90.
- Schwartz, S.H., & Bilsky, W., (1987). Toward a psychological structure of human values. *Journal of Personal and Social Psychology*, 53, pp. 550-62.
- Schwartz, S.H., & Bilsky, W., (1990). Toward a psychological structure of human values: extensions and cross-cultural replications. *Journal of Personal and Social Psychology*, 58, pp. 878-91
- Segal, G., Borgia, D., & Schoenfeld, J., (2005). The motivation to become an entrepreneur. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behaviour & Research* 11(1), pp. 42-57.
- Sellers, R.M., Smith, M.A., Shelton, J.N., Rowley, S.A.J., & Chavous, T.M., (1998). Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity: A Re-conceptualization of African American Racial Identity. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 2, pp. 18-39.
- Shane, S., (2000). Prior Knowledge and the Discovery of Entrepreneurial Opportunities, *Organization Science* 11(4), pp. 448-469.
- Shane, S., (2003). *A General Theory of Entrepreneurship: The Individual-Opportunity Nexus*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited
- Shane, S., Locke, E., & Collins, C.J., (2003). Entrepreneurial Motivation. *Human Resource Management Review*, 3(2), pp.257-280.
- Shane, S. & Khurana, R., (2003). Bringing individuals back in: the effects of career experience on new firm founding. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 12: pp. 519-543.
- Shane, S., Kolvereid, L., & Westhead, P., (1991). An exploratory examination of the reasons leading to new firm formation across the country and gender. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 6, pp.431-446.

- Shane, S., & Venkataraman, S., (2000). The promise of entrepreneurship as a field of research. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 25: pp. 217-226.
- Shaver, K.G., & Scott, L.R., (1991). Person, process, choice: the psychology of new venture creation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 16(2), pp.23-45.
- Smith, N.R., (1967). *The entrepreneur and his firm: The relationship between type of man and type of company*. East Lansing, MI Bureau of Business and Economic Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Michigan State University.
- Spates, J.L., (1983). The sociology of values. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 9, pp.27-49.
- Spoonley, P., Du Puis, A., & De Bruin, A., (2004). *Work and working in the 21st Century New Zealand*. Palmerston North, New Zealand: Dunmore Press
- Stainton, T., (2000) The First International Conference On Self Determination and Individualised Funding Seattle, July 29-31 2000.
- Stern, P.C., Dietz, T., & Kalof, L., (1993). Value Orientations, Gender, and Environmental Concern. *Environment and Behaviour*, 25(5), pp. 322-348.
- Stets, J.E., & Burke, P.J., (2000). Identity theory and Social identity theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 59, pp.193-220.
- Strauss, A. & Corbin, J., (1994). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and procedures for developing Grounded Theory*. (2nd Ed.), London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J., (1998). *Basics of Qualitative Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stryker, S., (1980). *Symbolic Interactionism: A Social Structural version*. Menlo Park, California: Benjamin-Cummings.
- Stryker, S., & Burke, P.J., (2000). The Past, Present and Future of an Identity Theory. *Social Psychology Quarterly* 63, pp. 284-297.
- Tajfel, H., (1981). *Human Groups and Social Categories: Studies in Social Psychology*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J.C., (1979). 'An integrative theory of intergroup conflict', pp. 33-47. In W.G. Austin and S. Worchel, (Eds.) *Psychology of Intergroup Relations*. Monterey CA: Brookes & Cole.
- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J.C., (1986). 'An integrative theory of intergroup conflict', pp. 7-24. In W.G. Austin and S. Worchel, (Eds.) *Psychology of Intergroup Relations (2nd Ed.)*. Chicago: Nelson-Hall.
- Tayeb, M., (1988). *Organisations and National Culture*, London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Thoits, P.A., (2001). *Personal Agency in the accumulation of role identities*. Paper presented at the 'Future of Identity Theory and Research: A Guide for a New Century' conference, Bloomington, Indiana, USA.

- Thomas, R.M., & Brubaker, D.L., (2008) *Theses and Dissertations: A guide to planning, research and writing (2nd ed.)*, Thousand Oaks, California: Corwin Press.
- Thurstone, L.L., (1931). Measurement of Change in Social Attitude. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 2, pp. 230-235.
- Tolich, M. & Davidson, C., (1999). *Starting fieldwork: An introduction to qualitative research in New Zealand*. London, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Trochim, W.M.K., (2006). Research Methods Knowledge Base. Retrieved from <http://www.socialresearchmethods.net/kb/index.php>, 28th July, 2009.
- Trompenaars, F., (1993), *Riding the Waves of Culture*, New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Trompenaars, F., & Hampden – Turner, C., (1998). *Riding the waves of Culture (2nd Ed)*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Uljens, M., (1996). On the philosophical foundation of phenomenography. In G. Dall’Alba and B. Hasselgren (Eds.) *Reflections on Phenomenography: Toward a methodology?* Gothenburg: Sweden: Acta Universitatis Gothenburgensis.
- Utsch, A., & Rauch, A., (2000). Innovativeness and initiative as mediators between achievement orientation and venture performance. [European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology](#), 9(1), pp. 45 – 62.
- United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), 2004.
- Van der Horst, H (1996), *The Low Sky: Understanding the Dutch*, Scriptum, Den Haag.
- Van Gelderen, M., & Jansen, P., (2006). Autonomy as a start-up motive. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise development*, 13(1), pp.23-32.
- Van Manen, M., (1990). *Researching Lived Experience*. New York: State University of New York Press.
- Van Vianen, A. E. M., (2000). Person–organization fit: the match between newcomers’ and recruiters’ preferences for organizational cultures. *Personnel Psychology*, 53, pp. 113–149.
- Veblen, T., (1919). *The Place of Science in Modern Civilization and Other Essay*. New York: B.W.Huebsch.
- Venkataramen, S., (1997). The distinctive domain of entrepreneurship research: An editor’s perspective. In J. Katz and R. Brockhaus, (Eds). *Advances in Entrepreneurship, Firm Emergence and Growth*. 3, Greenwich, CT: JAI Press, pp. 119-138.
- Verplanken, B., & Holland, R.W. (2002). Motivated decision making: effects of activation and self-centrality of values on choices and behaviour. *Journal of Personal and Social Psychology*, 82, pp. 434-47.
- Vesper, K.H., (1980). *New Venture Strategies*. Engelwood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

- Von Hippel, E., (1986). Lead Users: a source of novel product concepts. *Management Science*, 32(7), pp. 791-805.
- Vroom, V., (1964). *Work and Motivation*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- www.stats.govt.nz
- Warren, L., (2004). Negotiating entrepreneurial identity - Communities of practice and changing discourses. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship & Innovation*, 5(1): pp. 25-35.
- Warwick, D.P., (1973). Tearoom Trade: Means & Ends in Social Research. *The Hastings Centre Studies*, 1(1), pp. 27-38.
- Watson, G., (1964). *Social Psychology: Issues and insights*. Philadelphia, USA: Lippincott Publishing.
- Weber, M. (1976), *The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism*, London, UK: Allen and Unwin.
- Wehmeyer, M.L., (1992). Self-determination and the education of students with mental retardation. *Education and Training in Mental Retardation*, 27, pp. 302-314.
- Wehmeyer, M.L. (1996a). Self-determination as an educational outcome: Why is it important to children, youth and adults with disabilities? In D.J. Sands & M.L. Wehmeyer (Eds.), *Self-determination across the life span: Independence and choice for people with disabilities*, pp. 15-34. Baltimore, IL: Paul H. Brookes.
- White, R. W. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: The concept of competence. *Psychological Review*, 66, pp. 297-333.
- Whyte, W.F., (1981). *Street Corner Society* (3rdEd.), Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Williams, R.M. Jr., (1979). Change and stability in values and value systems: a sociological perspective. In Rokeach, M., (Ed), *Understanding Human Values: Individual and Societal*. pp. 15-46 New York, USA: Free Press.
- Williams, S.L. (1995). Self-efficacy, anxiety and phobic disorders. In J.E. Maddux (Ed.), *Self-efficacy, adaptation and adjustment: Theory, research and application*. (pp. 69-107). New York: Plenum Press.
- Wilson, F., Marlino, D., & Kickul, J., (2004). 'Our entrepreneurial future: examining the diverse attitudes and motivations of teens across gender and ethnic identity', *Journal of Developmental Entrepreneurship*, 9(3), pp. 177-197.
- Wood, R. & Bandura, A., (1989). Social Cognitive Theory of Organizational Management. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(3), pp. 361-384.
- Zimmer, C., & Aldrich, H., (1987). Resource mobilization through ethnic networks: Kinship and friendship ties of shopkeepers in England. *Sociological perspectives*, 30(4), pp. 422-455.
- Zimmerman, M.A., (1990). Toward a theory of learned hopefulness: A structural model analysis of participation and empowerment. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 24, pp. 71-86.

Appendix A.

Entrepreneurial Values Survey

Hi, I'm a student at Massey University and I'm conducting research into the values (beliefs) entrepreneurs have and how these influence their behaviour and capacity to identify opportunities. Entrepreneurship has long been recognized as a 'values-driven' process (by values I mean basic personal beliefs). Recent research trends have focused on entrepreneurial behaviour and its cognitive components as possible ways of discovering what is unique about an individual's ability to identify and exploit opportunities.

This study involves an examination of the role personally held values (beliefs) play in the decision making process leading up to recognizing or creating an entrepreneurial business opportunity. You are invited to participate based on your demonstrated entrepreneurial behaviour in a commercial environment.

Please use your mouse or TAB key to move between the options.

Date:

Gender: Click to pick an option

Your age group: Click to pick an option

Entrepreneurial experience: Click to pick an option

Question 1: *How would you describe yourself as an entrepreneur to others?*

Question 2: *What behaviours do you associate with someone acting entrepreneurially?*

Question 3: *What fundamental beliefs / values do you have about being entrepreneurial? **(5 at most)***

Question 4: *How do these beliefs / values convert into everyday behaviour?*

Question 5: *How do these fundamental beliefs / values influence your perceptions of an entrepreneurial opportunity?*

Question 6: *What knowledge and skills are necessary for an individual to behave entrepreneurially?*

Question 7: *How do you determine whether an individual has the capacity to behave entrepreneurially?*

APPENDIX B

Screening Questionnaire

Full name:

Date:

Age:

Gender:

What is your business' name:

What is the nature of your business:

Industry sector:

Annual T/O:

What is the legal structure of your business:

How long have you had this business:

What product or service did you found this business on:

How many employees do you have at present:

Other comment: