An exploratory analysis of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in public and third sector organisations

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ABSTRACT

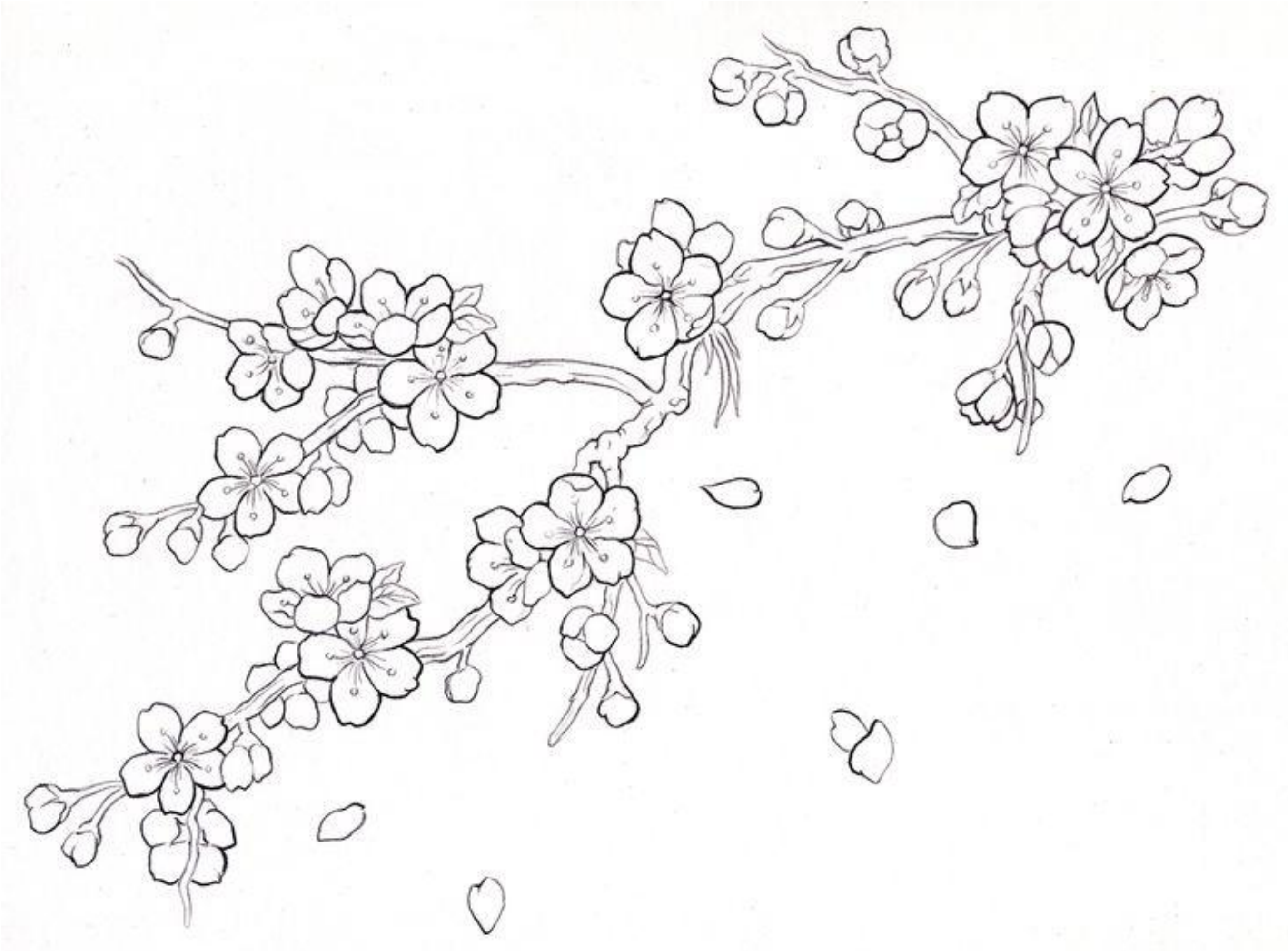
Given the prolonged recession, rigid austerity programmes and growing pressures to innovate, organisations are increasingly obliged to harness the entrepreneurial potential of their employees/volunteers. This is particularly the case for public sector, voluntary sector, and community and enterprise organisations. Therefore, interest in stimulating and supporting more entrepreneurial behaviour has significantly grown in public and not-for-profit sector literature. However, literature specifically pertaining to this issue is relevantly scarce (Kraus, 2013). Prior research concerned with entrepreneurial practices in public and voluntary sectors was mostly focused on organisational characteristics and the holistic view on being more entrepreneurial, as opposed to examining entrepreneurial orientation at employee and volunteer levels.

This study is to some extent unique, as it delves into variables that were rarely studied in the past. It comprises of respondents' past entrepreneurial experiences and the extent to which they can be entrepreneurial within their respective organisations. Thus, by adopting a different level of analysis and exploring employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) this research offers a magnitude for richer understating of how employees/volunteers can contribute to the EO of public sector, voluntary sector, and community and enterprise organisations.

The research involved administering an online survey to employees and/or volunteers working in public sector, voluntary, and social enterprise organisation in six regions/countries Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, (South-East) Ireland, Portugal, and Sicily. A total of 450 people completed and returned the survey, representing 216 organisations. The methodology was a quantitative analysis using manual techniques. A major finding from this research is that there appears to be a link between (i) employees/volunteers that have entrepreneurial experience (external to the organisation in which they are currently working/volunteering), (ii) the degree to which they are enabled to be entrepreneurial within their organisations, and (iii) the degree to which employees/volunteers behave entrepreneurially within their organisations. This study contributes to existing research on and to a deeper and broader understanding of entrepreneurial behaviour of employees/volunteers in public sector, voluntary, and social enterprise organisations.

Key words: entrepreneurial orientation (EO), intrapreneurship, entrepreneurial behaviour and attributes, innovation, public sector and third sector organisation

DEDICATION



This Thesis is dedicated to the loving memory of Victoria ("Bobbi") whose love has made impossible things possible....

"Entrepreneurship is much broader than the creation of a new business venture. At its core, it is a mindset – a way of thinking and acting. Fundamentally, entrepreneurship is about opportunity"

- Bruce Bachenheimer

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis is entirely my own work and is being submitted in the fulfilment of the requirement for the Award of Masters of Business by Research at the Management and Organisation Department at Waterford Institute of Technology.

The matter embodied in this thesis has not been submitted to any other University or Institution for the award of degree. This information is purely of the academic interests.

Anna Rogowska

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After an intensive period of 24 months, today is the day: writing this note of thanks is the finishing touch on my thesis. I would like to reflect on the people who have assisted, supported and helped me so much throughout this research process. Firstly, this thesis would have remained a dream without the attention and feedback of my supervisor Prof. Bill O'Gorman, who was abundantly helpful and offered invaluable guidance, support and patience that made this thesis happen. Thank You Bill! I also wish to portray my sincere thank you to Dr. Valerie Brett who supported me greatly and was always willing to help me throughout this research journey.

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To describe this current research experience, I use the following expression:

> *"I do not know what I may appear to the world, but to myself I seem to have been only like a boy playing on the sea-shore, and diverting myself in now and then finding a smoother pebble or a prettier shell than ordinary, whilst the great ocean of truth lay all undiscovered before me."*

— Isaac Newton

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Introduction

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Chapter overview

The purpose of this thesis is to gain a greater understanding of the entrepreneurial behaviour of employees/volunteers in public and third sector organisations. Therefore, the overarching aim of this research is to better understand employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO). This will be achieved through understanding their behaviours at work, identifying the entrepreneurial background (past experiences), and by ascertaining the organisations' EO, in which they are currently employed.

EO was originally concerned with assessment of behaviour at the organisational level (Miller, 1983). Hence, it was conceptualised to describe the extent to which organisations display innovative, risky and proactive behaviours (Andersen, 2011), or at least exhibit dispositions towards such behaviours (Covin and Lumpkin, 2011). Most of previous studies concerned with entrepreneurial orientation (EO) suggested that EO enhances organisational performance (Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin, and Frese, 2009; Green, Covin and Slevin, 2006; Lumpkin and Dess, 2001) and that it also positively contributes to a firm's competiveness and product innovation (Moreno and Casillas, 2008). Although the concept of EO has been predominantly studied in relation to organisation's performance, it has also been argued that EO can be studied at the individual level (Jelenc, Pisapia and Ivanusic, 2015; Bolton and Lane, 2012; Okhomina, 2010).

Moreover, Covin and Lumpkin (2011) conceptualised entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in terms of organisation-level attributes that entail dispositions and non-observable aspects of EO, such as culture, climate, entrepreneurial mind-set or entrepreneurial dominant logic (Covin and Slevin, 1991). Entrepreneurial attributes are intangible, durable and long-lasting characteristics, that are usually difficult to change or influence by education or environment (Gibb and Hannon, 2006; Van Der Kuip and Verheul, 2004). EO could therefore be an important indicator of the way in which an organisation is structured (Altinay and Wang, 2011) and how it interacts with the external market , as well as what role-expectations it addresses towards their employees (Floyd and Lane, 2000, cited in Wakkee, Elfring and Monahan, 2010). Thus, this study also ascertains the organisations' EO to better understand whether their environment facilitates or impedes employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial endeavours (behaviours) at work.

To discern the EO of organisations, this current research explores the freedom and encouragement of employees/volunteers to pursue opportunities in their areas of work. It also examines whether they initiated or improved services, processes or procedures within their workplace. Understanding the EO of organisations highlights how entrepreneurial the work environment is and how that can facilitate/impede the entrepreneurial behaviour of employees/volunteers. Moreover, this research also enquires about EO attributes[1] and about the respondents' opinion as to whether their respective organisations require them to behave entrepreneurially at work. Entrepreneurial attributes were used in previous research (Covin and Lumpkin, 2011; Gibb and Hannon, 2006; Van der Kuip and Verheul, 2004) to describe both individuals and their behaviours.

This chapter proceeds as follows. The initial part discusses the rationale for undertaking the current research, followed by the research question, the conceptual framework and key objectives of the current study. Secondly, the overall layout of this thesis is presented in a framework, accompanied by a brief description of the content of each chapter presented in the framework (see Figure 1.2). Finally, the main limitations, benefits and contributions of the current study are identified.

1.2 Research context

This research was as a result of the researcher working on the FIERE (Furthering Innovative and Entrepreneurial Regions in Europe) project (from January 2014 until December 2015). The FIERE project was a European-led project funded under

[1] EO attributes used in this research include: [(respondents to be) resourceful; resilient; open-minded; self-confident; creative/innovative and passionate about work

GRUNDTVIG GMP[2] being part of the "Life Long Learning" initiative. The FIERE partnership included members from different regions within six European countries including Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Sicily. The author was one of the people, working on the project as a part of Irish partnership. The primary aim of the project was to support regional organisations' employees from public, community and enterprise and voluntary sectors to behave more innovatively and entrepreneurially within their work environment. Furthermore, another aim of the FIERE project was to design and implement an entrepreneurship training programme in each of the partner regions/countries to enhance the capability of employees/volunteers to behave more entrepreneurially at work.

The research question that evolved for this study, "*An exploratory analysis of employees/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation in public and their sector organisations*" coincided with the FIERE project's background and objectives. Having established the research problem and explaining the context of this research, the next section provides rationale and motivation for undertaking this research.

1.3 Rationale for this study

Zampetakis and Moustakis (2010) suggested that there is an increased interest in studying entrepreneurial behaviour within existing organisations. Entrepreneurial behaviour within organisations (also called intrapreneurship) was defined as a vehicle for organisational change, improved performance and customer value-added services (Jong and Wennekers, 2008; Zampetakis, Bledekos and Moustakis, 2009).
It was also regarded as an important prerequisite to innovation (Kearney, Hisrich and Roche, 2008), contributing to greater opportunities within the workplace and betterment of service delivery to the public.

Moreover, an increased demand for third sector services (in the context of prolonged recession), compounded with limited funding and increased costs associated with managing their domains compels third sector organisations and their staff to behave entrepreneurially (Grover and Piggott, 2012; Anheiner, 2004). In addition, Defourny

[2] (FIERE) Project Number: 540477-LLP-1-2013-IE- GRUNDTVIG-GMP

and Nyssens (2010) highlighted that, there appears to be limited conceptual debates regarding the role of social enterprise (or third sector) organisations within the overall economy and in particular, its relationship with the market, with the civil society, and public policies. Yet, their relationship is especially important, when embedded in their regional or local contexts (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010).

In turn, the public sector faces challenges such as tight expenditure for labour and resources, growing public distrust, though austerity programmes (Sweeney, 2012) as well as growing expectations in providing more innovative services (Bysted and Hansen, 2015). Coping with such conditions may require organisations and their employees/volunteers to display special capabilities, internal resources or behaviours such as innovativeness, flexibility or adaptability (Lukeš, 2012). This encompasses behaviour in established organisations performed by employees at all levels including small and large organisations (Wakkee, Elfring and Monaghan, 2010; Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990, Drucker, 1985). Moreover, previous literature suggested that entrepreneurial behaviour can be conceptualised at both organisational (Covin and Slevin, 1991) and individual levels (Bolton and Lane, 2012). For instance, Kraus (2013) asserted that, entrepreneurial behaviour "*is becoming increasingly important for all firms, regardless of size, age, or industry sector*" (p. 2).

According to many (Kuratko, Ireland, Covin and Hornsby, 2005; Morris and Jones, 1999; Kanter, 1984) entrepreneurial behaviour may infuse larger organisations with the flexibility and adaptability, and competitiveness; the features that are commonly associated with small organisations (Kraus, 2013). On the other hand, Mair (2005) evoked that entrepreneurial behaviour supports employees on a day-to-day basis in becoming more effective, alert to innovation and being opportunity-focused.

This current research concurs with Mair's (2005) conceptualisation of ''day-to-day'' entrepreneurship, where individual entrepreneurial behaviour includes a spectrum of activities ranging from autonomous to integrative/cooperative behaviour to find entrepreneurial ways of getting things done. Thus, individuals can become more entrepreneurial in their organisations, through cooperation and interaction with their peers, in the way they organise their daily work tasks, or in the way they meet and react to the challenges coming from top management or customers (Zampetakis, Bledekos and Moustakis, 2009; Kuratko et al. 2005).

Moreover, in the context of the prolonged recession, one of the challenges that established corporations faced was in harnessing the energy of highly motivated or opportunity-focused employees who were willing to pursue new products, services or processes (Westrup, 2013; Van Doorn, 2012). In this manner, public and third sector organisations are seeking to become "entrepreneurial" and are confronted with the need to adapt, become flexible and change the ways they pursue their social or economic goals (Chell, 2007). According to Lukeš (2012) the answer to today's fast-evolving, competitive and turbulent environment is adaptability, flexibility, proactivity and risk-taking, the features associated with entrepreneurial orientation. Lukeš focused on the fostering of innovation and entrepreneurial behaviour in larger organisations and emphasised the role of middle managers and reward systems as the key factors triggering successful entrepreneurial behaviour in such organisations.

Interest in stimulating and supporting entrepreneurial behaviour has significantly grown in the literature pertaining to public sector services (Kim, 2010; Zerbinati and Souitaris, 2005). However, relevant specific literature pertaining to this is scarce (Westrup, 2013). Furthermore, the impetus to study entrepreneurial behaviour was also emphasised in both, not-for-profit (Morris, Webb and Franklin, 2011) and social enterprise sector literature (Chell, 2007; Weerawardena and Mort, 2006). The growth of the not-for-profit sector and the demand from government and the public for their efficiency has led the sector to become increasingly entrepreneurial for a number of reasons (Sullivan Mort, Weerawardena and Carnegie, 2003). Firstly, there is a need to balance socially driven mission activities with entrepreneurial endeavours aimed at achieving financial sustainability and a greater efficiency in not-for-profit organisations (NPO). Secondly, the community and voluntary sector increasingly make a big contribution to sustaining what is often referred to as 'civil society'[3] in Europe – those parts of society that are neither the domain of the state nor the private sector (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). Finally, very little is known about the day-to-day challenges faced by these organisations, as was notified by Venables (2015).

[3] Civil society is called the "third sector" of society, along with government and business. It comprises civil society (community and voluntary sector organisations) and non-governmental organisations http://www.un.org/en/sections/resources/civil-society/index.html

With regards to the public sector, Zerbinati and Soutairis (2005) highlighted that national funds have been reduced while services have remained costly. Given the scarcity of resources, there is a greater need for entrepreneurial behaviour in the public sector. The need to embrace continuous innovation, be responsive, and efficient in a highly turbulent environment, changes the nature of public sector organisations. Also there is more emphasis and responsibilities placed on the role of employees within these organisations in performing their day-to-day duties, thus forcing them to behave more entrepreneurially at work (Wakkee, Elfring and Monaghan, 2010; Zampetakis and Moustakis, 2010; Mair, 2005).

With respect to entrepreneurial behaviour, entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is another significant resource for achieving better performance and competitive advantage in general (Wiklund and Shepherd, 2005; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Covin and Slevin, 1991) particularly through individuals' innovative, risky and proactive behaviour (Kim, 2010; Morris and Kuratko, 2002). EO represents a unique resource to a firm because it cannot be purchased and it is difficult to imitate, as firms invest considerable time in nurturing their EO' cultures (Lee and Peterson, 2001). EO can apply to both organisations and individuals (Covin and Lumpkin, 2011), and it is primarily concerned with entrepreneurial behaviour, rather than with entrepreneurial traits (Covin and Slevin, 1991) Thus, the author thought it appropriate to use the concept of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) to assist understanding of the employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial and innovative behaviour at work.

While prior studies have to a large extent focused on exploring EO at the organisational-level of behaviour (Covin and Miller, 2014), it was also argued that EO as a behavioural concept can be applied to the individual-level of behaviour (Vantilborgh, Joly and Peppermans, 2014; Bolton and Lane, 2012; Taatila and Down, 2012). Hence, in this thesis, the aim is to apply this construct to the realm of the individual. Considering the wide array of studies related to the boundary conditions of EO in relation to an organisation's performance (for example, Rauch et al. 2009; Stam and Elfring, 2008, Covin, Green and Slevin, 2006; Wiklund and Shepperd, 2005; Lumpkin and Dess, 2001), it was surprising that little attention has been paid to the employees'/volunteers' behaviour itself (Van Doorn, 2012; Wakkee et al. 2010; Mair, 2005).

Prior research concerned with entrepreneurial practices in public and voluntary sectors was mostly focused on organisational characteristics (Kearney, Hisrich and Roche, 2008; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996) and the holistic view of being more entrepreneurial. Thus, previous approach was contrary to examining EO at employee and volunteer levels (Okhomina, 2010). This current research adopts a different level of analysis, exploring entrepreneurial behaviour at the level of employees (and volunteers) from public, social enterprise and voluntary sector organisations. Furthermore, it addresses the EO they exhibit in their designated roles. This research offers an interesting perspective for rich understanding of the entrepreneurial behaviour of employees/volunteers across different contexts (such as public and third sector organisations) and from an international perspective.

1.4 Research question, research objectives and conceptual framework

According to Hennik, Hutter and Bailey (2011) the research question guide all other subsequent tasks in the research process and maintain focus for the research journey. Lumpkin and Covin (2014) recently observed that there is a paucity of research into EO at the individual level and overall, there is "*little, if any, evidence that it is (EO), can or should be measured as such (at the individual level)"* (p18). Lumpkin and Covin also highlighted that there is merit in considering EO at the individual level within a research context; however, in the opinion of these authors, when exploring it, it is pivotal to be clear whether EO is been used, either: (i) as a behavioural asset (one's behaviour and its outcome (s)), or (ii) as a dispositional aspect (i.e. one's intentions, attributes, perceptions). That is because these two approaches are dichotomous and distinctive (Anderson et al. 2015; Lumpkin and Covin, 2014).

Following the advice by Lumpkin and Covin (2014), in this research, the author focuses on the behavioural aspect of EO, by exploring employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour. Based on the review of relevant literature, the following investigative question has evolved:

> *How can employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) be identified in order to understand their entrepreneurial behaviour at work, and the antecedents underlying that behaviour?*

This question is posed in order to understand the elements which could describe an individual's EO. Thus, the final research question (title) is:

> **An exploratory analysis of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in public and third sector organisations**

The objectives of the study were then identified, as according to Saunders, Lewis and Tornhill (2003), objectives add a greater "*degree of specificity*" (p. 25) to the research process. To answer the above research problem/question the author formulated the following research objectives:

- To identify employees'/volunteers' prior entrepreneurial behaviour including their past entrepreneurial experiences[4]
- To ascertain employees'/volunteers' current entrepreneurial behaviours at work (To determine if they behave entrepreneurially in their current roles);
- To determine if organisations require employees/volunteers to exhibit entrepreneurial orientation-related attributes (EOA) or behave in an innovative and creative manner in their current roles;
- To explore the individual organisation's entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and to understand if organisations facilitate or hinder employees' entrepreneurial behaviour.

To assist in identifying the relevant literature areas for this study and to better guide the researcher in answering the aforementioned research objectives and ultimately to answer the research question, the conceptual framework was designed (Figure 1.1).

[4] Entrepreneurial experience includes employee's/volunteer's role in enterprise activity and the type of entity he/she established in the past (i.e. own business, a club or a society).

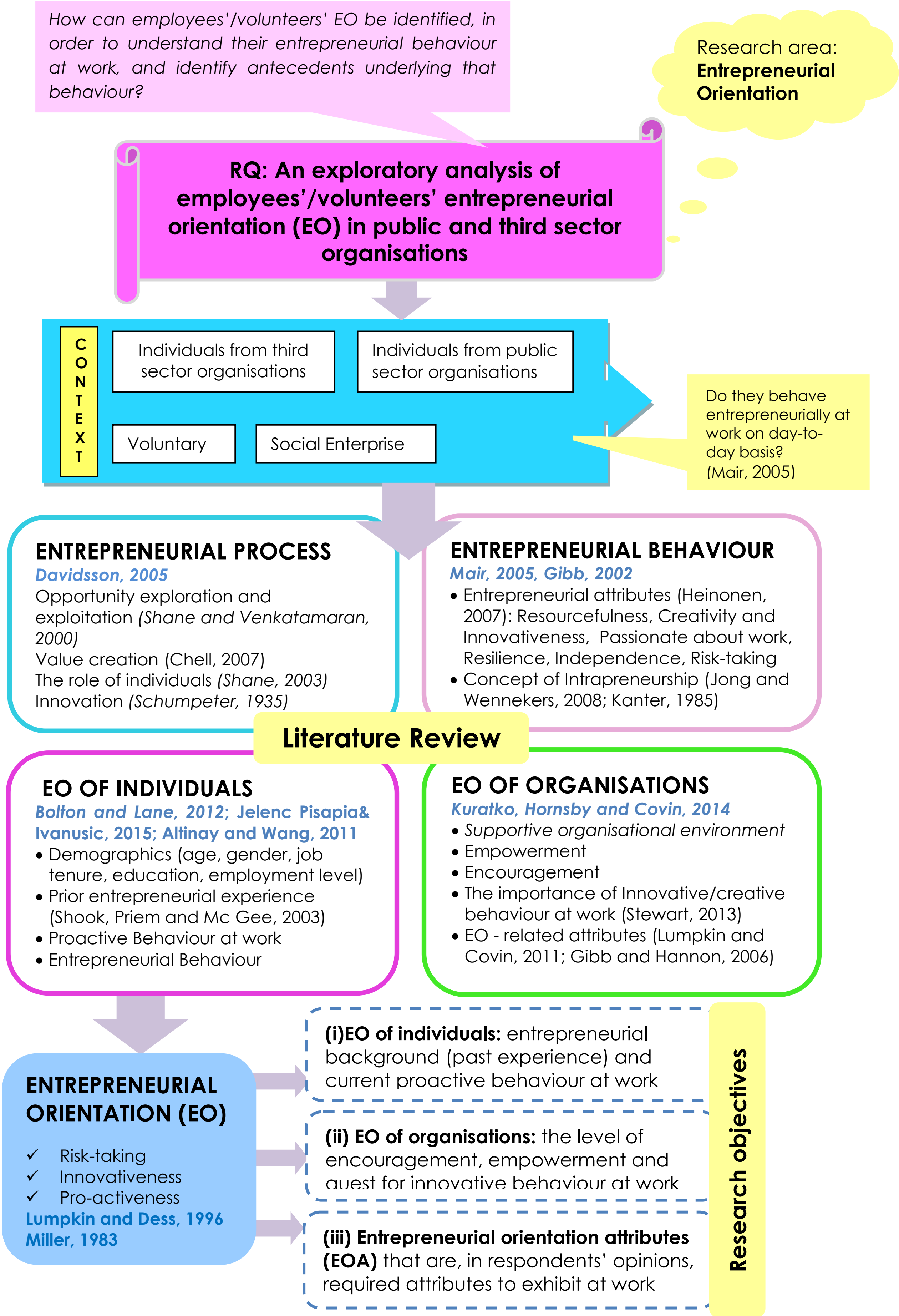

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework (Source: Author)

According to Maxwell (2008) a conceptual framework is like a research blueprint or a “concept mapping” that allows the reader to portray and identify the components of the research question and demonstrates how they are interrelated. This premise induced the development of the conceptual framework that highlights the following literature areas being reviewed: (1) research process, (2) entrepreneurial behaviour, (3) entrepreneurial skills and attributes, and (4) entrepreneurial orientation (Figure 1.1). The current research used a quantitative methodology with an on-line, self-administrated survey as the main research tool. The sample was drawn from employees/volunteers in public and third sector organisations spanning across six European countries (Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Sicily). Chapter 4 provides more information as regards the methodology employed in this research. The next sub-section illustrates and discusses the layout of this thesis.

1.5 Thesis Outline

This thesis consists of seven chapters. Figure 1.2 illustrates the overall structure and layout of this thesis.

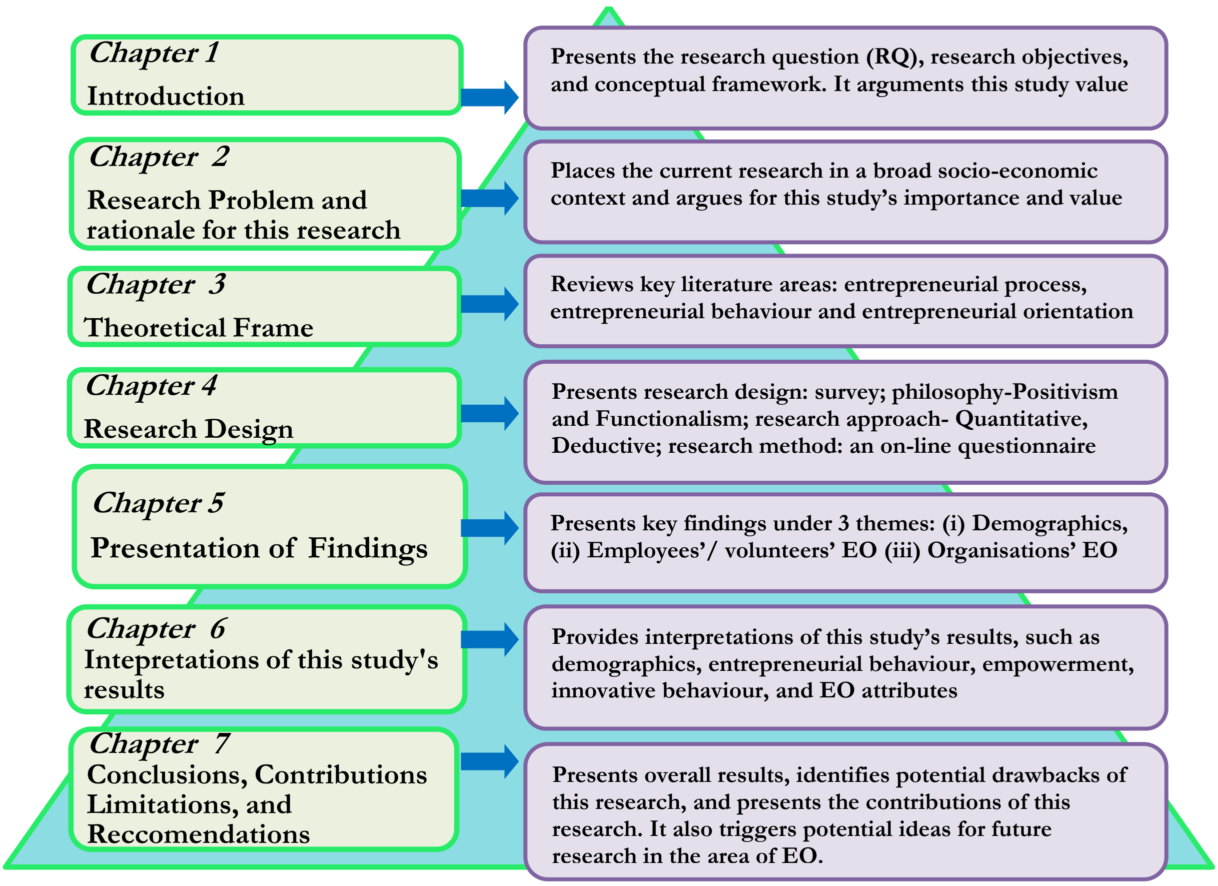

Fig. 1.2: Thesis Outline **(Source: Author)**

In line with the chapters outlined in Figure 1.2, the content of each chapter is as follows:

Chapter 1 is an introductory chapter that outlines the overall structure and purpose of the thesis. This chapter outlines the relevance of the research and presents the study's research question. It sets out the research objectives, defines the key literature areas being explored (i.e., entrepreneurial orientation) and presents a conceptual framework that guides this study's research process. The lack of knowledge relating to entrepreneurial orientation at the level of employees/volunteers is also discussed. The chapter concludes with a consideration of the limitations and contributions that evolved from this study.

Chapter 2 focuses on the background of this research. It sets this research in a broader context and interprets the research problem in the context of current social and economic events (i.e. recession, downsizing, and prevailing unemployment). It discusses globalisation, adversely changing labour conditions that have many important implications for employees'/volunteers' behaviour at work. Finally, this chapter discusses the growing needs to foster regions' entrepreneurial and innovative potential.

Chapter 3 contains the theoretical frame of this study, and discusses following literature aspects: (i) Entrepreneurship and the entrepreneurial process, (ii) The importance of entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial skills in both public and third sector organisations (iii) Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO) and its relevance in both public and third sector organisations (iv) Entrepreneurial Orientation discussed as an individual phenomenon and as an organisational domain.

Chapter 4 presents the methodology used in this research. The chapter guides the reader through the steps involved in the quantitative research process and illustrates the conceptual framework of this study. It outlines the main research philosophy (positivism), research approach (deductive) and research strategy (survey). It also introduces the study sample and details the data analysis.

Chapter 5 features the key findings emanating from this research. The findings are divided into three main sections: (i) Demographics; (ii) Individuals' entrepreneurial orientation (EO); (iii) Organisations' EO including aspects of innovative behaviour, empowerment and encouragement; as well as, ascertaining the EO-related attributes.

Chapter 6 provides a detailed discussion as regards this study's primary findings. In this chapter, the main themes and points of interest that emanated from this study are discussed and analysed relative to the literature reviewed for the research.

Finally, *in Chapter 7,* the main conclusions are presented from both the research findings and discussion chapters. This chapter contains the contributions and benefits that emerged from this study and the limitations identified by the author. The concluding part sketches out a short agenda for future research (recommendations) within the field of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and entrepreneurial behaviour.

1.6 Limitations

As within any research, there are limitations associated with this study. Firstly, there are some limitations with regard to the methodology employed. This study lacks a qualitative approach, which arguably would have added a greater value to the study. Secondly, within the data collected, it was not possible to perform statistical analysis. Despite this, it was possible to obtain preliminary results in a consistent manner across all the surveyed countries, with the exception of Greece.

Furthermore, the sampling processes were performed in slightly different ways, across the surveyed countries. As a result of the different sampling processes, there were some differences in the sample sizes included in the survey. For instance, the survey was very well received in Portugal and yielded as high as 209 responses and 37% response rate. In contrast, in Iceland out of 167 organisations there were only 40 in total responses were collected. In Greece, there were no respondents in the voluntary sector. In Greece, this may be explained by results of a recent a 2013 survey conducted by the Human Grid (a project linked to TEDxAthens), which found that "*(...) only 3% of Greeks belonged to a volunteer organisation, while the* *most recent European statistics suggest that Greece has one of the lowest volunteering levels in Europe*" (Brammal and Walker, 2014)[5].

Overall, the voluntary sector sample was the smallest in comparison to the sample drawn from public or social enterprise sector organisations. This contrast is visible, for example, in Sicily (see Chapter 5, Table 5.1). This also impeded the generalisations of findings as regards voluntary sector (i.e. there were no respondents in the voluntary sector in the Greek sample). The researcher also, to some extent, relied on the work of the survey co-coordinators from each of the regions within the six surveyed countries, who intermediated in the processes of translation, distribution and who also pilot survey individually. In addition, the preliminary data were analysed by the survey co-ordinators, with various approaches, resulting in a lack of consistency in the presentation of the data (for example, again in Greece, lack of data as regards respondents' level of employment).

Another limitation is associated with the scope of this research. For example, in Ireland, Iceland and Sicily this study included a relatively small number of organisations that represented mainly one particular region within these countries.

1.7 Contributions

This research provides greater insights into the entrepreneurial orientation of employees and volunteers in public sector, voluntary and social enterprise organisations. It contributes to a broader understanding of entrepreneurial behaviour of employees/volunteers in public sector, voluntary and, social enterprise organisations. This research has implications for managers in these organisations, policy makers, educators and trainers involved in supporting employees and volunteers to be more entrepreneurial in their work environments. Thus, the first contribution of this research lies in the assessment of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour and their involvement in the entrepreneurial orientation of their organisations. According to Bolton and Lane (2012), an understanding of an individual EO can lead to more cohesive and successful project teams and also can

[5] http://www.theguardian.com/voluntary-sector-network/2014/sep/19/greece-volunteering-politics-charities-europe

be valuable to future business owners, business incubators; it also allows for greater understanding of an individual behaviour within any organisation's context. As such, this study also may contribute to management practices. It has important implications for senior teams, organisational leaders, CEOs, aiming at leveraging their employees/volunteers' EO into an increased organisational performance.

Moreover, the recognition of individual EO allows employees/volunteers to better understand their role, and values shared within a firm, as well as expectations that top management have of their work; it also better assists employees/volunteers to understand their own weaknesses and strengths as a basis for their self-development or fulfilment at work.

According to Altinay and Wang (2011), it is important that organisations' leaders or senior managers assess how different inherent socio-cultural characteristics of employees may contribute to different dimensions of their organisations' EO. As such, this study is to some extent unique, as it delves into variables that were rarely jointly analysed within one piece of research. This research brings together both demographics and a more dynamic aspect of EO that is entrepreneurial behaviour, as well as organisations' EO, to provide a more comprehensive view on employees'/volunteers' EO. Moreover, this study also explores the potential antecedents of entrepreneurial orientation (such as, past entrepreneurial experience, education, employment level or empowerment) which, according to Miller (2011), is an under-researched theme within entrepreneurial orientation literature.

1.8 Chapter summary

The intention of this chapter was to introduce the reader to the research. This chapter provided the rationale behind the research as well as highlighted the main research question and the key objectives of the study. The thesis' structure was also outlined accompanied with a brief overview of the main sections followed by limitations and contributions of this research. The conceptual framework was illustrated and described. Chapter Two provides a context and in-depth analysis of the background to the research and highlights the relevance and importance of this research in a broader context.

Chapter 2

Research problem and rationale for this research

Chapter 2 Research problem and rationale for this research

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to put the current research into context and provide a supportive background that discusses the facts underlying the current research; these facts provided the motivation for undertaking this research. Thus, the current chapter discusses (i) globalisation trend and its implications for both organisations and individuals, (ii) changing labour conditions for those employed within public and third sector organisations, as well as (iii) the effect of the recession implying changes on operations, roles and services of public and third sector organisations as well as on the daily performance of their employees/volunteers. Attention is also drawn to an evolving need for different regions to become entrepreneurial and innovative. This has also important implications for their regional stakeholders (employees'/volunteers'), who are compelled to apply entrepreneurial ways of behaving and thinking within their respective organisations on a day-to-day basis (Cooney, 2012 (a); Mair, 2005).

2.2 Globalisation and its implications for organisations and employees

Globalisation and technological progress has brought challenges to day-to-day life, and have triggered a growing the demand for multiple types of labour and skills (Eurostat, 2015; Gibb, 2002)[6]. Technological change, the intensity of recession, and the shift towards a post-industrial market[7] and service economy has opened up new job opportunities and reduced the demand for routine-based low and medium-skill work (OECD, 2013). The labour market skills demand has evolved from low-skill manufacturing skills to information-processing skills; these include skills such as

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[6]Source: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Unemployment_statistics

[7] *Post-industrial market* is a period of growth within the economy, in which the relative importance of manufacturing and craft skills reduces and that of services, information, and research grows resulting in deindustrialization, development of large service sector, and an increase in the amount of information technology, R&D, paralleled to the limited demand for low-skilled jobs (OECD, 2013).

literacy, numeracy and problem solving in technology-rich environments (ESDE, 2014). The technological revolution has changed the way of life, the way of work and the way how people speak (OECD, 2013; Gibb, 2002).

According to Newhouse (2007) globalisation has many important implications for employees/volunteers as regards specialisation, work organisation and work division. For instance, *"globalisation and the expansion of global value chains is expected to have a deep impact on work organisation, resulting in a stronger division of tasks (such as, conception, design, production, advertising and marketing* (...)" (Newhouse, 2007, cited in ESDE, 2014, p. 168). For those in employment, this means increasing the need for upskilling and specialisation in specific tasks at the local level and the acquisition of skills (i.e., foreign languages and ICT skills) that are necessary for interacting in multicultural environments (ESDE, 2014).

Thus employees/volunteers must not only keep their specific job-related sills up to date and master a set of new digital skills, but also enhance the other high-level of soft and interpersonal skills, including transversal skills, such as co-operation, communication, and ability to organise and manage one's time (OCED, 2010). Further specialisation of employees/volunteers may lead to an increased overall productivity which in turn may improve job quality, including earnings and learning capacity (Rainey, 2009; Politis, 2005).

Key changes that hallmark globalisation are: the expansion of cross-border trade, the internationalisation of production and finance, the boosted development of ICTs (Information and Communication Technologies), prompted by greater mobility of products, people and information, in what is called the "borderless world" (Ohmae, 1995, cited in Farnham, 2005). These changes added to (i) the downsizing of governments and the public sector (Boyne, 2014); (ii) the growing competitiveness and cosmopolitan culture of consumerism, individualism and materialism that has led to severe recession (Farnham, 2005); (iii) the banking crash (Rigney, 2012); and (iv) rising unemployment. Combined, these changes have induced a climate of austerity across Europe (Sweeney, 2013). Low income employees and those seeking new employment opportunities were the most acutely affected by such harsh economic and social trends (Eurostat, 2015).

Globalisation has brought many societal, organisational and individual changes (Farnham, 2005; Gibb, 2002). At the orgnisational level, there was privatisation, decentralisation and downsizing as well as growing demand for flexibility in the workforce and greater efficiency. This changed the way that organisations work. This, also impacts those managing them, their workers and other corporate stakeholders, such as customers, suppliers and local community officers.

These fast-changing and competitive environments induce uncertainty and turbulent climate for public sector organisations (Bernier and Hafsi, 2007). They also impact the managers leading these organisations and the employees attempting to adapt within them (Meynhardt and Diefenbach, 2012). Thus, public and third sector organisations are both increasingly seeking ways to leverage the entrepreneurial potential of their employees (Bysted and Hansen, 2015). They can do this through anticipating and identifying their skills needs, or by empowering them in key decision-making processes in their organisations (Fernandez and Pitts, 2011). Providing opportunities of training and development can also serve as paths for the diffusion of innovations within organisations (Thomson, 1965, cited in Fernandez and Pitts, 2011). Moreover, they can foster employees' entrepreneurial behaviour and encourage them to pursue new opportunities to generate better quality services, offer more public/voluntary choices (Kim, 2010). However, such endeavours may be hampered if the quality of work is poor, if there is lack of an organisation's support, and when long-term unemployment prevails.

2.2.1 Declining employment levels and changing labour conditions

As referenced in the "Europe 2020 Action Plan", since 2008 Europe has been suffering the effects of the most severe economic crisis it has seen in 50 years, and *"there are over 25 million people unemployed"* (European Commission, 2013, p. 3). More evidence to support this contention has been presented in the recent "Employment and Social Developments in Europe 2014", which included that "*the unemployment rate increased in Europe from less than 7% in 2008 to 10.8% in 2013*" (ESDE, 2014, p. 45). In many European countries (for example, in Greece, Ireland and Spain) the long-term unemployment has more than doubled, especially amongst the youth (Eurostat, 2015)[8], a vital source of workforce for voluntary sector organisations (Hopkins, 2010).

Parallel to declining long-term employment, the labour markets have had to become more versatile and flexible, where employees face new challenges and opportunities. For instance, Russell, McGinnity and Kingston (2014) suggested that the economic crisis has adversely affected the working conditions of those in employment. In these authors viewpoint, particular challenges include: (i) increased financial pressures (for voluntary and public sector organisations), (ii) increased workload and pressure, (iii) a sharp increase in voluntary part-time working, (iv) a subjective insecurity and (v) pay cuts (Russell et al. 2014).

In the context of social and economic indicators, voluntary sector organisations face a possible 'triple whammy' (Grover and Piggott, 2012); an increased demand for the services provided, reduced funding and, increased costs associated with managing their domains. In turn, public sector organisations face challenges, such as: (i) heightened expenditure for labour and resources, (ii) growing public distrust, (iii) tough austerity programmes, and (iv) growing expectations in providing better quality and innovative services (Sweeney, 2013). The times of shortened funding and scarcity of resources, combined with ageing population, growing need for service innovation (Lukeš, 2012) and demand for highly skilled workforce (OECD, 2013) have posed a greater challenge for public sector organisations. As a result, these organisations were compelled to address higher expectations from their staff "to do more for less", and hence to multitask at the same or lower pensions (Russell et al. 2014) to secure their sustainability.

Moreover, different regions in Europe showed different levels of resilience in mitigating the effects of recession, which may be closely linked to different policies being adopted within these regions (Venables, 2015; ESDE, 2014). Thus, many European regions are seeking ways of building their identity/brand and highlighting their entrepreneurial spirit by taking a bottom-up approach (Etzkowitz, and Klofsten, 2005). Such approach requires a greater emphasis and trust placed on their

[8] The main indicator of youth unemployment is the unemployment rate for the age group 15-24 (see at: http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Youth_unemployment)

organisations, communities and different stakeholders, seeking ways of facilitating their region's entrepreneurial and innovative potential in the knowledge-based economy (Lukeš, 2012; Etzkowitz and Klofsten, 2005).

Given the prolonged recession, rigid austerity programmes, scarcity of resources and growing pressures to innovate, different (public and third sector) regional organisations are obliged to harness the entrepreneurial potential of their employees/volunteers. This will enable them to provide better quality public services, encourage their staff to explore new opportunities; and ultimately to spur bottom-up innovation (Bysted and Hansen, 2015; Fernandez and Pitts, 2011).

2.3 Fostering region's entrepreneurial/innovative potential and the importance of developing staff entrepreneurial skill-set

There is recognition that regional organisations and their employees need to be entrepreneurial and innovative in the pursuit of the economic and social development of their regions (Windrum and Koch, 2008; Malecki, 1997). These can relate to the way that public organisations, not-for-profit organisations (NPOs), and communities manage their domains, organise their work and deliver services/products to their customers (Kim, 2010). Innovative and entrepreneurial regions have a greater capacity to achieve their economic and social potential, even in the context of scarce resources (Etzkowitz and Klofsten, 2005). However, it is not sufficient for regional actors to be innovative, they must also be entrepreneurial in their current job roles on a day-to-day basis, for example in the way how they deliver services to customers, or when developing regional or educational policies (Cooney, 2012 (a)).

The regions of Europe are characterised by considerable diversity (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). They differ in their level of autonomy, the range of services that they provide the type and range of stakeholders they interact with, their levels of economic development and population size (ESDE, 2014). They also differ in terms of their cultural and socio-economic identities (Grilo and Thurik, 2008; Cowling, 2000). While many organisations try to improve their productivity and become more competitive and innovative, they may also seek to pass the responsibility and share the risk with the staff through greater flexibility and adaptability in relation to those already in employment (Eurostat, 2015).[9] Empowering local community and voluntary organisations with innovative entrepreneurship can facilitate bottom-up regional development that could have an important the multiplier effect benefiting regions and their organisations (Windrum and Koch, 2008).

However, developing the innovative and entrepreneurial potential of a region or an organisation requires regional stakeholders to possess the requisite skills and attributes (Cooney, 2012 (b); OECD, 2010; Gibb and Hannon, 2006). Apart from business specific skills, such as project management or setting a business plan, there are other transversal skills and attributes such as creativity, taking initiative, tenacity, teamwork, understanding of risk and a sense of responsibility combined with a strong self-belief (Gibb and Hannon, 2006). These skills and attributes not only assist employees in their decision-making processes on a day-to-day basis, but also allow them to better manage their time and job tasks, to cope with increased workloads, time pressures, stress and complexity of tasks at work. Furthermore, entrepreneurial attributes can also be used to describe organisations, and be understood in a way that they reflect their non-observable aspects such us, entrepreneurial climate, culture or spirit (Covin and Lumpkin, 2011). Thus, as a part of the research on organisations' EO, this research delves also into EO attributes by seeking respondents' opinions as to whether their organisations require them to display the EO attributes at work. This in turn, allows identifying the extent to which these organisations' are entrepreneurially orientated and if they facilitate an entrepreneurial environment.

Regional and local government organisations operate in tandem (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Evers and Laville, 2004). They are inter-connected, with a multiplicity of sub-regional community and voluntary organisations. They all share the vision and ambition of enhancing their region's economic and social prospects (European Commission, 2013). For example, third sector organisations (TSOs) may potentially play a pivotal role in assisting the public authorities in realising their developmental aspirations and potential (Venables, 2015). According to Anheiner (2004), third sector organisations engender more trust, diffuse civic values, and tend

[9] http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php/Unemployment%20statistics#Context

to have more accurate information on local needs of citizens than policy makers being positioned at the centre. Moreover, TSOs play an immense role as intermediary between government and public providing services to those most vulnerable in society, at no or lower cost; they are also vital contributors to the modernisation of public services across Europe (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010).

Another pressing challenge facing both public and third sector organisations is developing and enhancing the innovative and entrepreneurial skills-set of regional policy-planners, managers, administrators and, front line officers. For instance, it represents a challenge for public sector organisations who generally cannot match compensation packages offered by their private sector peers (Rainey, 2009, cited in Fernandez and Pitts, 2011). Furthermore, existing in-service training provision has often failed to address the needs and aspirations of staff members as individuals (Fernandez and Pitts, 2011). In addition, Bysted and Hansen (2015) asserted that innovative work behavior is not well understood in the public sector and it is been perceived as an “extra-role” syndrome, for which employees expect to be rewarded.

A more significant challenge, however, is developing these skill sets among people in regional community and voluntary organisations. By virtue of their location, they do not have access to higher education institutions or private sector training providers (Hopkins, 2010). Moreover, in the context of the fast-ageing population, and the lack of a highly-skilled workforce, voluntary organisations cannot afford to waste any human resources (Cedefop, 2010).

Previous research on entrepreneurial behaviour within existing organisations highlighted the role of middle managers (Diefenbach, 2011; Mair, 2005; Borins, 2002), senior executives (Van Doorn, 2012), and employees at different employment levels (Wakkee et al. 2010) in establishing organisations’ EO and its different performance levels. Thus, when talking about fostering regional innovative/entrepreneurial potential and about facilitating EO within existing organisations (Kraus, 2013), it is equally important to consider the prior experience and competencies of their staff. That is because their talent may be redeployed in the improvement of different aspects at work, such as processes, services or procedures (Diefenbach, 2011; Zerbinati and Souitaris, 2005).

2.4 Public sector challenges

Europe has experienced a prolonged recession and adversely changing labour conditions (Venables, 2015; Boyle, 2014). This has been coupled with on-going public sector reforms introduced under the broad term "Reinventing Government" (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992, cited in Kim, 2010), including various reforms, i.e. New Public Management, the Public Value Management (PVM) (Moore, 2010, cited in Diefenbach, 2011) running across many European countries. As a result, national and local public sector organisations have been prompted to find new ways of performing their public functions more effectively/efficiently to offer "more public choices" (Kim, 2010, p . 2). The combinations of heightened public finances with major social challenges (i.e. long-term unemployment) means that public services need to become more productive and become aligned to the needs of their customers; and the greater need for their staff to develop new ways of working.

In the face of heightened public expenditure and scarcity of resources, combined with an ageing population and growing demand for a highly skilled workforce, there are greater expectations for public sector employees to become more efficient and flexible (Zampetakis and Moustakis, 2010). This has coincided with rapidly changing labour markets in Europe and a decline in public sector long-term employment especially in developing countries (Sweeney, 2013). This was paralleled to the downsizing of public sector organisations, the introduction of new technologies in public sector services, austerity policies, and compulsory redundancies (for labour, training, resources) (Boyle, 2014). These changes presented public and voluntary sector organisations with new challenges and opportunities and adversely affected the working conditions of public sector employees in Ireland (Russell et al. 2014) and Europe (ESDE, 2014).

Moreover, internet access and development of ICTs (Information and Communication Technologies) have changed the ways in which many public services are consumed and provided (ESDE, 2014). For example, the fast-evolving digitalisation of different public sector services accelerated the betterment of the public sector services (Capgemini, 2010), encouraged employees/volunteers to better leverage their IT skills, which ultimately increases their more likely pursuit of new opportunities at work. According to Borins (2002) the public sector has experienced challenges such as driving down costs to reduce the debt burden; but also has opportunities including applying technology solutions that have compelled it to innovate.

2.5 The growing role of third sector organisations

Within the past twenty years the third sector, which includes the activities of not-for-profit and non-governmental organisations (NPOs), has become one of the main channels through which welfare and employment services are provided in Europe (TSES, 2010; Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Anheiner, 2004). For example, the data indicate that "*nearly 6% of paid employment in the EU25 was in the third sector, with levels reaching 9% or more in Ireland and Netherlands*" (TSES, 2010, p. 3). In France, for instance, there were over 2,300 registered structures providing work integration services through public schemes in 2004 (Defourny and Nyssens, 2008, p. 20). New markets are opening for the third sector hence the demand for various types of services is continuing to evolve (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Evers and Laville, 2004; Mort, Weerawardena and Carnegie, 2003). Usually smaller and less established third sector organisations (TSOs) (including voluntary), are particularly vulnerable as they are likely to have low reserves and a less specialised workforce to respond to and cope with a changing environment (Hopkins, 2010).

The social economy in Europe has become very important in both human and economic terms, "*providing employment to over 14.5 million Europeans or about 6.5% of the working population of the EU-27 and about 7.4% in the 15 'older' EU member states*" (European Economy and Social Committee, 2012, cited in Venables, 2015, p. 7). For example, in Ireland, two-thirds of Irish adults (that's over two million people) engage annually (work) in the social, cultural and humanitarian activities offered by19, 000 community and voluntary organisations. As such, the third sector in Ireland contributes over €2.5 billion to the economy each year and employs over 63,000 full-time and part-time staff[10].

[10] Source: http://www.wheel.ie/policy/about-community-and-voluntary-sector

In comparison, in Italy, social enterprises are one of the main sources of economic growth and social inclusion, where according to recent estimates (2009) provided by www.irisnetwrok.it, "*there are over 15,000 social enterprises employing more than 350.000 employees, serving around 5 million citizens, any yielding turnover of € 10 billion*" (OECD, 2010, p. 187). The aforementioned statistics highlights the pivotal role that the third sector organisations play within the community life and as regards work integration (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010).

The third sector faces a number of complex challenges (Venables, 2015). These include: (i) public sector cuts, (ii) major institutional changes, (iii) changes in the organisation of the social security from "welfare state " to "welfare mix[11]" (Evers and Laville, 2004), and the growing demands for its services as the result of the crisis. Parallel to the increased demands for third sector services, the financial support for organisations (via grants, donations or public sector contracts) tends to be limited (Wilding, 2010, cited in MacMillan, Taylor, Arvidson, Soteri-Proctor and Teasdale, 2013 (cited in Venables, 2015)). For instance, Venables (2015) explained that the difficulty in assessing public sector funds by the third sector organisations (TSOs) lies in decentralisation of public sector expenditure towards local authorities, which in turn may vary considerably in their favour as regards partnership with the third sector organisations. Moreover, reduced in size public sector administrations are seeking to maintain fewer and larger contracts with private service providers in areas such as home-care, the administration of vouchers scheme or inclusion onto the labour market (Venables, 2015). These services have traditionally been associated with the third sector. Additionally, Venables (2015) propounded that in order to understand the repercussion of the recession in 2008, for third sector organisations, one should examine in more detail expenditure cuts in the public sector organisations and crisis management within these organisations (since 2008); because this, in Venables' (2015) opinion, can improve the policy-making procedures in relation to how third sector organisations operate.

The overall result of the uncertainty over funding in third sector organisations has serious effects on the quality of provided services, access to resources, and staffing

[11] "Welfare mix"- term introduced by Evers (1995) who defined the third sector as operating on the crossroads of the market, the state and the informal private household spheres, including hybridisation of resources and appreciating both its social and economic roles.

including reduced staffing levels, part-time working, working without pay and, redundancy (Grover and Piggott, 2012). According to Hopkins (2010) the lack of investment in staff training and development is perpetuating the skills depreciation in the third sector resulting in the reduced opportunities of career advancement, lower than average job tenure and a continuing drain to the private and public sector.
The effect of these changes is that continuity, knowledge, experience and expertise are lost in the voluntary sector, as many talented people are seeking more profitable job opportunities to share their unique talents and skills (Grover and Piggott, 2012). This, in turn, can lead to a reduced ability of TSOs to maintain service quality and pressure to meet the volume of demand (Morris, Franklin and Webb, 2010). Moreover, within the limited number of a highly skilled workforce within voluntary sector organisations and the growing demand for its services, there is greater attention placed on the competency and individual potential of their volunteers/employees (Hopkins, 2010).

According to Venables (2015), the impact of the crisis explains, in part, changes within the third sector. These include, for example, more emphasis on self-sustainability and direct democracy, for local community development and social innovation. For sustainable services the challenge is that third sector organisations need to be more efficient, flexible, and responsive and, perhaps more importantly, from a central government position, independent and self-sufficient (Venables, 2015). According to Hopkins (2010), the social and environmental ethos is not exclusive with the need to apply professionalism, innovation and value for money within third sector organisations. As Hopkins (2010) asserted, while voluntary sector organisations are “not-for-profit” in status, they are also “not-for-loss” (p. 4).

2.6 Chapter summary

This chapter briefly discussed harsh economic and social conditions encountered by public and third sector organisations that in turn change the ways of working of their employees/volunteers. This chapter drew attention to adversely changing labour conditions and highlighted the importance of investment in the relevant skills and attributes that should match the specific job types and profiles. Many European countries are currently facing enduring economic problems, including a ‘double dip’ recession, long-term and deep austerity measures, and a severe squeeze on incomes (ESDE, 2014; Sweeney, 2013; Grover and Piggott, 2012). This is parallel to long-term job reductions, limited access to resources and a reduced funding for different organisations, and especially for the not-for-profit organisations (Hopkins, 2010). These changes provoke many organisations (including public, voluntary and social enterprise) to seek new strategies and encourage their employees/volunteers to become entrepreneurial on the day-to-day basis. Thus, to mitigate the results of recession, organisations increasingly seek to find new ways of work, and hence address higher expectations from their employees'/volunteers' performance at work. Moreover, this is a joint effort of both public and third sector organisations, as Venables (2015) reinforced that both public and third sectors participate as co-creators of many services delivered to the public. Thus, their employees and volunteers were also compelled to take a more entrepreneurial stance (orientation) within their work, to cope with pressing challenges encountered by these organisations. Entrepreneurial and innovation-orientated staff may enable different organisations to compete, to innovate and to grow both regionally and internationally.

The next chapter, Chapter 3, presents the literature areas that were reviewed and that enabled understanding the entrepreneurial and innovative behaviour of employees/volunteers in public and third sector contexts.

Chapter 3

Theoretical Frame

Chapter 3 Theoretical Frame

3.1 Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to explore the relevant literature areas pertaining to entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in order to deepen the understanding of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and shed light on possible drivers or antecedents of their entrepreneurial behaviour at work. Specifically, the Theoretical Frame focuses on the intersection of three entrepreneurship literature streams – (i) entrepreneurial process, (ii) entrepreneurial behaviour and (iii) entrepreneurial orientation (EO). This chapter proceeds as follows. First, it commences with introducing entrepreneurship from the broad "enterprise" dimension. Next, it defines the entrepreneurial process, its main types, followed by entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial attributes. Finally it presents literature pertaining to EO, by placing emphasis on EO at the individual level and drawing attention to EO at both public and third sector organisations' levels.

3.2 The new perspective on entrepreneurship

Entrepreneurship as a concept of behaviour, learning or practice was perceived as the introduction to "revolutionary invention" (Kilby, 1971, cited in Lumpkin and Dess, 1996, p. 138) and innovation and was seen as something that primarily only business owners should be concerned with (Ucbascaran, Westhead and Wright, 2008; Gartner, 1989). As a consequence, entrepreneurship is overexposed in the business context and too narrowly associated with start-ups (Van der Kuip and Verheul, 2004). Contrary to that view, entrepreneurship can also take place within large and small organisations or outside the business environment (Kuratko and Hodgetts, 2004; Gibb, 2002; Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990; Drucker, 1985; Schulz, 1975). Moreover, not many researches so far have focused, on the role of the entrepreneurial behaviour, in traditional service type organisations (Kraus, 2013).

Zampetakis, Beldekos and Moustakis (2009) interestingly observed, that over the last decade researchers more and more often understand entrepreneurship as a process that, takes place in multiple sites and spaces (Steyaert and Katz, 2004). Entrepreneurship occurs in any type of organisation regardless of the context (Bruyat and Julien, 2000; Drucker, 1985); and is relevant on many different levels, such as social and economic, individual and organisation (Korsgaard and Anderson, 2011). Entrepreneurship and, in particular, entrepreneurial behaviour can also apply to individuals and to the individual level of entrepreneurial behaviour (Cooney, 2012 (a), (b); Bird and Schjoedt, 2009; Mair, 2005; Covin and Slevin, 1991).

In the context of the need to broaden all professionals' entrepreneurial or enterprise spirit, the literature supports the fact that one does not have to be an owner of a business to be an entrepreneur or to be entrepreneurial in their work (Kraus, 2013; Zampetakis and Moustakis, 2010; Hytti and O'Gorman, 2004). Similarly it is untrue that entrepreneurship only applies to specific skilled people and sectors of industry such as High Potential Start-ups (HPSUs) (Gibb, 2002). For example, Zerbinati and Souitaris (2005) suggested that the mainstream entrepreneurship literature should embrace and study entrepreneurship in the public sector, where "*public sector managers act entrepreneurially, driven by non-profit rewards*" (p 61).

Societal and institutional interest in entrepreneurship suggested valuing it from new perspectives: (1) as a new type of managerial behaviour in established organisations, and (2) as a new attitude to the world of work and leisure (Hytti and O'Gorman, 2004). Others (for example, Cooney, 2012 (b); Chell, 2007; Gibb and Hannon, 2006) captured entrepreneurship as a type of enterprising behaviour that is a matter of everyday activities for anyone rather than an elitist group. The broad view of entrepreneurship was endorsed by Cooney and Murray (2008), who argued that,

"Entrepreneurship suffers from the myth that it only deals with the creation of a new venture. However, entrepreneurship is much broader than that as it is (...) instead about a way of thinking and behaving" (p. 68).

Previous entrepreneurship researchers (for example Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990; Drucker, 1985; Schulz, 1975; Schumpeter, 1935), also stressed that 'being entrepreneurial' is not the factor that is only the prerogative of entrepreneurs. For example, Schultz (1975), asserted, that "*the ability to reallocate (resources) is not restricted to entrepreneurs who are engaged in business*" (p. 827). Stevenson and Jarillo (1990) supported the assertion that one does not have to be an owner of a business to be an entrepreneur or entrepreneurial in his/her work. They also viewed entrepreneurship from a broad perspective, defining it as: *"a process by which individuals—either on their own or inside organisations—pursue opportunities without regard to resources they currently control"* (Steven and Jarillo, 1990, p.23*).* This definition may be particularly relevant to individuals or public servants who volunteer or work in local, community or regional entities. It may also refer to the individual potential or individual capacities (behaviours, skills and attributes) that individuals display in their job roles and professional environment. For example, how they cope with workload, stress or approach different problems at work.

Sarasvathy and Venkatamaran (2011) suggested a simple formulation of entrepreneurship: as a method of human action. Others, like Gartner (1985, cited in Zerbinati and Souitaris, 2005, p. 44), have narrowly defined entrepreneurship as "*the creation of new organisations*" (p 697). However, Shane and Venkatamaran (2000) refuted this view arguing that "*entrepreneurship involves the nexus of two phenomena: lucrative opportunities and enterprising individuals*" (p 218), without necessarily creating new organisations. Approached in this way, entrepreneurship refers to the process of creating value by deploying a unique mix of resources to exploit an opportunity.

Anderson, Drakopoulou Dodd and Jack (2012) argued that entrepreneurship "*might be better understood as a complex adaptive system*" (p. 8), which acknowledges the social aspect of entrepreneurship and the importance of collaboration. Korsgaard and Anderson (2011) also appreciated the broader social aspect of entrepreneurship arguing that entrepreneurship is socially enacted. They continued that the social nature of opportunities affect the entrepreneurial process in the way that value is created on multiple levels from individual self-realisation to community development to broad social impact. The social aspect of entrepreneurship explains the diversity of entrepreneurship due to the different contexts, roles, meanings and assumptions associated with the different applications of the concept (Anderson et al. 2012).

For instance, Van der Kuip and Verheul (2004) suggested that entrepreneurship is associated with diversity among individuals having various interests, opinions and attributes and being capable of creating opportunities from different uncertain environments together.

Since the very first publications on entrepreneurship recorded in works of people such as Cantillon (1775) and Jean-Baptiste Say (1803) and with over 200 years history of study, a plethora of different definitions of entrepreneurship has been put forward, with many researchers reconciling its multi-dimensional character (Kraus, 2013; Smith-Hunter, 2011; Audretsch, 2003). Although there is no commonly accepted and concise definition of entrepreneurship (Kraus, 2013, Ucbasaran, Westhead and Wright, 2001; Shane and Venkatamaran, 2000), essentially the term refers "*to an individual opportunistic activity that creates value and bears risk, and that is strongly associated with innovation as one of its major components*" (Huarng and Yu, 2011, cited in Kraus, 2013, p. 2). This dynamic and individualistic perspective of entrepreneurship converges with the main aim of this current research which is concerned with the behavioural and entrepreneurial orientation of employees and volunteers from public and third sector organisations.

In terms of entrepreneurship, there are two aspects to consider. There is the entrepreneur and the process of entrepreneurship itself (Bygrave and Hofer, 1991). Thus, it is necessary to understand both these aspects and in particular to be aware of the distinction between them (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996). Lumpkin and Dess (1996) explained this distinction by referring to "new entry" (the content of entrepreneurship) and "entrepreneurial orientation" (EO), (processes of entrepreneurship that lead to the "new entry") which are two distinctive dimensions of entrepreneurship.

3.2.1 Discourse of being "enterprising" and "entrepreneurial"

An important distinction was made by Gibb (2002; 1993) and Chell (2007) as regards to one being "enterprising" and/or "entrepreneurial". Being entrepreneurial (or an entrepreneur) was perceived as someone who plays a defined role and function in society and the economy (Schumpeter, 1935), someone who undertakes a commercial enterprise at a personal or financial risk (Kilby, 1971). However according to Chell (2007), there is another distinctive feature of being "entrepreneurial"; this refers to someone who has a "sense of entrepreneurship" (Chell, 2007), the ability of going beyond the technical skills to an ability to make fine judgments and envision opportunities better than other do. This feature was used to distinguish the entrepreneur from the owner-manager or life-style entrepreneur (Carland, Hoy, Boulton and Carland, 1984).

In contrast, an "enterpriser" was seen as an "adventurer", who is "bold and imaginative" as well as "full of initiative" (Chell, 2007 p 7). The term "enterprise" stood "*for the values of individualism, personal achievement, ambitions, striving for excellence, effort, hard work and the assumption personal responsibility for actions*" Chell, 2007, (p. 8). The other competencies, such as taking initiative, and an individual capacity for self-determination were also associated with an "enterprising person" (Fairclough, 1991). In this way, the notion of "enterprise" was congruent with a set of personal attributes and the purported individualistic nature of entrepreneurial behaviour (Chell, 2007). According to Chell (2007), the consequences of the "enterprise" discourse marked academic research, which sought to address the question: "*can the attributes of enterprising people be identified?"* (Caird, 1991, cited in Chell, 2007, p. 9). Moreover, another dispute raised by Gibb (1993) was concerned with the question whether *"enterprising people and entrepreneurs are one and the same*?" (p. 11).

Gibb (2002) introduced a wider notion of the `enterprise' paradigm as a means of moving away from the hitherto narrow paradigm of "heroic" entrepreneurship or the business-view of entrepreneurship. A narrow economic paradigm appeared to be "dysfunctional", when confronted with broad community needs. The "enterprise" paradigm focused on developing more enterprising individuals, creating more "enterprising organisations" and the need to instil the "enterprise culture" across all walks of professional life, and in multiple contexts, such as "*(...) public authorities, NGOs, schools, social services, and social and community enterprises as well as individuals in a wide range of non-business contexts*" (Gibb, 2002, p. 248).

Thus, when discussing the "enterprise" aspect of entrepreneurship, in the context of public and voluntary sector organisations, it is of paramount importance to understand the individual level of entrepreneurial behaviour and the skills and attributes that enable individuals to pursue new opportunities, better perform job roles and supports them to bear risk and uncertainty (Knight, 1921). This may imply that individuals who work within public or community contexts and regional stakeholders need to view and manage their domains just as entrepreneurs do in sustaining and developing their businesses, and in providing better quality services to their clients (Gibb and Hannon, 2006).

3.3 Understanding the entrepreneurial process

When reviewing the different perspectives on entrepreneurship, a distinction can be made between those emphasising the importance of entrepreneurial traits or qualities (Carland, et al. 1984) and those focusing on the behaviour or activities of entrepreneurs (Bygrave, 2004; Ucbascaran, Westhead and Wright, 2001; Gartner, 1990). However, the majority of studies converged upon identifying behavioural aspects of entrepreneurs (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996, Bygrave and Hofer, 1991) that are inherent to the process-view of entrepreneurship. As explained by Covin and Slevin (1991), it is through action that organisations and their employees become entrepreneurial and "*behaviour is the central and essential element in the entrepreneurial process*" (p. 8).

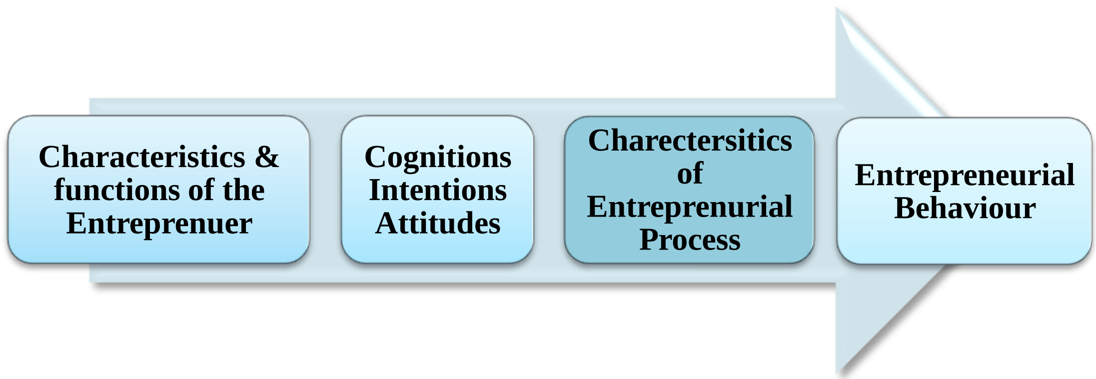

Fig. 3.1: Paradigm shifts in entrepreneurship research

(Source: adapted from Bygrave and Hofer, 1991)

Bygrave and Hofer (1991) observed a paradigm shift in the field of entrepreneurship research, where the attention of researchers evolved from who the entrepreneur is to what the entrepreneur does (see Figure 3.1). According to Bygrave and Hofer (1991), the new paradigm quest has diverted the attention of researchers from "*characteristics and functions of the entrepreneur*" (p. 14) (see also, Carland, et al. 1988; Brockhaus, 1982; Kets de Vries, 1977) towards understanding the "*nature and characteristics of the entrepreneurial process*" (Bygrave and Hofer, 1991, p. 14). According to previous researchers (Ucbascaran, Westhead and Wright, 2001, Robinson, Stimpson and Heufner and Hunt, 1991; Gartner, 1989) the "personality trait" approach was proved to be insufficient factor in explaining/predicting the entrepreneurial behaviour.

The "process" view of entrepreneurship has emerged within the research on the entrepreneurship behaviour as being opposite to the "personality" and "demographic" perspectives; as these two approaches have often been criticised for their methodological weakness (Robinson et al. 1991) and for their low explanatory capacity (Kollman, Christofor and Kuckertz, 2007) in relation to the entrepreneurial behaviour. The entrepreneurial process is defined as all the functions, activities, and actions associated with the exploration of opportunities and the creation of organisations to pursue them (Bygrave and Hofer, 1991).

Opportunity exploration and exploitation are widely considered as two core and heterogeneous entrepreneurial processes (Lukeš, 2012; Davidsson, 2005; Shane and Venkatamaran, 2000). As such, exploration is associated with complex search process, experimentation and risk-taking; whereas exploitation involves systematic research, risk-avoiding and slow incremental processes and it is about refinement of existing processes, services or skills (Lukeš, 2012).

Entrepreneurship as a process has been captured from many different perspectives. For example, Shook, Priem and McGee (2003) and Shane (2003) both focused on the individual's role within the entrepreneurial process, in which individuals interact with their environment through discovering, evaluating and exploiting opportunities. Low and McMillan (1998, cited in Ucbascaran et al. 2001) emphasised the importance of the context in which process takes place, whereas others (for example

Curran and Stanworth, 1989; Schumpeter, 1934) focussed on the creation of something novel, either in production, service or innovation. While Bruyat and Julien (2000) focused on value creation, change and its impact on individuals, Shane and Venkatamaran (2000), in turn, emphasised the role of opportunity exploration (identification, information searching) and exploitation (implementation) as being at the core of the entrepreneurial process; these authors also defined entrepreneurship as a process through which "*opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated and exploited*" (p. 218). This definition implies a deeper understanding of how opportunities come about (Venkatamaran, 1997) and the role of individuals within different entrepreneurial processes (Eckhart and Shane, 2003).

Gibb (2002) and Gibb and Hannon (2006) on the other hand, reinforced the importance of a set of behaviours, skills and attributes that someone may exhibit while seeking opportunities in the entrepreneurial process. For example, Gibb (2002) suggested that entrepreneurial behaviour is something tangible, while attributes are intangible and durable characteristics, known as having low-environment dependency. He also identified the most cited behaviours, such as: grasping opportunity, fixing things, problem solving or bringing networks together effectively. Related to these are a number of supportive entrepreneurial attributes, such as: *motivation to achievement; self-confidence and self-belief; creativity; autonomy and high locus of control; hard work and determination* (Gibb, 2002, p. 254). These attributes combined with skills are necessary for individuals to gain access to the scarce information that is useful in opportunity identification.

According to Venkatamaran (1997) the emphasis in understanding entrepreneurial process is focused upon the nexus of enterprising individuals and valuable opportunities. Therefore, the entrepreneurial process requires a better understanding of the nature of opportunity, the role of individuals and the environment as strong moderators of the entrepreneurial process (Davidsson, 2005). At the core of the relationships of opportunities and enterprising individuals is the assumption that people are different and these differences provide a basis to many interesting questions in entrepreneurship, such as "*why, when and how opportunities for the creation of goods and services in the future arise in an economy*?" (Venkatamaran, 1997, p. 122) or why some people discover opportunities and some do not (Shane and Venkatamaran, 2000).

According to Schumpeter (1934), innovation and the entrepreneurial process go hand in hand, where identification of opportunities involves radical break through activity ("creative destruction") by destroying economic equilibrium, creatively breaking patterns and effectively managing risk. Schumpeter (1934) explained, "*The carrying out new combination we called enterprise; individuals whose function is to carry them out we called entrepreneurs*" (p. 74, cited in Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990, p. 18). In this vein, he argued that entrepreneurs are not only those independent businessmen in an exchange economy, but also "*dependent employees of a company as managers, members of board's directors, and so forth* (…)" (Schumpeter, 1934, p. 74). To Schumpeter (1934) the entrepreneurial process entails a type of entrepreneurial behaviour that involves risk, innovation and first and foremost a radical change.

Bruyat and Julien (2000) conceptualised the entrepreneurial process as a creative and evolving process that entails "(...) *creation of new value, and at the same time, change and creation for the individual*" (p.173). This definition assumes that the entrepreneurial process results in the creation of value as an outcome, but also implies change for individuals. This may also suggest that individuals have the capability to develop, learn and grow through the entrepreneurial process (Wang and Chugh, 2014; Politis, 2005). Previous research on entrepreneurial behaviour also emphasised (Zampentakis and Moustakis, 2010; Mair, 2005; Sharma and Chrisman, 1999) that individuals can create value by acting entrepreneurially in larger and established organisations; and in doing so is regarded as an important trigger to innovation and sustainable competitive advantage (Wiklund and Shepperd, 2005).

As research within the entrepreneurial process has evolved, the scholars pertaining to entrepreneurial orientation (for example, Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Covin and Slevin, 1991) have shown that the entrepreneurial process can also be described as the organisation-level of behaviour. The entrepreneurial process at the organisational level was characterised by three types of behaviours, namely: risk-taking, innovativeness and pro-activeness (Miller, 1983).

3.4 Entrepreneurial behaviour, intrapreneurship and entrepreneurial attributes

Entrepreneurial behaviour is transitory (Caroll and Mosakowski, 1987) and it is one of the most important and essential aspects of the entrepreneurial process (Covin and Slevin, 1991). It includes a set of activities, which are aimed at achieving certain goals; economic (profit), social (employment) or individual values (fulfilment, job satisfaction) (Davidsson, 2005). Kraus (2013) asserted that entrepreneurial behaviour can be applied in different contexts and it "*is becoming increasingly important for all firms, regardless of size, age, or industry sector*" (p. 2). Moreover, entrepreneurship research has revealed that there is an evolving tendency to focus on entrepreneurial behaviour and the process-view of entrepreneurship (Davidsson, 2005) and to view it from the individual perspective (Kelley, Bosma and Amorós, 2010; Bird and Schjoedt, 2009; Mair, 2005, Kanter, 1984). For instance, Covin and Slevin (2011) maintained that entrepreneurial behaviour is both an individualistic and collective phenomenon.

According to many researchers (Hytti and O'Gorman, 2004; Gibb, 2002; Gavron, Cowling Holtham and Westall, 1998) entrepreneurial behaviour in its broader sense has become more important to society, where people are facing more uncertain work environments. As such employees/volunteers are increasingly experiencing time pressure, and are prone to multitask, and often experience portfolio of short-term jobs (Gibb, 2002). Moreover, the complexity of their jobs increasingly requires for them to exhibit personal attributes, such as self-initiative, creativity, and innovative approach to problem solving (Heinonen, 2007) to cope with their workload.

Considering the contention made by Covin and Slevin (1991) that behaviour is the core element of the entrepreneurial process, the characteristics pertaining to the entrepreneurial process are also relevant to entrepreneurial behaviour. Entrepreneurial behaviour, proposed in this study is as an entrepreneurial process involving value creation (Bruyat and Julien, 2000), and the willingness to pursue opportunities regardless of current resources in hand (Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990). It is also seen as a change-orientated and proactive posture to pursue new opportunities

(Shane and Venkatamaran, 2000), propensity towards taking calculated risks and, ability to marshal scarce resources. Such behaviour would enable one to create a Schumpeterian "new combinations" in the form of processes, products, policies, technologies, ideas and services. Generally, these types of behaviours require a person's willingness to step out from their comfort zone and depart from ordinary ways of doing business (Zampetakis and Moustakis, 2010).

For the purposes of this current research, entrepreneurial behaviour refers to a set of activities by which "*individuals at multiple levels autonomously generate and use innovative resource combinations to identify and pursue opportunities* (...)" (Mair, 2005, p. 1). As such, individuals can be entrepreneurial for example, in the way they cooperate with their peers at work, how they organise their daily tasks, or in the way they meet deadlines at work, or face challenges coming from top management or senior executives. Thus, the definition of entrepreneurial behaviour adopted in this current research is analogous to Mair's conceptualisation of "day-to-day" entrepreneurship, where civil servants (employees/volunteers) generate and use innovative resource combinations to create multiple values (Mair, 2005). Moreover, these behaviours include a wide range of activities ranging from independent ones to cooperative or group activities, aimed at getting things done in an entrepreneurial way (Zampetakis, Bledekos and Moustakis, 2009).

Chell (2007) argued that if social enterprises are to behave entrepreneurially, it is necessary to apply the same definition of entrepreneurial behaviour as within for-profit enterprises. She also suggested that entrepreneurial behaviour is primarily about change in markets, industries and organisations that shift expectations and positions of different stakeholders through innovative displacements. Chell (2007) also evoked that "*to behave entrepreneurially is to engage in a process that creates value*" (p.13) but more importantly process that creates both social and economic value.

According to many researchers (Kraus, 2013; Wakkee, Elfring and Monaghan, 2010; Zampetakis and Moustakis, 2010; Kearney, Hisrich and Robert, 2008; Jong and Wennekers, 2008), there is an evolving interest in studying entrepreneurial behaviour within existing (public, large and in traditional service sector) organisations.

Moreover, there is an indication that more research is needed for studying the entrepreneurial behaviour at the level of individual employees (Van Doorn, 2012; Meynhardt and Diefenbach, 2012; Mair, 2005); as entrepreneurial behaviour within established organisations is seen as a vehicle towards increased growth, strategic renewal, an improved performance and more innovative and customer value-added services (Kuratko, Ireland, Covin and Hornsby, 2005).

3.4.1 Concepts of intrapreneurship and corporate entrepreneurship

There are two terms employed to distinguish between two types of behaviours, for organisations it is known as 'corporate entrepreneurship' (CE) (Sharma and Chrisman, 1999) and for individuals: 'intrapreneurship' (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2004; Pinchot, 1985), respectively. Corporate entrepreneurship (CE) is defined at the level of organisations and refers to the top-down processes such as strategic management practices to enhance the employees' initiative and innovative endeavours (Antoncic and Hisrich, 2004). For instance, Kearney, Hirsrich and Roche (2008) described CE as a set of "*entrepreneurial activities and orientations in an established organisation*" (p. 296). On the other hand, intrapreneurship focuses on the individual level of entrepreneurial behaviour inside organisations that is "*related to the bottom-up, proactive work-related initiatives of individual employees to improve procedures or products and/or to explore and to exploit opportunities*" (Bosma, Stam and Wennekers, 2011, p. 3).

Mair (2005) suggested a more comprehensive view, implying that intrapreneurship can take place at both the level of organisations and at the level of individual employees. In contrast, Jong and Wennekers (2008) focused specifically on individuals and referred to intrapreneurship as *"employee initiatives in organisations to undertake something new, without being asked to do so*" (p. 4). They also identified key behavioural aspects that are usually associated with the "intrapreneurial" orientation of employees, such as: "*personal initiative, active information searching, out of the box thinking, voicing, championing, taking charge, finding a way, and some degree of risk taking*" (Jong and Wennekers, 2008, p. 4). Moreover, Chell (2007) reconciled that, at both levels (individual and organisation), the pursuit of opportunities that can create both social and economic values, is central within the entrepreneurship process.

Pinchot (1985) coined the term “intrapreneurship” in terms of individual innovative behaviours; he called “intrapreneuers” "dreamers who do” (p. 28) as those who take hands-on responsibility for introducing innovation of any kind in organisations. Thus, ‘intrapreneurship’ was related to the process in which individuals inside organisations pursue opportunities regardless of the resources currently “in hand”, engage themselves at doing new things, and, are willing to depart from routine in order to pursue opportunities (Morris and Jones, 1999). This view appears to correspond with Schumpeter (1934) who generalised that “*intrapreneurship consists of doing things that are not generally done in the ordinary course of business routine*” (cited in Wakkee et al. 2010, p. 3).

According to Jong and Wennekers (2008) recent attempts to study entrepreneurial behaviours within organisations have focused on the organisational level, while individuals’ endeavours are somewhat overlooked. In this respect, some researchers (Zahra, Jennings and Kuratko, 1999, cited in Jong and Wennekers, 2008) argued that, “*the role of individuals’ entrepreneurial behaviour within organisations has hardly been studied*” (p. 8). Zampetakis and Moustakis (2007) concurred with this view, when they discussed the importance of employees’ entrepreneurial behaviour, and in particular “front-line operators”, within the Greek public sector context. Overall Mair (2005) cautioned that so far, there is limited understanding of what really “explains” entrepreneurial behaviour, and especially when considering both organisational (i.e. empowerment) and individual (i.e. individual attributes) antecedents.

3.4.2 Entrepreneurial attributes

There is a growing tendency in entrepreneurship research to focus on entrepreneurial skills or attributes (Heinonen, 2007; Gibb and Hannon, 2006) that individuals need for their personal fulfilment, social inclusion and active citizenship in a knowledge-based society (European Commission, 2012). Among the key competences are “*creativity, innovation and risk-taking, as well as the ability to plan and manage projects in order to achieve objectives*” (European Commission, 2012, p. 10).

According to Gibb (2002) entrepreneurial behaviour can be observed, as it is associated with tangible outcomes. Entrepreneurial skills are not fixed personality traits and hence they can be learned, whereas entrepreneurial attributes are deemed to be part of personality but, are arguably open to influence from the environment. Gibb (1993) defined the entrepreneur in terms of attributes and the small business owner in terms of tasks. Furthermore, Gibb and Hannon (2006) suggested that different individuals have a different mix of entrepreneurial skills, behaviours and attributes and more importantly they (attributes) "*can be practiced, developed and learned to some degree and certain environments, particularly that of running one's own business, will stimulate them*" (p. 3). Gibb (2002) asserted that attributes play an important role in assisting entrepreneurial behaviour. Examples of these include: "*motivation to achievement; self-confidence and self-belief; creativity; autonomy and high locus of control; hard work; and determination*" (Gibb, 2002, p. 254). However, it is believed that some attributes, for example, high energy levels, emotional stability and, passion (Miller, 1983), are innate and cannot be acquired or developed through educational intervention.

Recently, Home (2011) defined entrepreneurship, in line with Gibb's (1993) view, as the use of entrepreneurial attributes in the pursuit of particular tasks, within a certain context. Home (2011) also proposed that entrepreneurship entails "*behaviour that is guided by values and attributes, whose combination is called an entrepreneurial orientation*" (p. 298). This assertion appears to correspond with Covin and Lumpkin (2011), who defined entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in terms of dispositions or entrepreneurial attributes that organisations may exhibit. For instance, Covin and Lumpkin (2011) conveyed the message that there are non-observable or intangible elements pertaining to a firm's disposition to behave entrepreneurially that can be also associated with an organisation's EO. These include: entrepreneurial climate, culture, mind-set or dominant logic. However, they argued that singular behaviour does not constitute EO, thus, a firm or an organisation must exhibit entrepreneurial behaviour on a sustained and on-going basis as a durable "pattern of behaviours" (Covin and Lumpkin, 2011).

In a similar manner Moss, Short, Payne and Lumpkin (2011) referred to organisation's entrepreneurial attributes and values conveyed by not-for-profit organisations. Based on gathered information regarding organisations' mission statements and key attributes/values that these organisations conveyed, Moss et al. 2011 described two types of identities that may be associated with not-for-profit organisations types, namely "utilitarian" (people-orientated) or "normative" (market-orientated). Based on their study, it appears that, entrepreneurial attributes are durable qualities (Van der Kuip and Verheul, 2004) and may also be used to describe organisations' environment, their culture, styles and also entrepreneurial orientation (EO) that are rooted in their long-term traditions.

3.4.3 The importance of entrepreneurial behaviour in third sector organisations

Before understanding why it is pivotal for employees/volunteers to behave entrepreneurially within third sector organisations, it is important to establish the scope in which the third sector operates. The terms "social entrepreneurship" or "social enterprise" have different connotations within European and US contexts (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010; Evers and Laville, 2004). Moreover, it appears that "*a consensus about the boundaries of social entrepreneurship remains elusive*" (Nicholls, 2006, p. 6, cited in OECD, 2010). Setting conceptual frames of the "third sector" will help to better understand the scope of the current study and to better understand the type of activities that fall within the third sector (Venables, 2015). For instance, The Skoll Centre for Social entrepreneurship argued (Abu-Sajfan, 2012) that, a definition of social entrepreneurship should not extend to philanthropists, social activists and companies with foundations (see Figure 3.2).

According to Abu-Sajfan (2012) social entrepreneurship entities operate at the crossroads of the two strategies, such as for-profit and not-for-profit (see Figure 3.2). Figure 3.2 illustrates that the primary goal of social entrepreneurship (or third sector) sector organisations is mainly concerned with creating social value, but optionally can include profit as an outcome.

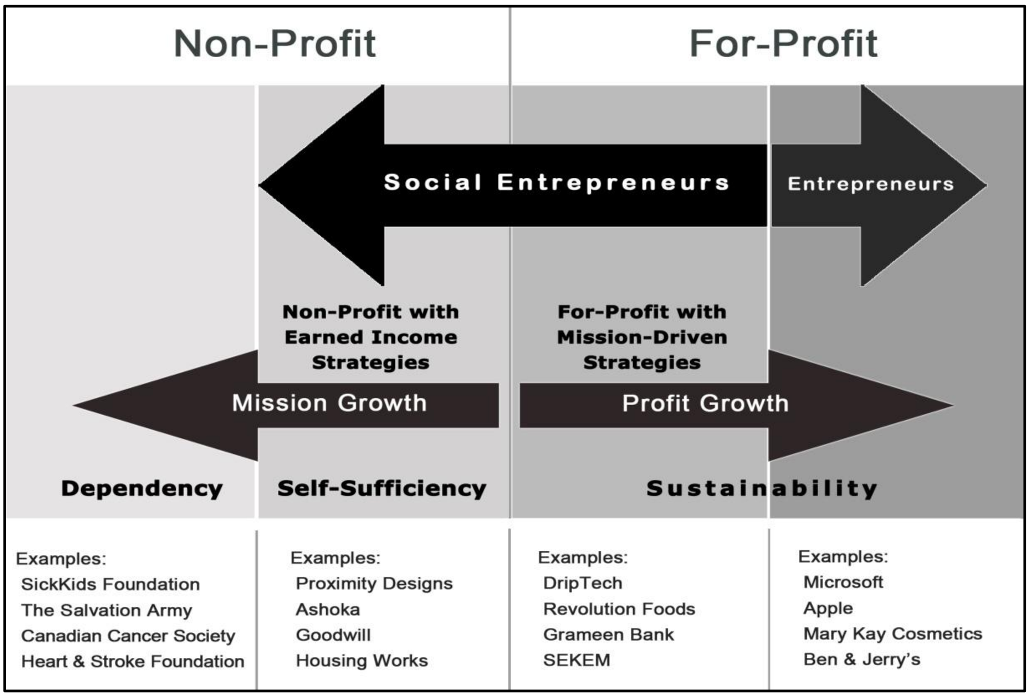

Fig. 3.2: The boundaries of social entrepreneurship

(Source: Abu-Sajfan, 2012, p. 26)

On the other hand, corporate or traditional entrepreneurship organisations focus is on values like growth, profit and sustainability (i.e. Microsoft, see Figure 3.2). However, social enterprise organisations become more and more dependent of those for profit organisations (Abu Sajfan, 2012); therefore, they do not exclude "profit" from their mission. This corresponds with the previous contention by Evans and Laville (2004) that, the third sector operates at the crossroads of other sectors, including - private and public- to serve the public. This has led to understanding the third sector as embedded in the tripolar system (or the "welfare triangle" by Evers and Laville, 2004), including: (i) Market, (ii) State and (iii) Informal Communities (i.e., private households) rather than understanding the "third "as narrowly confined to the clear-cut sectors. The next sub-section clarifies the conceptual demarcations associated with the term 'third sector' and 'social entrepreneurship'.

3.4.4 Social entrepreneurship and the third sector

Third sector organisations (or social organisations) comprise of non-governmental and non-profit-making organisations or associations, including charities, voluntary and community groups or cooperatives (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). The term “social entrepreneurship” has been used in the broad sense referring to a wide spectrum of initiatives, such as voluntary, corporate social responsibility, social enterprise, not-for-profit organisations, or individual initiatives (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010); for instance, Venables (2015) called the third sector *“a pole of social utility between the capitalist sector end the public sector*” (p. 8).

Social ventures refer to organisations that pursue innovation with a social objective which can include for-profit, not-for-profit, or hybrid forms of organising (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006). One of the distinctive aspects of social enterprise organisations is that their success is driven by double-bottom line, which means a blend of financial and social returns, while traditional entrepreneurship is directly tied to generating profit outcomes (Smith-Hunter, 2011). As Mair and Marti (2006) asserted, social enterprises can remain competitive whilst fulfilling their social mission. On the other hand, the one may argue that *“the blurring of boundaries that incorporate profit and social value is a precarious combination of opposing values”* (Brett and O’Gorman, 2013, p. 9).

Moreover, there are different views of the term “social enterprise” within US and European contexts (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010). In the European view, social enterprise organisations rely on resources “hybridisation” combining incomes from sales from public subsidies, private donations and volunteering; this is in contrast with a strong US tendency to define social enterprises as not-for-profit organisations that are more market-orientated, and focused on developing “income earned strategies”, in the face of limited public subsidies (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010).

Social entrepreneurship is concerned with the pursuit of opportunities for enhancing social wealth, where unique resource combinations are used to produce significant social returns (Brooks, 2008). Although social entrepreneurship occurs in different contexts, it is mostly associated with the activities of not-for-profit entities such as: the One Health World, The Gremeen Bank, the Ashoka or Habitat for Humanity (Dess, Emerson and Economy, 2001). However, Zahra, Gedojlovic, Neubaum, and Shalman (2009) argued that social and economic consideration is necessary in the classification of the social entrepreneur; hence, they proposed that:

"Social entrepreneurship encompasses the activities and processes undertaken to discover, define, and exploit opportunities in order to enhance social wealth by creating new ventures or managing existing organisations in an innovative manner" (p. 519).

Austin, Steveson, and Wei-Skillern (2006) in turn suggested that, at a conceptual level the social and commercial entrepreneur may appear the same or very similar but the commercial entrepreneur creates new needs and material desires while, on the other hand, social entrepreneurs address long standing needs and issues within the community. While, it was suggested that their survival is not completely driven by market forces (Coombes et al. 2011), such organisations, groups or societies still require management that can utilise resources, secure funding and target the best opportunities (Austin et al. 2006) and ensure the organisation is innovative and as successful as possible which requires entrepreneurial skills, behaviour, and thinking.

3.4.5 Entrepreneurial behaviour in the not-for-profit context

Not-for-profit or voluntary sector organisations (NPOs) are self-governed entities formed with the purpose of filling a social mission, and given their not-for-profit status, they do not distribute revenues as profits (Boris and Steuerle, 2006). The not-for-profit sector includes organisations in areas like religion, education, health, environment, human services, arts and culture, and political advocacy (Salamon, 1999).

According to Mort, Weerwardena and Carnegie (2003) the environment within which the not-for-profit organisations operate is rapidly changing due to (i) increasing globalisation and changing market structures (ii) increasing needs in their target customers and (iii) a tighter funding environment. This is parallel to "*growing competitions for donors and grants*"(Mort et al. 2003, p. 77) and changes in their institutional environments. According to (Mort et al. 2003) the "Reinventing Government" initiatives have had a large impact by both creating more space for civil (or private) organisations types and at the same time by attracting commercial providers to the market such as child care, aged care, community clubs-industries; however, these industries were usually (or so far) the domain of the not-for-profit sector organisations (Mort et al. 2003). These changes have forced not-for-profit organisations to adopt a competitive posture and to become increasingly entrepreneurial not only in terms of funding, but also in respect to their innovative activities on a day-to-day basis. This raised some interesting questions, like: "*How could an organisation with an overtly social and charitable mission pursue entrepreneurial goals or go about its business in an entrepreneurial fashion?* (Chell, 2007, p 6).

With growing competition and limited access to resources and lack of skilled workforce (Hopkins, 2010) the need for entrepreneurial behaviour was also highlighted in the not-for-profit context. According to (Mort et al. 2003) NPOs differ from their private counterparts in terms of their missions and their operational characteristics, also as regards their stakeholders' motivations (Morris, Franklin and Webb, 2010). People starting up charities, or organising charity events are behaving entrepreneurially (Cooney, 2012(a)), while people in sports clubs or local communities also put entrepreneurial effort into fund-raising (in supermarkets, church gate collections) and organising events (concerts, matches) to keep their organisations afloat and financially sustainable. At the interface of rapid change, competition, limited access to resources, growing demand from those seeking voluntary services, as well as different motivations of those serving on voluntary boards, there is a greater need to adopt more entrepreneurial approaches in managing voluntary domains (Morris, Franklin and Webb, 2011; Chell, 2007).

According to Morris, Coombes, Schindehutte and Allen (2007) "*Declines in welfare system support, reductions in government funding, and lack of adequate sponsorship*" (p. 12) combined to create more competitive pressures within not-for-profit organisations. Moreover, there are growing performance demands from different stakeholders involved in voluntary activities (Dees, Emerson and Economy, 2001). The fast increase in the number and types of not-for-profit organisations also increases the competition for scarce resources, for financial support, and triggered the need for highly-skilled workforce within these organisations (Shmid, 2004, cited in Morris et al. 2007).

Moreover, Coombes, Morris, Allen and Webb (2011) expressed that, little is known about factors triggering entrepreneurial behaviour within organisations driven by non-profit motives. The logic of engaging in innovative, risk-taking, proactive behaviours while also being determined to serve a social mission (e.g. save souls, cleaner environment) and satisfy multiple stakeholders with severely reduced resources "*is not always clear cut*" (Coombes et al. 2011, p. 829) in the not-for-profit organisations. Coombes et al. (2011) asserted that NPOs' boards of directors play a particularly important role in triggering entrepreneurial behaviour in the voluntary sector. According to (Klaussner and Small, 2005, cited in Coombes et al. 2011), NPO boards may, for example, achieve compliance with stakeholder interests, communicate with the public, and establish trust-based relationships that can generate additional resources. Coombes et al. (2011) also expressed that, the board of directors in NPOs can serve as a strategic resource, maintain the integrity of the organisations' social mission, while discouraging managerial opportunism; at the same time, by having a direct impact on the behaviour of managers and employees within these organisations (Herman and Renz, 2004). Moreover, boards in NPOs can stimulate the effectiveness with which the firm resources are deployed and leveraged to take advantage of opportunities.

According to Morris, Webb and Franklin (2011) the not-for-profit sector differs from the profit context in terms of entrepreneurial behaviour, particularly with regard to motivations, processes and outcomes. Thus, the unique aspect of behaviour in voluntary sector organisations refers to the social-purpose motivation of not-for-profits that creates significant differences in terms of their processes and outcomes (Morris et al. 2011). Moreover, NPOs operate in a context where organisations may compete for funds or volunteers but do not compete over market share (Austin, Stevenson and Wei-Skillern, 2006). Hence, it was suggested (Weerwardena and Mort, 2006) that competitive advantage has less meaning in the non-profit context, in comparison to for-profit organisations.

Anheiner (2004) identified several reasons for increased demand for third sector services in Europe. First, third sector organisations are working locally and tend to have more accurate information on local needs and demands of citizens than policy-makers being positioned in the centre (between citizens and government).

Second, by relying largely on voluntary work and charitable donations, third sector entities can deliver results in a less costly manner than private firms or government. More importantly, governments are down-sizing, and are in a process of off-loading some of their traditional tasks to private, non-profit institutions and commercial providers (Anheiner, 2004). There are new markets opening for the third sector hence the demand for various types of services is continuing to evolve (Defourny and Nyssens, 2010).

Third sector entities also play an important role as intermediaries between government and the public and are sources of innovation in services to vulnerable people. They are also vital contributors to the modernisation of public services across Europe (CIRIEC, 2007). This was parallel to the shift in values that no longer attached the responsibility for social security, cultural events, and environmental concerns exclusively with the public sector (Anheiner, 2004). In line with the above findings, there is now more emphasis placed on the role of third sector organisations and their employees within these organisations (Hopkins, 2010).

3.4.6 The importance of entrepreneurial behaviour in public sector organisations

Public sector organisations consist of the core government bodies (i.e. authorities), publicly controlled agencies, public enterprises, state-owned businesses and other entities (i.e. public contractors) that deliver public programmes, goods or services (Dube and Danescu, 2014). However, the concept of the public sector is broader than simply that of core government and may also overlap with the not-for-profit or private sector organisations (Dube and Danescu, 2014). Public sector organisations represent public interests (are socially responsible) and are characterised by transparency, solidarity, democracy, integrity and accountability (Pollit and Bouckaert, 2005). Public sector servants' work is often heavily scrutinised and monitored to ensure maximum productivity and high standards.

Since the 1990s, there are greater expectations for the public sector to become more effective, to behave more entrepreneurially and be more innovation-oriented (Diefenbach, 2011; Kim, 2010; Luke, Verryenne and Kearins, 2010). Traditionally, entrepreneurial behaviour was seen as aberrant in the public sector and it was argued that such behaviour may run counter to the traditional bureaucratic values like democracy (Terry, 1998), accountability (Roberts and King, 1996), or legal constrains (Goodsell, 1993). However, Kim (2010) argued that leveraging opportunities, efficiency and better performance does not preclude promoting other public values like accountability, democracy and responsiveness.

Bernier and Hafsi (2007) interestingly wondered: "*Why should people behave in an entrepreneurial way when the risks are many and the rewards can be limited*?" (p. 488). Zerbinati and Souitaris (2005) explained that since national funds are reduced, taxes cannot be significantly raised and where services are costly and public demand is ambiguous; there will be a greater need for entrepreneurial behaviour in the public sector. Thus, the need to embrace continuous innovation, be responsive, competitive and efficient in a highly turbulent environment changes the nature of public sector organisations (Bernier and Hafsi, 2007) and places more emphasis on the role of employees within these organisations (Westrup, 2013).

Considering that public sector employees operate with different obligations, objectives and accountability, than for example private sector employees, different definitions of entrepreneurial behaviour in the public sector have been proposed. Roberts (2002) for example, focused on the innovative behaviours of employees, and generation and implementation of innovative ideas in public sector practices. In turn, Morris and Jones (1999) approached entrepreneurial behaviour from a different perspective and defined it as "*the process of creating value for citizens by bringing together unique combinations of public and/or private resources to exploit social opportunities* (p. 74)". Kim (2010) defined entrepreneurial behaviour in the public sector in terms of risky, proactive and innovative behaviours of employees and acknowledged the importance of adopting opportunity-driven management and organic structures in supporting such behaviours.

According to Zampetakis (2010), the last decade of public entrepreneurship research suggested that it is essential, especially for large and traditional organisations to support entrepreneurial behaviour across all hierarchy levels in order to improve performance. Moreover, Zerbinati and Souitaris (2005) noted that the empirical data regarding the factors and practices that would motivate entrepreneurial behaviour in the public sector appear to be limited. For instance, the main methods employed to describe entrepreneurial individuals (or public entrepreneurs) were reported mainly in the exploratory to "*ad hoc biographies or case studies*" (Zerbinati and Souitaris, 2005, p. 46) or were confined to describing the achievements of "heroic entrepreneurs" (Bernier and Hafsi, 2007). As a result, such research was focused more on 'what' entrepreneurship is in the public sector (Zampetakis, 2010), rather than understanding 'how' entrepreneurial behaviour occurs within the public setting. Moreover, discussions regarding entrepreneurial behaviour in the public sector were usually confined to top management, or middle managers (Borins, 2002; Morris and Jones, 1999) contrary to the emerging research trend that emphasised the importance of fostering entrepreneurial practices for employees at all management levels (Diefenbach and Meynhardt, 2012; Zampetakis, Bledekos and Moustakis, 2009).

Zerbinati and Souitaris (2005) also questioned whether the nature of public-sector opportunities change the way people discover and exploit them (i.e. no financial reward). In other words, are individuals working in the public sector constrained or limited in their entrepreneurial behaviour? Despite many opinions that individual opportunity-seeking behaviour within the public sector is usually seen as risk-avert, routine, resource-constrained and limited by legal liabilities, it can be argued that public organisations can create supportive conditions (incentives, empowerment, participatory decisions) for individuals to be able to think and act entrepreneurially and contribute significantly to organisational performance. As was argued by Caruna, Ewing and Ramaseshan (2002): "*public sector entities can provide new value to the various stakeholders they serve, by adopting an entrepreneurial approach with the resources over which they have control*" (p. 54).

However, engendering entrepreneurial behaviours, practices and innovation in the public sector is challenging as it requires many adjustments on structural, managerial and environmental levels (Kim, 2010). Hence, entrepreneurial behaviour needs to be adjusted and well-defined before being applied in public sector settings (Boyett, 1996). One of the promising ways of measuring the means by which entrepreneurial behaviours are engendered within organisations was offered by entrepreneurial orientation (EO).

3.5 Entrepreneurial orientation (EO)

Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO) has its origin in the strategic management literature, (i.e., Khandwalla, 1976) and has emerged as a firm-level phenomenon based on the seminal works of Miller and Friesen (1983), Covin and Slevin (1989). EO entails the process aspect of entrepreneurship (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996) and generally refers to a firm's propensity to be innovative, to be proactive and to take risks (Andersén, 2010). At the organisational level the EO and has been used to refer to *"strategy creation processes and the management style of companies having 'entrepreneurial' tendencies*" (Kraus, 2013, p. 3; Lumpkin and Dess, 2001).

EO represents one of the major research domains within the corporate entrepreneurship (CE) literature for over 30 years, where a cumulative body of knowledge is evolving (Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin and Frese, 2009). Entrepreneurial behaviour is usually measured through the concept of EO and its relevant scales (Kraus, 2013; Mair, 2005; Covin and Slevin, 1991). Different terms have been used to describe the EO phenomenon over the years and these include: 'entrepreneurial mode' (Mintzberg, 1973), 'entrepreneurial style' (Khandwalla, 1976) and, 'entrepreneurial posture' (Covin and Slevin, 1989) (all cited in Lumpkin and Covin, 2011).

EO has been shown to positively influence firm profitability, performance and product innovation (Moreno and Casillas, 2008). The literature pertaining to EO was focused on how to manage, adjust, and simulate different entrepreneurial processes required to create wealth, carrying on an organisation's vision or gain competitive advantage (Rauch et al. 2009). Several studies have suggested that organisations demonstrating entrepreneurial orientation perform better ((Wiklund and Shepperd, 2005; Wiklund, 1999; Becherer and Maurer, 1997; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996 (all cited in Krauss, 2013)). However, some studies (Lumpkin and Dess, 2001) reported lower correlations between EO and performance.

Most studies confirmed that EO positively contributed to the organisation's performance but highlighted the importance of different boundary conditions and moderating factors (Van Doorn, 2012). For example, previous research pertaining to

EO has assessed the moderating role of the firm's resources (Wiklund and Sheperd, 2005), learning orientation (Wang, 2008), firm structure (Covin and Slevin, 1991), culture (Lee and Peterson, 2001) or social capital (Stam and Elfring, 2008) (all cited in Van Doorn, 2012).

According to Miller (2011) most researchers have considered EO as a process through which entrepreneurs (or individuals) behave in a certain way in order to create the "new entry" evidenced by a new product, technology, process or idea. Therefore, there has been a careful attempt made in distinguishing entrepreneurship from entrepreneurial orientation- "*that is the content of a new entry form the process of pursuing that entry*" (Miller, 2011, p. 875). Although many scholars consider EO to be an aspect of corporate entrepreneurship (CE) (Covin and Lumpkin, 2011), there is more attention paid to the EO concept than to corporate entrepreneurship. However, the way how these terms are used in the entrepreneurship literature, vary considerably (Miller, 2011).

While research on corporate entrepreneurship (CE) is typically concerned with tangible output measures such as venturing, new products development, new technology or innovation (Kearney, Hisrich and Roche, 2008), entrepreneurial orientation instead embodies a mind-set, a disposition towards entrepreneurship. More precisely, how the preferences towards risky, innovative and proactive behaviour of individual employees may contribute to the realisation of the entrepreneurial orientation of their organisations, as envisioned by (Van Doorn, 2012; Meynhardt and Diefenbach, 2012).

There is evolving interest on studying the entrepreneurial orientation (EO) from the cognitive or attribute perspective and non-observable aspects of entrepreneurship such as entrepreneurial climate, culture and values (Soininen, 2013; Covin and Lumpkin, 2011; Covin, Green and Slevin, 2006). For instance, Covin and Lumpkin (2011) conceptualised EO as variously intensive displayed organisational-traits or attributes, such as culture, climate, entrepreneurial mind-set or entrepreneurial dominant logic. However, the concept of entrepreneurial attribute implies that the quality of attribute depends on the degree of temporal stability associated with appearance of different entrepreneurial behaviours (Covin and Slevin, 1991).

Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) could therefore be an important indicator of the way in which an organisation is structured (Altinay and Wang, 2011) and for example, what role-expectations this organisation addresses towards their employees (Wakkee, Elfring and Monaghan, 2010).

More frequently the literature pertaining to EO suggests that EO entails a type of behaviour that can also be applicable to individuals (Jelenc, Pisapia and Ivanusic, 2015; Bolton and Lane, 2012; Kuratko, Ireland, Covin and Hornsby, 2005). Recently, Lumpkin and Miller (2014) explained that there is merit in considering EO as an individual-level phenomenon, however, it is important to understand the conceptual foundations and how the dimensions of EO are utilised within research, which will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.5.1 Entrepreneurial orientation dimensionality

There were five main dimensions identified in the literature that characterise EO: (1) autonomy, (2) competitive aggressiveness, (3) innovativeness, (4) pro-activeness, and (5) risk taking (see Table 3.1). These dimensions are also relevant to individuals (employees/volunteers). They also vary depending on the context (Miller, 2011).

Table 3.1 Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) dimensions and definitions

EO Dimensions	Definitions
Autonomy	"Independent action of an individual or a team in bringing forth a vision or idea and carrying to completion (...) ability and will to be self-directed in pursuing new opportunities" (Bolton and Lane, 2012, p. 140).
Competitive Aggressiveness	"Intensity of a firm's effort to outperform rivals and is characterised by a strong offensive posture or aggressive responses to competitive threats"(Bolton and Lane, 2012, p. 7)
Innovativeness	"Predisposition to creativity and experimentation through introduction of new processes, services and technological activities via R&D processes" (Bolton and Lane, 2012, p. 221)
Pro-activeness	"An opportunity-seeking, forward-looking perspective characterised by the introduction of new products and services ahead of the competition and acting in anticipation of future demand" (Rauch et al., 2009, p. 7)
Risk-taking	Taking bold actions by venturing into the unknown, borrowing heavily, and/or committing significant resources to ventures in uncertain environments (Rauch et al., 2009, p 7)

(Source: Adopted from Bolton and Lane, 2012 and Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin and Frese, 2009)

Depicted in Table 3.1 are key dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation (EO). They represent a different types of behaviours that individuals or organisations adopt to sustain their organisations' vision or to pursue new opportunities. These five dimensions, defined as behaviours of the organisation, provide an indication of the organisation's overall entrepreneurial nature: a higher EO score leads to higher performance of the firm (Covin and Slevin, 1991). However, these dimensions were also used to describe EO at the individual-behaviour level (Bolton and Lane, 2012; Taatila and Dawn, 2012; Okhomina, 2010).

There are on-going debates regarding the dimensionality of EO, for instance whether EO should be measured formatively or reflectively (Covin and Wales, 2012); and in particular, whether EO is an attitudinal construct, a behavioural one or both (Covin and Miller, 2014; Miller, 2011). For example, Covin and Lumpkin (2011) emphasised that there is merit in understanding the nature of EO and whether it represents a behavioural or dispositional aspect, as "*the assumption being that constructs (or at least those of greatest theoretical value) cannot be both*" (p. 857). These authors continued that, the choice between the two conceptualisations (behavioural or attitudinal) of EO is important in the context of three considerations:

1) EO at the firm-level would be manifested differently in various contexts (i.e. SMEs or large bureaucratic companies);
2) Individuals also exhibit a proclivity toward entrepreneurial behaviour or thoughts.
3) There is a social element in understanding EO. For instance, it is difficult to distinguish EO from other firm-level entrepreneurial attributes that are intangible in nature, such as entrepreneurial culture (Fayolle, Basso and Bouchard, 2010) or entrepreneurial mind-set (McGrath and MacMillan, 2000) (all cited in Covin and Lumpkin, 2011).

Moreover, within the EO literature there is no solid consensus as regards dimensionality of the EO construct (Soininen, 2013; George and Marino, 2011). On the one hand, some scholars suggested (Rauch, Lumpkin, Wiklund and Frese, 2009; Covin and Slevin, 1989) that the EO construct is best viewed as a unidimensional (or composite) construct, where the focal dimensions of EO are seen as highly inter-correlated with each other that leads to combining these dimensions into one single factor. On the other hand, others (Covin, Greene and Slevin, 2006; Lumpkin and

Dess, 2001) insisted that the dimensions of EO may occur in different combinations, each representing independent aspects of a multidimensional concept. Despite this conceptual demarcation, Miller (2011) explained that, the composite and multidimensional views on EO represent distinct constructs, rather than competing perspectives.

Although a prevalent number of scholars have largely coalesced around the understanding that EO is a firm-level phenomenon, Covin and Lumpkin (2011) suggested that EO levels of analysis vary considerably from SMEs, large organisations to multi-business organisations. These authors also remarked that it is not true, that "(...) *individuals cannot, for example, exhibit a proclivity toward entrepreneurial thought and action*" (p. 857). The next section discusses how EO was depicted in literature at the individual level.

3.5.2 Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) at the individual level

Since EO as a behavioural construct was originally considered at firm-level (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Miller, 1983) and was successfully measured (Covin and Slevin, 1991) at this level, it has been argued that EO characteristics can be translated to the individual level (Vantilborgh, Joly and Peppermans, 2014; Taatila and Down, 2012; Kollmann, Christofor and Kuckertz, 2007; Kraus, Frese, Friedrich, and Unger, 2005). As Bolton and Lane (2012) remarked, since one can define an organisation as a result of the individual's behaviours, and since EO has been positively correlated with organisation's performance, the EO dimensions could also be measured at the individual level. For instance, Bolton and Lane (2012*)* argued that*" there has never been a thorough assessment and validation of the EO construct at the individual (not only students) level"* (p. 220).

While individuals' EO was often discussed within entrepreneurship literature in terms of traits or attributes, "*there is little, if any, evidence that it is, can or should be measured as such (at individual level)*" (Covin and Miller, 2014, p. 18). Yet, it remains unclear which traits or skills would underlay EO at the individual level and, more importantly, how EO at the individual level would relate to entrepreneurial behaviour or entrepreneurial success (Vantilborgh et al. 2014). According to Covin and Miller (2011) much of the literature that depicted EO at the individual level revealed that EO was considered as non-behavioural factor representing a disposition towards entrepreneurial behaviour (Voss, Voss and Moorman, 2005, cited in Covin and Lumpkin, 2011), rather than measuring actual behaviour.

Joardar and Wu (2011) were among those who argued that EO can be conceptualised at the individual level. However, they also noted that individuals' values, tendencies and behaviours are embedded and interrelated with the EO of organisations. Thus, Joardar and Wu (2011) focused on the organisation as an "entrepreneurial entity" that in turn exhibits an individual-level of EO. However, they also confirmed that the same dimensions usually conceived at the organisational level namely, risk taking, innovativeness and pro-activeness were also relevant to the concept of EO at the individual level.

Other researchers (Okhomina, 2010; Kuratko et al. 2005; Borins, 2002; Weaver, Dickson, Gibson and Turner, 2002; Robinson, Stimpson, Heufner and Hunt, 1991) also advocated that EO can be conceptualised at the individual level. Some (for example Jelenc, Pisapia and Ivanusic, 2015; Taatila and Down, 2012; Bolton and Lane, 2012) even modified the original M/C&S (Miller' 1983 and Covin and Slevin' 1991) scale to adjust their applicability and purpose for the individual level[12]. However, a prevailing number of studies that analysed EO as Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation (IEO), usually considered it within the boundaries of organisations or in a form of assessment within the organisational EO, but rarely emphasised it on its own (Covin and Miller, 2014; Bolton and Lane, 2012).

Bolton and Lane (2012) suggested that the literature has shown discrepancies in the views concerned with the assessment of what it means for individuals to be entrepreneurial. Bolton and Lane (2012, p. 221) identified three streams of research concerned with EO at the individual-level, namely: (1) Individual's environment (Wiklund and Shepperd, 2005), (2) Personality traits (Okhomina, 2010), and (3) attributes (Harris and Gibson, 2008). They suggested that, a better understanding of EO at the individual level could be valuable in terms of determining career choices,

[12] The M/C&S (Miller and Covin and Slevin) scale (or "ENTRESCALE") was designed to evaluate how organisations perform and how company's executives and entrepreneurs behave. The scale was seen rather as market-orientated and not applicable in the public sector (Diefenbach et al. 2011).

improving individual effectiveness in project teams, for the identification of future business owners or business incubators, as well as supportive in terms of training and skills development. The next sub-section provides an overview of studies relevant to individuals' EO.

3.5.2.1 EO at the individual level – an overview of studies

The prevalent number of studies pertaining to individuals' EO were mostly focused on exploring the relationships between EO and performance (Covin and Slevin, 1989), environment (Wiklund and Sheperd, 2005), personality traits (Okhomina, 2010) or attitudes (Harris and Gibson, 2008; Robinson et al., 1991). Furthermore, there has recently been a re-birth and evolving interest in psychological factors in entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial orientation (EO), hence there is a direct call for a cognitive approach (Jelenc, Pisapia and Ivanusic, 2015; Zhao, Seibert and Lumpkin, 2010). However, as in its core the concept of EO conveys entrepreneurial process or behaviour, most of the studies focused rather on a more dynamic aspect of entrepreneurship, that is entrepreneurial behaviour (Meynhardt and Diefenbach, 2012; Altinay and Wang, 2011; Coombes et al. 2011). Table 3.2 outlines a brief summary of some of the research regarding assessment of individual's attributes, personality traits or behaviours tied to individual-level entrepreneurial orientation.

Table 3.2 Overview of studies of EO at the individual level

Author	**Aim of the study** **Explanatory Variables**	**Context**	**Results: Factors founded to explain EO**
1) Meynhardt and Diefenbach (2012)	Impact of Antecedents on department-level of EO: -Management support (Work discretion, Rewards, Resources) -KPI (localism, multitude of expectations, goals diversity)	250 of middle managers; Germany's Federal Labour Agency (Public sector)	-strong impact of managers localism, multitude of expectations and position tenure on departments' EO - positive impact of Key Performance Indicators (KPI)
2)Altinay and Wang (2011)	To examine the relationship between Socio-cultural characteristics (education, prior entrepreneurial experience, religion) and firms' EO	Small privately owned firms Turkish business owners in London	-previous experience and educational attainment of an entrepreneur has a positive impact on firm's EO - religion-no significant impact observed
3) Okhomina (2010)	To measure relationship between personality traits and EO: - Need for achievement	Used auto dealers in the U.S.	significant correlations between psychological traits and EO, *NAch (.36**)

	(NAch) - Locus of control - Tolerance for ambiguity - Supportive environment		*Tolerance for a. (.32**) *Locus of control (.22*) -positive influence of *internal environment (.31**) *(correlation significant at, 0.01*, 0.05**)
4)Wood, Holt, Reed and Hudgens (2008)	- Appropriate use of rewards -Management support - Resource availability - Supportive organisational structure - Risk-taking and failure Tolerance	Air Force public sector organisations in US	- Appropriate use of rewards - Management support - Supportive organisation's structure - Risk-taking and failure tolerance
5) Jelenc, Pisapia and Ivanusic (2015)	To examine link between EO and strategic thinking capability of employees -Moderating role of demographic variables (education, age)	IT firms in Croatia	-strategic thinking capability (STC) was positively associated with individual entrepreneurial behaviour and pro-activeness; and more founded with female entrepreneurs.
6) Bolton and Lane (2012)	To develop validated IEO scale based on three dimensions: - Innovativeness - Risk-taking - Pro-activeness	1,102 students surveyed at one University in the central southern USA	-development of validated Individual Entrepreneurial Orientation (IEO) scale - Analysis confirmed the validity & reliability of the three EO' dimensions
7) Coombes, Morris Allen, and Webb (2011)	To explore the impact of the board of directors' behaviours on EO in NPOs through behavioural orientations: - strategic vs. operational - cohesive vs. fractionalize - active vs. passive - conservative vs. progressive	Not-for-profit organisations NPOs (art and culture)	- A stronger EO of the NPOs is associated with boards that are more strategic, cohesive and active in their behavioural orientations. -no link between boards' EO and financial performance
8) Harris and Gibson (2008)	- Need for Achievement - Locus of control - Innovation - Self-esteem (self-confidence) Vs. -Past experience	Comparison between community college and university students on their EAO.	-University students had higher EO scores than community college students; -correlation confirmed between entrepreneurial attitudes and past entrepreneurial experience
9) Robinson, Stimpson, Heufner and Hunt (1991)	To measure entrepreneurial attitudes towards: - Need for Achievement - Personal control - Innovation - Self-esteem	63 undergraduate students vs. 54 entrepreneurs and 57 non-entrepreneurs taken as a control group to test validity of EAO	-development of validated-EAO (entrepreneurial attitude orientation) scale -attitudes reported higher among entrepreneurs group

(Source: Current research and adapted from Soininen, 2013, p. 35)

Table 3.2 presents nine publications that were concerned with exploration of EO at the individual level across different contexts, such as public and not-for-profit sector organisations. The first four publications were directly adopted from Soininen (2013) and are presented in a chronological order. The following five publications were chosen by this thesis' author, based on the relevant to EO literature reviewed.

Overall, Table 3.2 informs that (i) the individual's personality traits (Okhomina, 2010), (ii) cognitions (Jelenc et al. 2015) or (iii) attributes (Harrison and Gibson, 2008) were among the main subjects of studies pertaining to EO at the individual level. What is noteworthy about the publications presented above is that the years of the publications suggest that the phenomenon of EO explored at the individual level appears to be novel (apart from the concept of EO at the organisational level that has been studied for over 30 years); and its popularity is evolving, as half of these publications were published after 2010. Among the studies included in Table 3.2 were those that emphasised the importance of socio-cultural factors in enhancing the EO of organisations (Altinay and Wang, 2011; Wood, Holt, Reed and Hudgens; 2008); the importance of behavioural orientations of boards of directors (Coombes et al. 2011); as well as, the necessity for the supportive organisational environment (Meynhardt and Diefenbach, 2012, also Wood et al. 2008). At the organisational level several variables related to the structure of the organisation, management support, resources, appropriate use of rewards were found to have a positive impact on EO.

For example, the study by Altinay and Wang (2011) concluded that Turkish' business owners' educational attainment and their prior entrepreneurial experience impacts positively on the organisation's entrepreneurial orientation. Altinay ad Wang (2011) investigated the impact of socio-cultural aspects such as: education, religion and past experience, on the EO of individual Turkish small business owners in London. Findings of their study demonstrated that the educational attainment and past entrepreneurial experience of a business owner makes a positive influence on a small firm's entrepreneurial orientation (see Table 3.2). Moreover, their study also supports the previous assertions made by (Grilo and Thurik, 2008) and by both ((Clercq and Arenius, 2006 and Peters, 2002 (cited by Altinay and Wang, 2011)) who similarly found that education attainment of entrepreneurs/employees positively contributes to their firms' entrepreneurial orientation and its competencies.

Altinay and Wang (2011) continued that educational attainment *“equips business owners with the skills and reflective mind-sets of understanding customers and responding to their needs* “(p. 658).

There were also studies that explored EO in uncommon contexts such as the not-for profit context (Meynhardt and Diefenbach, 2012; Coombes, et al. 2011; Wood et al. 2008). For instance, the study of Meynhardt et al. (2012) examined the impact of management support and KPI (key performance indicators) of department-level EO in public sector organisations in Germany. Contrary to these authors’ expectations, the impact of management support, work discretion and availability of resources proved to have limited influence on employees’ departmental-level of EO. Instead, the greater impact on department level EO in public sector organisations was caused by: various roles expectations, middle managers’ localism (their willingness to fulfil the local community needs), as well as position tenures (longevity of employment within the particular job role) in the organisation. This study provides novel insights into the role of antecedents being outside of the public sector organisations’ administration.

In turn, the study performed by Coombes et al. (2011) demonstrated that the board’s behavioural orientations play an influential and active role in determining the not-for-profit organisations’ (NPOs) entrepreneurial orientation. In this way, the NPOs’ boards play a role as an important strategic resource (see Table 3.2). For example, boards have more responsibility for setting a strategic direction of the organisation. This is important, as *“strategic orientation allows exploiting external opportunities and pre-empting threats”* (Fiegener, 2005, cited in Coombes et al. 2011, p. 848). Boards can create a relative NPO advantage through the effective management of resources, and coordinating day-to-day operations in a way that may lead to recognition and exploitation of new opportunities. This is in contrast to the for-profit organisations, where boards instead serve a pure governance role, whereas other management departments are involved in executing organisation’s strategic orientation.

Jelenc et al. (2015) took a very interesting approach by exploring individual entrepreneurial orientation (IEO) and confirmed the moderating role of demographic variables such us age, gender, educational attainment and prior entrepreneurial experience in shaping proactive behaviours of entrepreneurs in Croatian IT companies (see Table 3.2). To this end, the results of their study confirmed that females (entrepreneurs) were more proactive than males within their work. Other findings ascertained were that (i) education equips individuals with additional pro-activeness at work; and (ii) past entrepreneurial experience equips individuals with higher proclivity towards risk (Jelenc et al. 2015).

In respect to entrepreneurial orientation (EO), personality traits alone were perceived as insufficient to explain entrepreneurial behaviour, as other influences, such as the environment or the type of organisation and, the context was neglected (Kollmann, Christofor and Kuckertz, 2007; Bygrave, 2004; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Robinson, Stimpson, Heufner and Hunt, 1991). Moreover, it has been argued that personality traits appear to be too static in exploring EO and hence such an approach was criticised for its methodological weaknesses and lack of convergent validity (Shook, Priem and McGee, 2003; Ucbascaran et al. 2001; Robinson et al. 1991). Overall, many scholars has argued (Ucbasaran et al. 2001; Ajzen, 1991; Gartner, 1989) that personality traits are not reliable (or not sufficient) predictors of future behaviours.

Robinson et al. (1991) created a validated framework or scale that allowed for distinguishing the entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs. Developed by these authors the attitudinal scale was an important stepping stone of this investigation regarding EO at individual level. The scale by Robinson et al. (1991) also appears to be the most robust and the most commonly adopted in other research (see for example, Bolton and Lane, 2012, Harris and Gibson, 2008). For instance, it was adopted by Harris and Gibson (2008) within their studies on entrepreneurs and groups of students which suggested that past experience, especially the ones associated with family business, enhanced their entrepreneurial attitudes (see Table 3.2). They concluded that student's entrepreneurial attitudes and their desire to be self-employed were increased by their exposure to entrepreneurial business through family contacts and based on their own past experiences. Therefore, it is deemed appropriate to consider entrepreneurial background and employees'/volunteers' prior experiences, as they appear to be, in the context of many studies (Jelenc et al. 2015; Altinay and Wang 2011; Mair, 2005) important antecedents influencing individual-levels of entrepreneurial behaviour. In a similar manner, Politis (2005) theorised that entrepreneurs draw heavily on their past experiences.

However, establishing entrepreneurial orientation (EO) within any organisation and providing an accommodating context in realising its inherent value and in supporting employees' entrepreneurial orientation is challenging and should be appropriately managed (Van Doorn, 2012). Since the EO of the individuals were identified as closely linked with the internal environment of an organisation (Wiklund and Sheperd, 2005) and its culture (Lee and Peterson, 2001), it is also deemed necessary to consider EO at the organisational level.

3.5.3 Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) at the organisational level

Borins (2002) noted that most barriers to innovative and entrepreneurial behaviours arose within the internal organisation. Borins identified three types of barriers, namely: (1) bureaucratic attitudes (i.e., management resistance), (2) internal organisational obstacles (i.e., legal liabilities, procedures), and (3) political obstacles (i.e., legislatives). These barriers are especially evident within the public sector organisations, where innovation runs against many rules and regulations (Stewart, 2014). Stewart referred to the survey's results carried by the Australian "Management Advisory Committee" (MAC) that identified a wide array of impediments to innovation in the public sector context. Examples of these include: "*risk aversion, lack of access to new technologies, lack of an innovation, lack of feedback on ideas, a silo mentality, politicisation of issues, and a fear of failure*" (Stewart, 2014, p. 241).

Therefore, it may be suggested that the innovative behaviour of employees, especially in the public sector, is not so simple to encourage and it requires the internal support of their organisations (Bysted and Hansen, 2015; Kim, 2010; Morris and Jones, 1999; Kanter, 1984). This refers to the culture within the organisation and the environment and how it supports and encourages employees to seek out new opportunities based on their own initiatives. Other important aspects are trust and empowerment that organisations can afford to share with their employees (Fernandez and Pitts, 2011). Therefore, while it is important to understand the entrepreneurial orientation of employees, it is also important to acknowledge the EO of their organisations (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996; Zahra, 1993; Kanter, 1985). In this context, organisations face many challenges regarding how they can stimulate and create a supportive environment which is conducive to individual entrepreneurial behaviour (Westrup, 2013; Kim, 2010).

According to Kuratko, Hornsby and Covin (2014) employees assess their entrepreneurial capacities in relation to what they perceive to be a set of resources, opportunities and barriers related to entrepreneurial behaviour. Thus, it is important to understand how employees perceive their environment and acknowledge whether organisations support or impede their entrepreneurial and/or innovative behaviours. Kuratko et al. (2014) suggested that in order to stimulate more entrepreneurial behaviours within any organisation, it is important to create a supportive environment that promotes and facilitates innovative and/or entrepreneurial behaviour. They identified five specific dimensions that are important determinants of an environment favourable to entrepreneurial behaviour (see Figure 3.3).

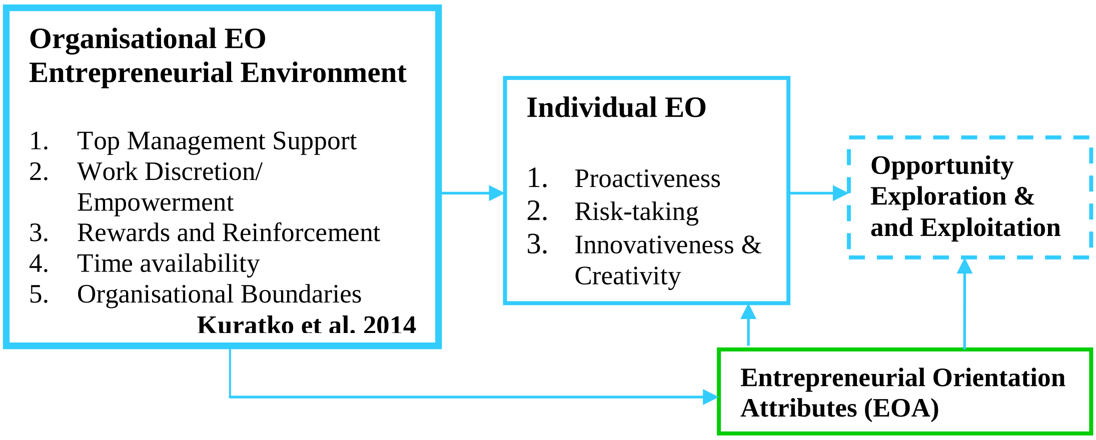

Fig. 3.3: Organisational environment supporting individual's EO

(Source: Adapted from Kuratko, Hornsby and Covin, 2014)

These include: (1) top management support (i.e. promoting behaviour), (2) work discretion (the freedom to decide how to carry work out), (3) rewards/reinforcement systems, (4) time availability and (5) organisational boundaries (a structure, culture). The effective leveraging of these dimensions facilitates and supports more individual entrepreneurial behaviours, which in turn increases the probability of identifying opportunities (see Figure 3.3). Moreover, in the view of (Kuratko et al. 2014) managers and employees across organisations are more likely to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour, when the organisational antecedents to that behaviour are effectively managed, widely recognised, and accepted (see Figure 3.3).

However, to be able to seek new opportunities, there is a need for employees to acquire necessary skills and attributes that enable them to perform their roles more effectively and engage in risky, innovative and proactive behaviours that lead to the pursuit of new opportunities. According to Mulgan and Albury (2003) innovation should be a core activity of the public sector, as it helps to improve performance and create public value (Moore, 1995). Moreover, it is deemed important to foster innovation across all departments, as it was suggested that only half of innovations comes from the top of the organisations (Mulgan and Albury, 2003). Borins (2002), for instance, concluded that *"the largest numbers of innovations are initiated by middle managers and frontline staff*" (p. 469). Borins also highlighted that bottom-up innovation in the public sector context requires strong leadership support and advocacy.

Moreover, Kanter (1984) argued that anyone within an organisation can innovate if the supportive environment is provided and if an individual employee can "*get power to experiment, to create, to develop and to test (in order to) to innovate!"* (p. 20). According to Kanter (1984), innovation at the individual level is a process that begins with problem recognition and the generation of novel or adopted ideas or solutions. Innovations and new and unproven ideas, resulting in more efficient daily operations often arise from employees on the basis of their experience and issues they face on a daily basis (Westrup, 2013; Morris, Kuratko, Schindehutte and Spivack, 2012).

Moreover, Fernandez and Pitts (2011) advised that organisational leaders and senior managers can spur bottom-up innovation within the public sector by empowering their employees and involving them in decisions affecting their work. Empowering employees by increasing their autonomy and participatory decision making – it is an important motivational factor in adopting risk-taking and innovative behaviour

(Borins, 2002; Bozeman and Kingsley, 1998) in public sector organisations as is the essence of organisational EO.

3.5.4 EO in third sector organisations

Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in the not-for-profit context was defined as "*entrepreneurial activity with an embedded social purpose"* (Austin et al. 2006, p.1). According to Morris, Franklin and Webb (2011), the EO refers to the degree to which a firm's posture can be defined as entrepreneurial vs. conservative, and how the organisation's board of managers support the not-for-profit activities. These authors also explained that dimensions of EO are defined in the not-for-profit sector organisations (NPOs) in terms of how the organisation supports its internal structures and activities and not in terms of outcomes at which these activities are directed.

The specific forms of social entrepreneurship in not-for-profit organisations due to its unique motivation, process, and outcome-based differences in the view of Morris et al. (2011), helps to distinguish the nature of entrepreneurship between the profit and not-for-profit context. According to (Morris et al. 2011), the form and meaning in which the EO dimensions (including risk-taking, innovativeness and pro-activeness) are manifested is more complex in comparison to for-profit contexts. These authors also suggested that the distinctive character of EO within the voluntary context can be emphasised in three key aspects:

(i) ***Motivations*.** Morris et al. (2011) noted that, motivations differ among the various stakeholders of NPOs, in terms of decisions, i.e., if it possible to remain financially viable while serving a social mission; on the other hand the decision about growth in the marketplace. Others (Herman and Renz, 2004; Drucker, 1992, cited in Coombes et al. 2011) contended, that while members of the NPOs may include passionate activists who are truly committed to the social mission, it can also involve executives, politicians, and celebrities having relatively little time and limited knowledge in the operations of the organisation. Dees, Emerson and Economy (2001) noted that, while NPOs can emphasise certain commercial forms of entrepreneurship, the predominant emphasis is on serving the social mission. On one side, there is a need to provide value to multiple stakeholders that serve on the NPOs boards; and on the other side, the necessity to generate sufficient revenues to maintain or enhance its operations (Dees et al. 2001).

(ii) ***Processes*** are related to all activities that help NPOs to generate cash flow and gather sufficient resources to fulfil a social mission and ways to enhance delivery of the core service or function (e.g., drug counselling, disaster relief, protection of animal rights). While the processes tend to centre on generating donations and grants, some organisations also create additional revenue generating operations (e.g., concerts, gift shops, charity run). These include: licensing their brand to profit firms to enhance their reputation (Dees, 1998), alliances with profit firms or micro franchising deals to provide a variety of social benefits (i.e., business training, employment, needed products and services). Different stakeholders, involved in NPOs, may also have different opinions regarding growth of their organisations in terms of competitive processes or operational decisions (i.e. national or local scale).

(iii) ***Outcomes*****.** The success in voluntary sector organisations (VO) is measured by the "double bottom line" – a blend of financial and social returns (Smith-Hunter and College, 2008). Thus, it is vital that volunteers have the ability to balance different opportunities: commercial and social missions in order to meet the not-for-profit social, financial and stakeholder objectives (Morris et al. 2011). However, overall, progress in accomplishing the social purpose can be difficult to quantify (e.g., a cleaner environment, cultural enrichment of a community) (Short, Moss and Lumpkin, 2009).

(Source: Morris, Franklin and Webb, 2011)

According to Morris et al. (2011) the way entrepreneurial behaviour materialises in the not-for-profit organisations (NPOs) is significantly influenced by the social-mission motivation of their employees/volunteers, which in turn shapes the key processes and outcomes for these organisations. Social enterprise and voluntary sector employees/volunteers are compelled to maintain their fiscal health and sustainability of their organisations, while fulfilling their social goals; hence, they must learn to align their entrepreneurial behaviour to balance social activism with business-savvy behaviours (McDonald, 2007).

3.5.5 EO in the public sector context: public entrepreneurship

Although little attention has been given to the potential to generate new public value (NPV) (Moore, 1995), recent studies have demonstrated that entrepreneurship in the public sector is alive and well (Matthews, 2014; Diefenbach, 2011; Kim, 2010; Kearney, Hisrich and Roberts, 2008; Morris and Jones, 1999). Kim (2010) in her recent empirical study on EO in the public sector context provided a summary of different definitions that researchers so far have used to describe entrepreneurship in the public sector organisations. According to Kim's review entrepreneurship in the public sector has been defined as: (i) perceptiveness to change (Drucker, 1985), entrepreneurial role behaviour (Moon, 1999), (ii) process of introducing innovation or innovative ideas (Roberts, 2002). Moreover, Kim (2010) defined it as (iii) "*any attempt at creating new opportunities with resulting improvement in government performance characterised by risk taking, innovativeness and pro-activity" (*p 5). According to Sharma and Chrisman (1999), 'public entrepreneurship' is also concerned with the creation of new organisations and the instigation of renewal or innovation within these organisations.

Although the term of "corporate entrepreneurship" (CE) was usually used within the for-profit sector (Kuratko et al. 2014), Kearney et al. (2008) proposed the definition of corporate entrepreneurship that refers to existing public sector organisations. They described CE as "a *process that exists within a public sector organisation that results in innovative activities such as: the development of new and existing services, technologies, administrative techniques, and new improved strategies"* (p.296). Kearney et al. (2008) also compared public and private sector organisations and suggested that although the concept of corporate entrepreneurship (CE) was designed to describe practices of private organisations, it may also apply within the public context. Corporate entrepreneurship entails "*fostering entrepreneurial behaviours within existing organisations*" (Kearney et al. 2008, p 308) and it has been proven to facilitate organisations' performance.

There are divided opinions among researchers whether entrepreneurship can be applied in the public sector or not (Kim, 2010). Critics of entrepreneurship in the public sector even referred to potential threats to democratic governance and mentioned detrimental effects of rule breaking, competition, and self-interest of their managers (Rhodes and Wanna 2007; Du Gay 2000; Terry 1998, all cited in Diefenbach, 2011). Acknowledging that public organisations must adapt to fast changing and hostile external environments, manage internal pressures, meet ambiguous citizens' needs, and be technologically-savvy (Bernier and Hafsi, 2007), the adoption of entrepreneurial practices into the public sector "*could be a sound approach for satisfying citizens' needs for more efficient, more responsive, and lower cost government"* (Kim, 2010, p 2). Embraced with the need to improve effectiveness, to foster efficiency and to raise responsiveness to the ambiguous citizens' needs, a number of market-based approaches have been introduced into the public sector (Kim, 2010). Examples of these include privatisation, public-private partnership, entrepreneurship, outsourcing (Kim, 2010); as well as a number of administrative reforms introduced to the public sector organisations under the umbrella term *'reinvention'* (i.e., "New Public Management", the "Entrepreneurial Government" (Pollit and Bouckaert, 2004; Osborne and Gaebler, 1992).

Kim (2010) supported the concept that the public sector needs to be aligned to stimulate entrepreneurial activities and that employees should be allowed to function beyond the remit of their job description as organisational rigidity can prevent entrepreneurial and risk-taking behaviour. Kim also suggested that 'public entrepreneurship' can be a key method to manage innovation and a way of improving government performance in the delivery of key social services. However, behind the idea of public entrepreneurship is more than being enterprising, market-savvy or business-like (Kim, 2010; Sadler, 1999). Rather, the idea of 'public entrepreneurship' is to extend its domain competence and "*to increase opportunities, to take challengeable ideas and find ways to offer more public choices and benefits, providing high-quality services to citizens*" (Kim, 2010, p. 2). Moreover, the adoption of entrepreneurial practices into the public sector could be beneficial in terms of better management and employee relationships, improved customer service, job satisfaction, improved communication and more appropriate reward systems (Kearney et al. 2008).

According to Bozeman (2007) the adoption of entrepreneurial practices in the public sector organisations, such as searching for innovative opportunities and providing the ability to be proactive can improve 'in house' capacities by contributing to public sector values like sustainability, productivity and accountability. Public entrepreneurship can be instigated, by introducing participatory style of decision-making processes (Kanter, 1984), empowering their employees in decision-making processes in their organisations (Bysted and Hansen, 2015) or by rewarding them for achievements at work (i.e. successfully accomplished work projects). Kim (2010) advocated that it is possible to stimulate entrepreneurial behaviours in public sector organisations by adopting opportunity-driven management (rather than resource-driven strategies). Kim also suggested that EO in the public sector context can be described through core EO' dimensions, as presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Entrepreneurial orientation in the public sector context

EO variables	Description
(i) Risk taking	It assumes uncertainty of outcomes and awareness of failure; because of the need for accountability and responsiveness, generally public employees are inclined to be risk-averse and avoid risky alternatives (Berman and West, 1998). However, some scholars argued (Bozeman and Kingsley, 1998; Drucker, 1985) that risk-taking propensity can contribute to desirable outcomes of performance) and it should be part of daily work life for public managers.
(ii) Innovativeness:	As many public (sector) services are non-transferable (to private sector), and because of opportunities rapidly change, there is a need to find new solutions in order to provide services effectively and promptly respond to social, technological and economic changes. Innovation in the public sector may range from the development of new services, products or, ideas to the improvement of existing managerial processes and institutional tasks through redefining existing resources (Morris and Kuratko, 2002). According to Kanter (1984) there are three steps which public (sector) organisations may take to advance innovativeness: (1) eliminating structural barriers to flexibility, (2) empowering and rewarding staff, (3) developing an entrepreneurial climate.
(iii) Pro-activeness:	It refers to "aggressive" posture of anticipating future opportunities, preventing problems, bearing risk, communicating effectively internally and with the external environment and implementing new services, ideas or products (Morris and Kuratko, 2002) before others do. It implies "*the active search for creative solutions, taking the initiative to introduce change, implementation and responding rapidly to opportunities, employing the best resources, not passiveness*" (Salazar, 1992, p. 33).

(Source: Adapted from Kim, 2010)

Each of the behaviour types depicted in Table 3.3 reflects EO that applies in public sector organisations (Kim, 2010). However, of a note is that public sector organisations face many challenges regarding the creation of an appropriate and supportive internal environment, the one that stimulates and encourages more entrepreneurial behaviours on the part of individuals/ employees (Kuratko, Hornsby and Covin, 2014; Kanter, 1984).

3.6 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed relevant areas of literature that would guide the current study in greater understanding of employee'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO), and in particular their entrepreneurial behaviour. As the concept of entrepreneurial orientation is inherent to the entrepreneurial process and is concerned with fostering entrepreneurial and innovative behaviour (Kearney at al. 2008), these areas of literature were explored in a greater detail. Moreover, since EO applies to both individuals and organisations, and was also studied in both public and voluntary sector contexts, this chapter also provided a discourse on how EO can be understood in both public and third sector contexts.

This chapter also provided insights as regards the importance of the organisational support and creating an appropriate environment that would facilitate and encourage employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial and innovative endeavours. Moreover, it describes three core behaviours of the EO- namely, proactiveness, risk-taking and innovativeness, and shows how these behaviours may apply within the public sector context (Kim, 2010). Finally, this chapter reviewed literature available on entrepreneurial orientation at the individual level, also on EO at the organisational level, as there was an indication that, the EO at the individual level is inevitably linked to organisations' EO and their structure (Covin and Lumpkin, 2014; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996). Moreover, the previous literature concerned with entrepreneurial behaviour and practices in existing organisations suggested that, the challenge appears especially for the public sector employees, who may be less motivated (Bysted and Hansen, 2015); receive limited empowerment (Fernandez and Pitts, 2011); or be unable to behave entrepreneurially due to the red tape or remit of their job decryptions (Kim, 2010).

Despite the magnitude of research pertaining to entrepreneurial orientation (EO) (Anderson, Kreiser, Kuratko, Hornsby and Eshima, 2015; Covin and Miler, 2014; Miller, 2011) there appears to be a paucity of research that focuses specifically on entrepreneurial behaviour at the level of individual employees/volunteers. Such a gap identified, has led this author's observation that although the research area as regards individual EO is growing in its popularity, the empirical evidence appears to be still meagre. With this in mind and based on the comprehensive literature review on EO, the author of this study thought it plausible to perform an exploratory analysis of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation in public and third sector organisations.

In light of this theoretical frame, the next chapter, Chapter 4, draws attention to the practical aspects of this research and thus details the particular research design. It also provides justification in choosing the research strategy and underlines this research's philosophy and the data collection method used in this study.

Chapter 4

Research Design

Chapter 4 Research Design

4.1 Introduction

This chapter informs the reader of the methods adopted in performing this current research. This chapter commences by presenting the research problem, research question and objectives to be explored. It provides a conceptual framework that identifies the current research area and identifies areas of literature relevant to the current study. The model of “research onion” by Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2011) and the functionalist model of the research process by Bhattacherjee (2012) are both utilised to put the research process and design in context. Next, the overview of research philosophies are considered highlighting the main features and differences of both phenomenological and positivist paradigms. This leads on to the exploration of two popular methods in the social science field. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches are reviewed. It is highlighted where one is more appropriate than the other for this research. Also discussed is the nature of inductive and deductive approaches. This chapter also informs what steps were undertaken to ensure and secure, respectively the validity and the reliability of this study’s data. The author provides a comprehensive analysis of the data collection method selected and provides the rationale for the research strategy (a survey) and techniques (an on-line questionnaire) adopted in this study. Details of the sampling technique employed are also presented. Finally, this chapter is underpinned with an overall chapter summary.

This research was a multi-country research and the selection of the survey’s countries’ organisations was purposive. As the researcher was actively involved working on the FIERE project[13] (coordinated by the research team in Ireland), this increased the opportunity of access to the targeted organisations in all six partner-countries/regions (see also Chapter 1, under section 1.2 “Research context”).

[13] The FIERE (Furthering Innovative Entrepreneurial Regions of Europe) project aims to support organisations’ employees to behave more entrepreneurially and innovatively within their work environment. See more: http://www.fiereproject.eu/

4.2 Research problem

Over the last 30 years, the concept of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) has attracted considerable attention in the field of entrepreneurship research (Covin and Miller, 2014; Miller 2011). According to Covin and Lumpkin (2011) the research on the topic of EO is evolving at an increasing rate; for instance, these authors reported that, "*109 of the 256 academic journals (on the concept of EO) were published between January 2008 and December 2010*" (p. 855). Generally, EO is understood as an organisation's propensity to be innovative, to be proactive and to take risks (Andersén, 2010; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996). However, since EO is a behavioural concept and since an organisation's performance is determined by individuals' behaviour (Covin and Slevin, 1991), many researchers have suggested (for example: Jelenc, Pisapia and Ivanusic, 2015; Bolton and Lane, 2012; Altinay and Wang, 2011) that it is also plausible to explore EO at the individual level.

Covin and Slevin (1989) asserted that, "*firm performance is a function of organisational as well as individual level of behaviour*" (p. 8); hence the individual level of behaviour on the part of employees may affect organisations' actions and vice versa. Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) is primarily concerned with the process aspect of entrepreneurship and it is also conceived to explain entrepreneurial behaviour. Therefore, apart from the demographics, this study also delves into a more dynamic aspect of individuals' EO and ascertains employees'/volunteers' past entrepreneurial behaviour and their proactive behaviour at work.

Interestingly, previous research also suggested that EO can be explored in different contexts, such as not-for-profit (Morris, Franklin and Webb, 2011) or public sector organisations (Diefenbach, 2011; Kim, 2010; Kearney, Robert and Hisrich, 2008). Miller (2011) asserted that the performance implication of EO varies across contexts from organisations to regions and from countries to international markets. Moreover, Kraus (2013) noted that service sector organisations were rather rarely a subject of empirical research pertaining to EO. Dobo´n and Soriano (2008, cited in Kraus, 2013) even asserted that there is a general paucity of entrepreneurship literature that specifically concentrates on the service sector. Furthermore, others (Venables, 2015; Defourny and Nyssens, 2010) verified that there is still research needed as regards understanding the performance and behaviour of third and voluntary sector employees/volunteers; and especially when considering the repercussion of the recession (2008) and its impact on the way how both public (Sweeney, 2013) and third sector (Venables, 2015) organisations operates.

Combined together, harsh socio-economic conditions caused by the latest recession (2008), compounded by public expenditure cuts, severe long-term unemployment, downsizing and though austerity programmes provided, in author's opinion, an ideal context for studying EO at the levels of employees/volunteers in public sector and third sector organisations.

After reviewing literature relevant to EO (for example: Covin and Miller, 2014; Covin and Wales, 2012; Covin and Lumpkin, 2011; Miller, 2011), it was surprising to see that most studies explored the link of EO and performance at the organisational level (Rauch, Wiklund, Lumpkin and Frese, 2009).Yet, there was a paucity of studies, and/or a limited number of studies focussed specifically on how individuals perform within different organisations. Previous research assessed the moderating role of different factors, i.e., resources (Wiklund and Shepherd, 2005) environmental attributes (Lumpkin and Dess, 2001), firm structure (Green, Covin and Slevin, 2008), or culture (Lee and Peterson, 2001), that shape such performance. However, these studies have not specifically focused on behaviours of employees/volunteers. Influenced by these findings the current researcher considered as appropriate and inspiring to perform an exploratory analysis to understand the extent to which employees/volunteers are entrepreneurially orientated in their job roles.

4.3 Research question

According to Sekaran (2003) a research question adds clarity to the research problem and once the literature review is completed, it allows the researcher to narrow down the problem and define the research issues in a more precise way. Bhattacherjee (2012) asserted that research questions are specific questions about a behaviour, event, or phenomena of interest that researchers seek to answer in the research process. Research questions can delve into the research issues of "what, why, how and, when". Bhattacherjee (2012) also noted that "*more interesting research* *questions are those that appeal to a broader population, i.e., "how can firms innovate?*" (p. 21).

Alford (1998, cited in Hennik, Cutter and Bailey, 2011) described the difficulties that most researchers face when searching for and designing research questions. It is a process in which they move from uncertainty to panic about how he/she will get everything done. Alford (1998) also emphasised the importance of an 'academic attitude' (p. 33), whereby the student may seek feedback from peer researchers and receive critical remarks about the quality of the research design. After undergoing the aforementioned 'difficulties', the author of this research arrived at the following (investigative) research question:

> *How can employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) be identified in order to understand their entrepreneurial behaviour at work and identify the antecedents underlying that behaviour?*

This question has led author to the final research question (RQ):

> **An exploratory analysis of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in public and third sector organisations.**

Saunders, Lewis and Tornhill (2003) suggested that the research question is born directly from the identification of the research problem and that the statement of the research question is often the precursor to the study's research objectives.

4.4 Research objectives and conceptual framework (CF)

When formulating the research question, the objectives are simultaneously identified, as they logically follow the research question (Hennik et al. 2011). Research objectives are characterised by statements such as: "*the objective of this study is to….explore…identify….ascertain…to determine*" (p. 35). Research objectives lead to "greater specifity" than the research question (Saunders et al. 2003). The key objectives of this research are:

- To identify employees'/volunteers' prior entrepreneurial behaviour including their past entrepreneurial experiences;
- To ascertain employees'/volunteers' current entrepreneurial behaviours at work (to determine if they behave entrepreneurially in their current roles);

- To determine if organisations require employees/volunteers to exhibit entrepreneurial orientation-related attributes (EOA) or behave in innovative and creative manner in their current roles;
- To explore the individual organisations' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) and to understand if organisations facilitate or hinder employees' entrepreneurial behaviour.

To identify the areas of literature relevant to this study and provide focus and structure, the conceptual framework was designed (see Figure 4.1). A conceptual framework (CF) is like a research blueprint or a "concept mapping" (Maxwell, 2005) that allows the reader to clearly portray and identify the components of the research questions and to demonstrate how they are interrelated. The conceptual framework also:

- Provides clarity to the concepts that are being investigated in the study;
- Provides a way to further refine the research questions;
- Reflects the expected relationships between the concepts that will be explored.

(Hennik, Hutter and Bailey, 2011, p. 41)

Figure 4.1 presents the conceptual framework (CF) that illustrates the research title, highlights the research question and the research objectives, and provides structure and clarity to the literature areas being explored in this study. These include: (i) research process, (ii) entrepreneurial behaviour and entrepreneurial attributes, and (iii) the concept of the entrepreneurial orientation (EO) explored at both- individuals' and organisations' levels (see Figure 4.1).

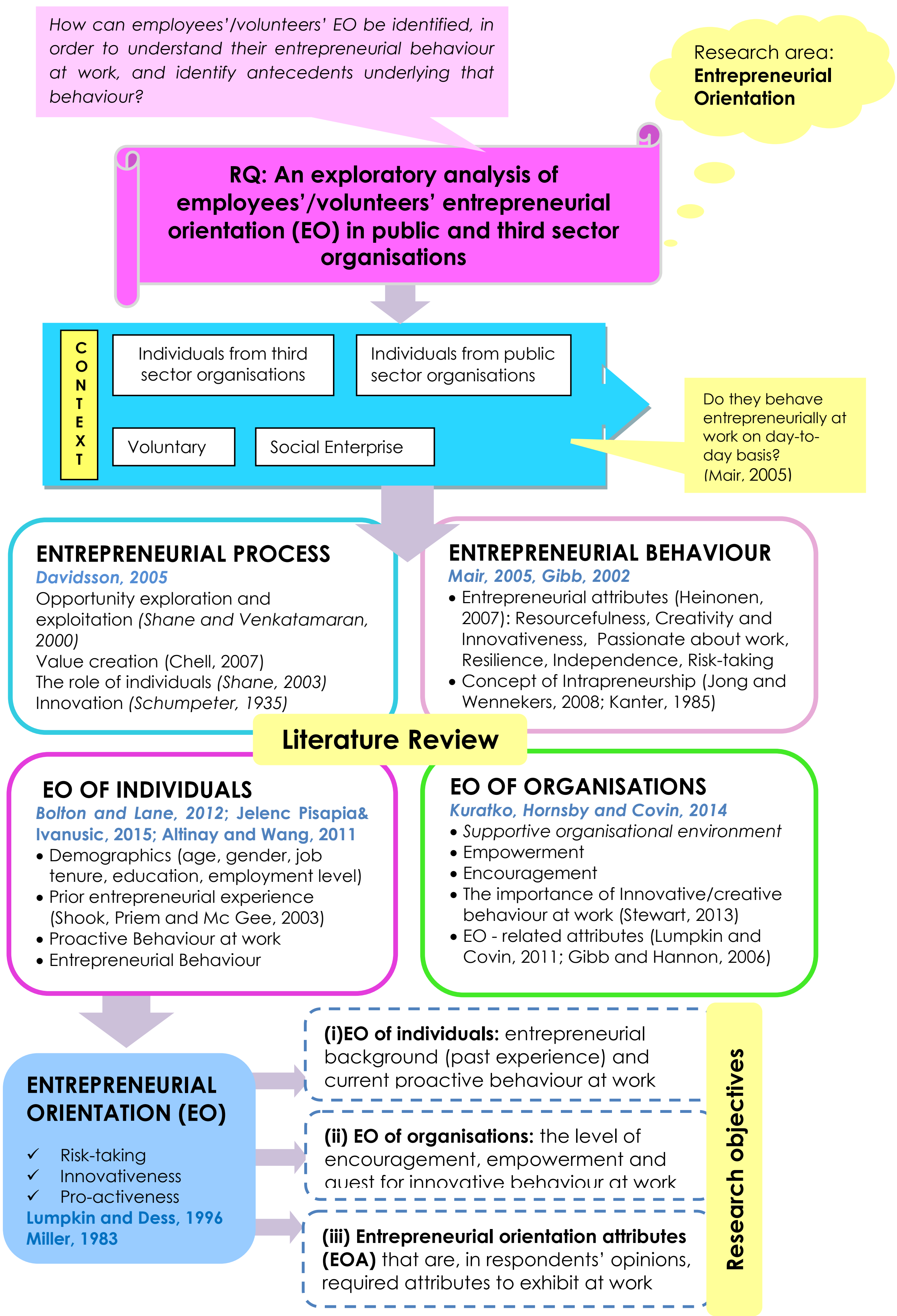

Figure 4.1: Conceptual Framework (Source: Author)

4.5 Research design

The research process can be understood as a research journey and a multi-staged process that researchers must undertake to accomplish the research project (Saunders et al. 2003). The research process is concerned with organising the research activities; it is a blueprint plan to facilitate progression from the research question to the answer (Easterby, Smith, Lowe and Thorpe, 1991). Sekaran (2003) described the research process as a systematic and organised effort to investigate the research problem for which the researcher seeks to provide a solution. Crotty (1998, cited in Creswell, 2013) suggested a framework that consists of four interrelated questions that every researcher should consider before designing a research proposal (Figure 4.2).

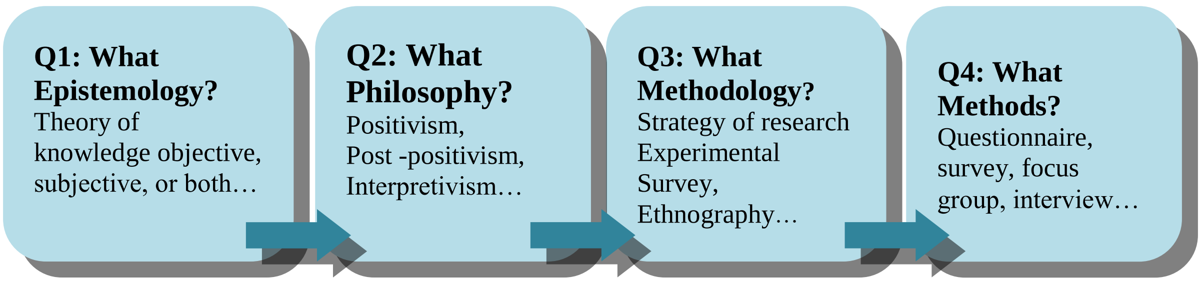

Fig. 4.2: The key questions that assist academic research process

(Source: Crotty, 1998, cited in Creswell, 2003, p. 3)

According to Creswell (2013) these questions display how "*elements of inquiry*" (i.e., knowledge claims, strategies, and methods) (p. 4) are combined to form different approaches to research (Figure 4.2). Using these four questions, a researcher can identify either the quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods approach to his/her inquiry (Creswell, 2013). Preliminary steps in designing a research proposal are first to assess the knowledge claims that are adopted in the study, to consider the strategy of inquiry that will be used (i.e. survey), and to identify specific methods (i.e., interview, questionnaire) to collect data (Figure 4.2).

Saunders, Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2011) conceptualised the research process using the analogy of the 'research onion' (see Figure 4.3). They described the research process as being made up of many research steps or "layers" that must be "peeled away" starting with the philosophy, followed by the research approach, the research strategy, timelines of the research. This leads finally to the data collection methods. Using the "research onion" model, the current research was built on the following "layers" (see Figure 4.3):

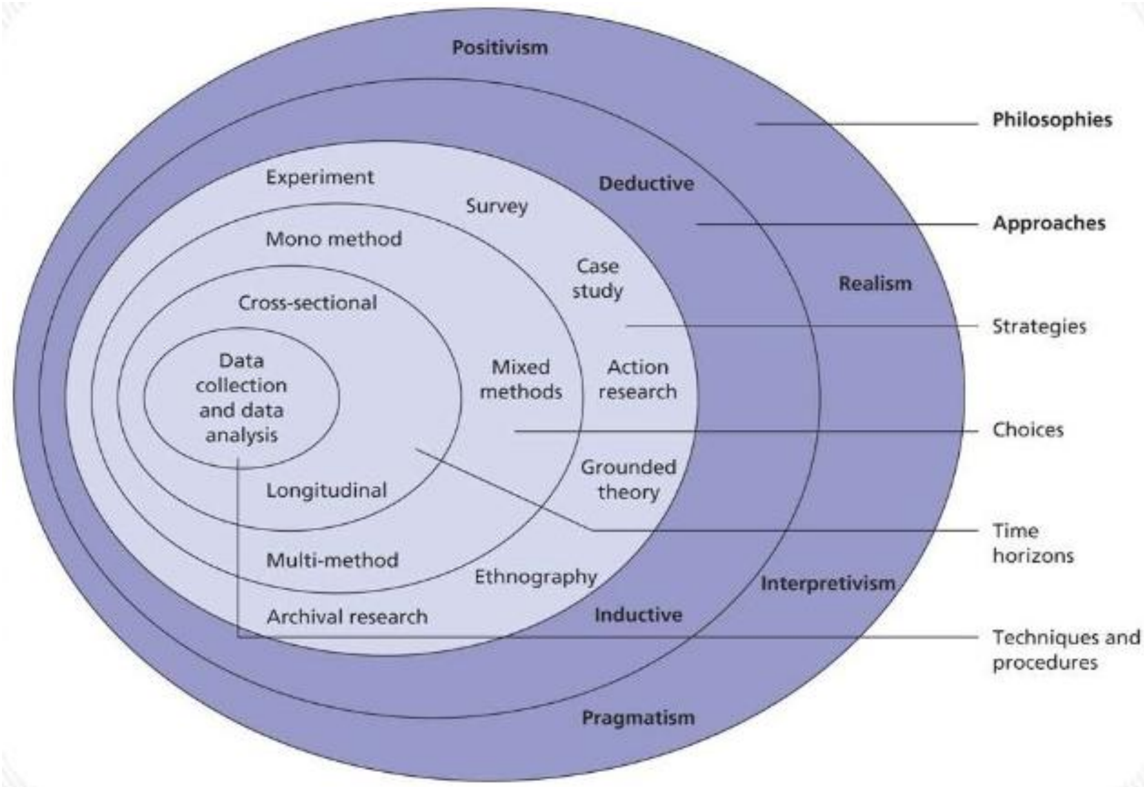

Fig. 4.3: The research process onion

(Source: Saunders, Saunders, Lewis and Tornhill, 2011, p. 108)

First, this study is influenced by Positivist, Objectivist and Functionalist paradigms (*Research philosophy*). The aim of this research is to record objective facts (positivism), to provide generalisations from the study phenomenon, with no intervention of the researcher in the research process (functionalism). Second, this study adopts a deductive approach (*Research approach*), by employing a survey as the main strategy (*Research strategy*). This research is deductive in nature, as it involves theory testing, not theory-building. A survey strategy was employed in the current research, as surveys facilitate efficient data collection and enables relatively "easy" access to a geographically dispersed sample. This current research adopts a quantitative approach as it deals with numerical data or measurable attributes, which is also in line with the positivist paradigm. This is a mono-method study, where the researcher combines the knowledge drawn from the literature with collected data to test theory (Saunders et al. 2011).

Finally, this study is cross-sectional in nature (*Time horizons*), and self-administrated on-line questionnaires (*Research technique*) were employed to collect the data for the current study (see Figure 4.3). This research is not interested in observing behaviour over time, but it will generate answers to the research question at a snapshot in time; therefore a cross-sectional design is the most appropriate. An on-line questionnaire is the technique employed within this study, as it represents an efficient and standardised means of collecting data from a large sample. Questionnaire also offers a relatively inexpensive way of collecting data from a geographically dispersed sample (Saunders et al. 2011). While the "research onion" model was used to visualise the overall design and strategy adopted in this research, Figure 4.4 depicts a series of activities to be performed for the functionalist or positivist research style (Bhattacherjee, 2012). Thus, this model was utilised to reflect a series of research activities performed in this study (see Figure 4.4). These included:

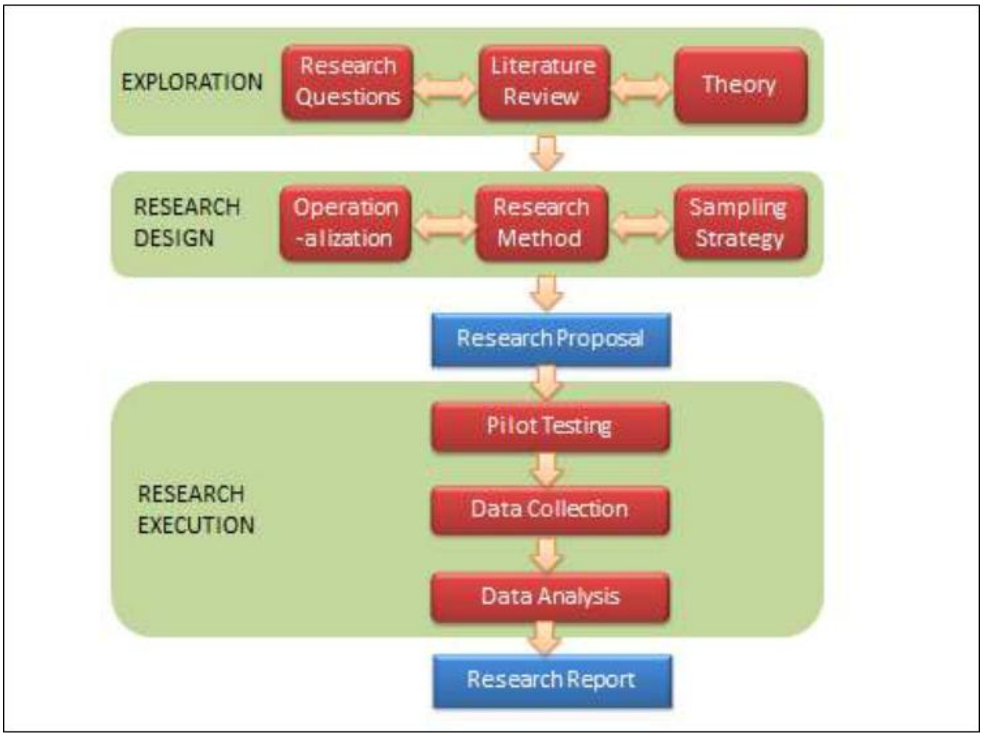

Fig 4.4: Functionalistic and deductive research process
(Source: Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 20)

(1) Exploration: ***(1-3 months)*** this phase is concerned with exploring and selecting the research questions for further investigation (see Figure 4.4). Subsequently, the literature review in the domain of interest is conducted (here for example, entrepreneurial process and entrepreneurial orientation, EO). Relevant theories are identified that allow explanation of the concepts derived from the literature review that are logically related to the research question (i.e. upon-echelon theory) (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

(2) Research Design: ***(4-12 months)*** this phase includes the following activities:

- *Operationalisation phase:* This means specifying the means of measurement of the desired construct (e.g., how many items, what items, and what instrument). In this phase, a conceptual framework was designed.
- *Selecting a research method:* If the survey is desired, the type of survey must then be decided: a mail survey, telephone survey, web survey, or a combination? In the current research an on-line survey was chosen.
- *Setting an appropriate sampling strategy:* choosing the target population (employees/volunteers in the public and third sector organisations) from which researchers want to collect data, and using sampling strategy to select a sample from that population (simple random sampling).
- *Research proposal*: the research proposal should include what research questions the researcher wishes to study, and why. It also presents the prior state of literature in the area, theories the researcher wishes to employ (along with hypotheses to be tested), and how to measure constructs within the research (see Figure 4.4).

After deciding who to study (subjects), what to measure (concepts), and how to collect data (research method), the researcher can proceed to the research execution phase.

(3) Research Execution: ***(13-17 months)*** this phase included pilot testing, data collection and data analysis (see Figure 4.4). Pilot testing helps to detect potential problems in the research design and/or instrumentation (i.e., if the questions asked are understandable, Bhattacherjee, 2012). Depending on the type of data collected the data analysis may be quantitative (i.e., statistical techniques-regression) or qualitative (i.e., coding or content analysis). The research process should be described in sufficient detail in the final thesis, so as to allow other researchers to replicate the performed study, test the findings, or "*assess whether the inferences derived are scientifically acceptable"* (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 23). The final stage of this research process involved writing up, formatting and editing of this thesis, which took about 5 to 6 months.

4.5.1 Types of scientific research

Saunders et al. (2011) suggested that depending on the formulation of the research question, it would direct the research toward exploratory, descriptive or explanatory studies, or a combination of the three. However, as Robson (1993) specified, these studies may often overlap (i.e. the research question can be descriptive and explanatory), and that the purpose of the enquiry may change, as the research progresses. Bhattacherjee (2012) asserted that exploratory research *"is often conducted in new areas of inquiry*" (p. 6), where the goals of research are:

(1) to scope out the magnitude or extent of a particular phenomenon, problem, or behaviour;
(2) to generate some initial ideas ("hunches") about the phenomenon;
(3) to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study regarding that phenomenon.

(Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 6)

The current study is exploratory in nature with elements of descriptive analysis. This study is concerned with portraying the facts and understanding the nature of the problem (whether or not employees/volunteers are entrepreneurially orientated at work) and to deduct general findings in relation to the research objectives. Exploratory studies are valuable in discovering "*what is happening; to seek new insights; to ask questions and study phenomena in a new light*" (Robson, 1993, p. 42). These studies are especially applicable, when the researcher is uncertain of the precise nature of the problem being studied (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

Descriptive studies are often "an extension" of exploratory studies, where the objective is "*to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations"* (Robson, 1993, p. 43) to facilitate the identification of general patterns. Descriptive studies are based on making careful observations (that are replicable and precise) and detailed documentation of the research phenomenon. As Robson (1993) concisely remarked that main aim of descriptive studies is *"to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situations"* (p. 4).

Finally, explanatory studies involve explanations of observed phenomena, problems, or behaviours (Saunders et al. 2011). Explanatory research seeks to "*connect dots in research*" (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 6), by identifying casual relationships between the variables and outcomes of the studied phenomenon. While the descriptive study seeks to answer when, what and where, explanatory research seeks to answer why and how incidents occur (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

4.6 Research philosophy

Research philosophy dictates the way individuals think about the development of knowledge (Saunders et al. 2003). Saunders et al. (2011) also cautioned that careful consideration must be given to the initial development of the research, specifically, the choice of research philosophy, before the researcher evaluates the suitable tools for data collection. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Jackson (2012) listed many reasons of why it is important to consider research philosophy at the initial stage of research. Firstly, it assists in clarifying the research design and deciding on the overall strategy to be used. Secondly, the knowledge of philosophy can help the researcher to recognise which design will work, and which will not, by highlighting the limitations of a particular approach. Thirdly, it assists the researcher to identify or "*to create designs that may be beyond of his/her past experience"* (Easterby et al. 2012, p. 17).

Bhattacherjee (2012) noted that there is often confusion between the terms 'method' and 'methodology' in the research methods literature. The term 'method' can be understood as the tools that are used in the process of data collection, or techniques, such as questionnaire or interviews. 'Methodology' however has a more philosophical context and it is usually used to express the paradigm or approach undertaken in the research process (Bhattacherjee, 2012). It refers to how we gain knowledge about the world and how we collect data (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008).

Paradigms are: "*models or frameworks for observations and understanding which shape both of what we see and how we understand it*" (Babbie, 2007, p. 32). Denzin and Lincoln (2008) defined 'paradigm' as a "*net that contains the researcher's epistemological, ontological and methodological premises (p. 31)"*. According to Creswell (2003), researchers make claims about "*what is knowledge (ontology), how we know it (epistemology), what values go into it (axiology), how we write about it (rhetoric), and the processes for studying it (methodology)"* (p. 6). However, most philosophical debates are concerned with matters of ontology and epistemology (Easterby, Thorpe and Jackson, 2012).

Ontology refers to, what researchers think reality looks like and how they view the world (Hennik, Hunter and Bailey, 2011). It assumes reflection *"on the nature of phenomena, entities, or social reality"* (Mason, 2002, p. 11, cited in Hennik et al. 2011). A multitude of ontological perspectives are available, each of them referring to different perspectives of what reality is made of, for example *"of actions and behaviour, of object and subject, of facts or values*" (Mason, 2002, p. 5).

Epistemology refers to individuals' assumptions about the best way to study the world. For example, epistemology explores the issues, such as *"what might represent knowledge or evidence of the social reality that is investigated*" (Mason, 2002, p. 16).

Using these two sets of assumptions (ontology and epistemology), Bhattacherjee (2012) referred to the work of Burrell and Morgan (1979), who categorised social science research into four distinctive paradigms, namely: (1) Functionalism, (2) Interpretivism, (3) Radical humanism and (4) Radical structuralism. Following the typology by Burrell and Morgan (1979), researchers adopt a functionalist paradigm when: (i) they view the world as a consisting mostly of social order (ontology); (ii) they believe that the best way to study the world is by using an objective approach (epistemology); (iii) they remain independent from the studied subject; and (iv) when they conduct observations of patterns of behaviour and apply standardised data collection tools like surveys (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). In contrast, researchers use an interpretive approach when they believe that the best way to study the social phenomenon is subjectively, by, for example, interviewing the participants involved (Bhattacherjee, 2012). If researchers assume that the world consists of radical change and they seek to understand the change using an objectivist approach, then they are adopting radical structuralism. Alternatively, if they seek to understand a social change using a subjective perspective, then they (researchers) concur with radical humanism principles (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). In relation to the aforementioned paradigms, this research is supported by both functionalist and positivists' philosophy, where a researcher records facts and remains independent of what is being researched.

Despite the many different paradigms available within a scientific research (Creswell, 2013; Saunders et al. 2011), there are two dominant paradigms that are relevant to quantitative and qualitative research, respectively (Hennik et al. 2011):

(i) Positivism (scientific approach)
(ii) Phenomenology (interpretative approach)

A practical summary of these philosophical approaches is provided in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 Features of Positivist and Phenomenological paradigms

	Positivism Paradigm	*Phenomenological Paradigm*
Key Characteristics	-The world is objective -Research undertaken in a value-free way -The researcher is independent of what is being studied	-World is socially constructed and subjective -The researcher is part of what is being observed -Science driven by human interest
Researcher Tasks	-Focus on facts -Look for causality and fundamental theories -Reduce phenomena to simplest elements (deductive reasoning) -Hypotheses-testing	-Focus on meanings -Try to understand what is happening -Develop ideas - induction from data; -Look at the totality of each situation -Hypotheses generation
Preferred Methods	-Operationalising methods so they can be measured -Taking large samples	-Using multiple methods to establish different views of the phenomena -Small samples (in depth or over time)

(Source: Easterby-Smith, Thorpe and Lowe, 1991, p 27)

Table 4.1 informs that the two paradigms have their own unique characteristics, and indicate that the choice of the philosophy will also influence the data collection method. The positivist approach assumes that the world consists of pure facts and that measurement should take place through objective methods. It also tends to include larger samples, suitable for statistical analysis, that are usually deductive and quantitative in nature. On the other hand, the phenomenological approach focuses on meanings and views the world as subjective and internal to the observer (researcher). The following sub-sections discuss in detail the two main philosophical approaches, namely phenomenology and positivism.

4.6.1 Phenomenology

The intrepretivist paradigm, also called phenomenology, emerged in the 1970s as a reaction and response to drawbacks of the positivistic approach (Hennik, Hutter and Bailey, 2011). Unlike the positivist approach, phenomenology focuses on understanding subjective meanings that people attach to their experiences. The "interpretative" aspect means that the approach seeks to understand people's lived experiences from their own perspectives, which was referred to as the *"emic"* or the *"inside"* perspective (Hennik et al. 2011, p. 14). Hence interpretivism, instead of focusing on facts (as in positivism), seeks to "*understand subjective meaningful experiences*", and "*the meaning of social actions within the context in which people live"* (Snape and Spencer, 2008, p.7).

Phenomenology emphasises the importance of observation and interpretation of the social world, which are integral components of qualitative research (Snape and Spencer, 2008). As such, this approach also recognises the importance of the broader contexts in which people live and "*highlights the inherent subjectivity of humans, both as study participants and researchers*" (Hennik et al. 2011, p. 15). This suggests that there can be multiple perspectives on reality rather than a single truth, as proposed by positivism. Phenomenology is concerned with understanding social phenomena where the subjective experience of the individual is paramount (Easterby et al. 1991). Inductive reasoning is in line with the interpretative paradigm and refers to the "*development of generalisations from specific observations*" (Babbie, 2007, p 57, cited in Hennik et al. 2011). Phenomenology recognises reality as 'socially' constructed as people's experiences occur within social, cultural or historical contexts (Hennik et al. 2011).

4.6.2 Positivism

Positivism, also known as the scientific approach, was initiated by the French philosopher August Comte in the 18th century. He argued that science or knowledge creation should be restricted to what can be observed and measured. Positivists therefore belief that causes of human behaviour exist *"outside of the individuals"* (McNeill and Chapman, 2005, p 174). The key assumption in positivism is that the world exists externally and its properties should be measured through objective measures rather than through perception, reflection or intuition (Easterby et al. 2012). Within positivism there is an emphasis on objective measurement of social phenomena, and where it is assumed that reality consists of pure facts, with no influence from the researcher on the process of data collection (Hennik et al. 2011). Hence the research is seen as to be of value-free, as there is "*a separation of facts from values*" (Charmaz, 2006, p. 5).

The positivist researcher plays the role of "objective analyst" (Saunders, et al. 2003), where "*the researcher neither affects nor is affected by the subject of the research*" (Remenyi, Williams, Money and Swartz, 1998, p 33). Positivism formed the foundations for the natural sciences and for the experimental approach and quantitative research within the social science field. Positivists also consider reliability as the most important characteristic of scientific method (McNeill and Chapman, 2005). It means that the same research method applied within other pieces of research "*should be able to be repeated by other researchers in order to verify and check its scientific accuracy*" (McNeill and Chapman, 2005, p. 17).

Positivism adopts an epistemological approach where the researcher formulates the hypothesis by collecting empirical data and then evaluating if the data collected supports those hypotheses (to verify and test the hypothesis). Positivism is often criticised for its objective measurements and for not accounting for contextual influences on people's lives (Hennik et al. 2011). Such minimisation of the subjective perspectives results in the research "*with human respondents that ignores their humanness*" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, cited in Hennik et al. 2011, p. 14). Positivists see the "bigger picture" of society and the world as having a greater impact on individuals' behaviours. Positivists suggests that people are seen as

“*Puppets of the society, i.e. they are controlled by social forces emanating from the organisation of society”* (McNeill and Chapman, 2005, p 15).

Although Positivism and Phenomenology appear to be highly distinctive, the divergence between the two approaches in not always clear cut (Hennik et al. 2011; Creswell, 2003). Creswell (2003) argued that research is not purely qualitative or quantitative but that “*research lies somewhere on a continuum between the two*” (p 4). For instance, some qualitative approaches are influenced by the positivist approach (i.e., grounded theory). In turn, some quantitative methods may also include interpretative elements, such as open-ended questions in surveys (Hennik et al., 2011). Denzin and Lincoln (2008) even evoked that “*All research is interpretative; it is guided by the researcher’s set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied”* (p. 31).

Upon consideration of the various philosophical approaches, the author decided to adopt a positivist approach to the research. Based on the classification of philosophy proposed by Bhattacherjee (2012) this research is also in line with functionalism, driven by rules of objectivism where the researcher remains independent from the studied phenomena. Firstly, the rationale for choosing positivist and functionalist paradigm is dictated by an overarching aim of this research, which is to generalise and quantify an objective findings about the employees’/volunteers’ entrepreneurial orientation (EO) (see Figure 4.1); again, the aim of this research is not to explain for example ‘why’ they behave entrepreneurially at work. Secondly, this study adopts a highly structured methodology, such as a self-administered survey, which is an efficient way to collect data form a large and a geographically dispersed sample (Saunders et al. 2011). Finally, this research utilises a deductive approach, which underlies the positivism, where the attempt is to explore causal elements between variables. Deduction involves braking down a research problem into small components (reductionism), and test by using objectivist research methods such as survey. The next sub-section provides an overview of different research approaches.

4.7 Research approach

In respect to research approaches, there are three options available that researchers can adopt in their studies, namely deductive and inductive approaches, or combining the two which, is not only possible to apply within the same research process but, "*it is often advantageous*", as advised by Saunders et al. (2003, p. 90). However, Saunders et al. (2003) also suggested that, it is useful to attach these two approaches to philosophies in so far as, "*the deductive approach owes more to positivism and the inductive approach to phenomenology*" (Saunders et al. 2003, p. 87). Table highlights the key features of both approaches that allow their comparison and their applicability within research.

Table 4.2 Characteristics of deductive and inductive approaches

Deductive Approach (usually quantitative)	***Inductive Approach (usually qualitative)***
Theory-testing ,Hypotheses-Testing	Theory-building ,Hypotheses-Generation
Starts from theories	Starts from observations
Large sample and generalisation	Smaller sample, understanding of meanings
Explains causal relationships between variables	Explores characteristics or patterns based on the observations and trends
Highly structured methodology	Flexibility in adopting methodology

(Source: adopted from Saunders et al., 2011 and Hennik, Hutter and Bailey, 2011)

On the one hand, the inductive approach involves theory-building or theory generation, where the researcher starts from observations and findings from which the relevant theories will emerge, based on their empirical findings (Saunders et al. 2003). This qualitative approach is primarily concerned with gaining an understanding of the meanings and values that people attach to events (Hennik et al. 2011). As such, it requires a close understanding of the research context and acknowledges that the researcher becomes part of the research process. If the researcher is more interested in describing 'why' something is happening rather than 'what' is happening, then it may be more appropriate for him/her to employ an inductive approach over a deductive one (Saunders et al. 2003). An inductive approach requires a more flexible structure and can result in changes of research emphasis as the research progresses. The limitation of the inductive approach is that the researcher "*constantly lives with the fear that no useful data patterns and theory will emerge*" (Saunders et al. 2003, p. 91).

On the other hand, the deductive approach involves theory-testing or verification (Saunders et al. 2011), where the data follows theory. Deductive reasoning underlies the positivists' research method and involves gathering data in a highly structured manner that is measured quantitatively (Saunders et al. 2003). It works from more general assumptions (hypothesis) to the more specific (Saunders et al. 2011). Deduction is defined as a "*derivation of expectations and hypotheses from theories*" (Babbie, 2007, p.57), where researchers design a strategy to test hypotheses (Saunders et al. 2011). Adopting the deductive approach means using and applying existing literature or existing theory to deduce or develop a deductive conceptual framework that is used to guide the data collection (Hennik et al. 2011). Moreover, the deductive approach assumes that the researcher stays independent of what is being observed, moving from theory to data collection which allows generalisations.

However, to be able to generalise findings, the researcher must ensure to select a sample of sufficient numerical size. More importantly, the data should be analysed and presented in a way that will allow replications, an important consideration to ensure reliability (Saunders et al. 2003). This approach also seeks to explain causal relationships between variables being analysed. The final feature of the deductive approach is reductionism that is deducting the concepts into the simplest form. The deductive approach is often criticised for its "fixed" and "*rigid methodology that, does not permit alternative explanations of what is going on*" (Saunders et al. 2003, p. 89). The deductive approach works best in situations where there are many competing theories of the same phenomenon and when the researcher is interested in knowing which theory would work the best (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

Based on the above overview of research approaches, this research adopts a deductive approach for a number of reasons. Firstly, deductive approach is an inherent characteristic being in line with the positivist or the functionalist paradigm utilised in this study. Secondly, the main aim of this research is to extrapolate quantitative and objective findings concerned with employees'/volunteers' EO.

Thus, this research does not seek, for example, to explain the reasons for their proactive behaviour at work, or why they feel empowered at work, but instead to objectively sate whether they are or not (i.e., empowered or encouraged at work). As such, the deductive approach inherent to positivism enables generalisations of the findings and allows breaking down of the research problem in the simplest possible components (variables). Thirdly, this study spans across six European countries and involves a relatively large sample, where it is extremely appropriate to use objectivist and highly structured techniques such as survey (see Table 4.1). Finally, this research involved operationalisation of the concepts being studied (under the three headings, demographics, individual's entrepreneurial orientation and organisational' EO) in a way that it allows findings to be presented quantitatively.

4.8 Quantitative and Qualitative research methods

Interpretivism and Positivism are the underlying paradigms of qualitative and quantitative research methods, respectively (Hennik et al. 2011). Qualitative research is guided by concepts inherent in the interpretative paradigm and quantitative research by assumptions pertaining to positivism (Saunders et al. 2011). According to Hussey and Hussey (1997), there are three techniques for collecting data, including:

- Quantitative methods
- Qualitative methods
- Mixed methods (mixture of quantitative and qualitative techniques)

(Hussey and Hussey, 1997, p. 65)

Patton (2002) explained that, the difference between the two methods is a matter for a trade-off between breadth and depth, for example, qualitative research allows for depth in research, while quantitative research cover a large breadth. Remenyi et al. (1998) distinguished that, quantitative research deals with numerical data or clearly defined attributes, whereas qualitative research deals with meanings, experiences or perceptions, expressed in words. .

Table 4.3 highlights key differences between quantitative and qualitative research methods.

Table 4.3 Summary of qualitative and quantitative research methods

Key elements	*Qualitative research*	*Quantitative research*
Research Philosophy	Phenomenology/ subjective	Positivism (scientific)/ objective
Research Approach	Inductive (Theory Building)	Deductive (Theory Testing)
Research Strategy	Ethnography, Case study, Grounded theory	Experiment, Survey
Research Methodology	In-depth interviews, observation, focus group discussions, content analysis	Population surveys, opinion polls, exit interviews
Study Population	Small number of participants or interviewees, selected purposively	Large samples size referred to as respondents or subjects,
Data Analysis	Interpretative/ textual (words)	Statistical/ numerical
Characteristics	- Understanding people meanings, to identify and explain their behaviours, beliefs or perceptions -Understanding the context -More flexible research structure -Research is part of the process	-To generalise findings, statistical trends, frequencies, correlations, averages and patterns in data -Casual relationships between variables -Highly structured approach -Research remains independent

(Source: adopted from Hennik, Hutter and Bailey, 2011, p. 16 and Saunders et al. 2011)

According to Saunders et al. (2011) the quantitative approach entails generalising findings and recording facts, whereas qualitative deals with subjective meanings and perceptions, and ascertains the importance of the research context. Within the qualitative research the aim is to understand or explain behaviours, beliefs or perceptions, and consider the context of people's experiences (Hennik et al. 2011) (see Table 4.3). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008), a qualitative approach involves naturalistic and interpretative approach to the world. Within the qualitative approach, "*researchers study things in their natural setting, attempting (...),to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them*" (Denzin and Lincoln, 2008, p. 3). Research subjects in qualitative research are called 'participants' as they are seen as co-participating (with the researcher) in the research, telling their story in an interview or in a focus group discussion (Hennik et al. 2011) (see Table 4.3). Due to the in-depth nature of a qualitative study, a small sample with few participants is required. One of the main distinctive features of qualitative research is that it allows the researcher to identify issues from the perspective of the study participants and understand the meanings they attached to behaviour, events or objects (Hennik et al. 2011). As such, qualitative research entails in in-depth understanding of the research problem by using subjectivism, reflexivity and, an interpretative approach (Hennik et al. 2011).

In contrast, the purpose of quantitative research is to quantify the research problem by measuring the issue and generalising the findings to a broader population (Hennik et al. 2011). It assumes that, reality consists of facts and that the researcher can observe and measure reality in an objective way, with no influence on the data collection process (Table 4.3). As such, quantitative research is perceived as to be value-free, as it entails *"a separation of facts from values"* (Charmaz, 2006, cited in Hennik et al. 2011, p.14). Quantitative methods are designed to collect numerical data for statistical analysis (Table 4.3). Surveys, experiments, mathematical models (i.e., regression, correlations) and highly structured interviews are usually used within quantitative research (Saunders et al. 2011). According to Hennik et al. (2011), in the quantitative research "*extrapolating quantitative data is possible due to the (random) sampling of respondents that provides a study sample representative of the general population*" (p. 16). Hence, for valid generalisations, usually a large study sample is needed (Table 4.3).

Moreover, quantitative research has strength in that wide ranging social, economic research can be carried out (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012). According to Robson (2002) such fixed research design offers the ability to break down individual differences and *"identify patterns and processes which can be linked to social structures and group or organisational features"* (Robson, 2002, p. 98). The people in quantitative research are referred to as 'respondents' as they answer questions formulated by the researcher, which usually takes the form of a survey (Saunders et al. 2011) (Table 4.3).

Therefore, as this research deals with a large sample size that is geographically dispersed across six European countries/regions, as well as it aims to provide a general picture of the studied phenomena, quantitative research is deemed as the most appropriate. As such, the quantitative approach was seen as the most effective way of reaching a sufficient sample of the study population to yield enough data to generalise the overall findings (Saunders et al. 2011). In particular, this research involves the collection of numerical data in an objective manner (a deductive approach) and aims to generalise overall findings, key features associated with quantitative approach. For example, with the total sample of 450 respondents spanning across six European countries/regions, the collection of the qualitative data may be time-consuming and a relatively expensive way of reaching each of the cases. Moreover, quantitative research is in line with this study's philosophy, and has inherent characteristics to positivism and functionalism. Another convincing rationale behind adopting quantitative approach was the international context of this research and the need to ensure highly structured and standardised way of collecting data, an important issue to ensure data reliability (Saunders et al. 2003). As such, survey strategy and a self-administered questionnaire technique were utilised, as they support the current research in detecting potential threats to reliability, such as a 'subject bias', identified by Robson (1993).

4.9 Research strategy: motivation for choosing a survey strategy

Research strategy "*provides an overall direction of the research including the process by which the research is conducted*" (Remenyi et al. 1998, p. 44). According to Saunders et al. (2003) each strategy should contain clearly stated objectives derived from the research question. Researchers must identify the sources from which they intend to collect data and consider the potential constraints that are typically associated with research processes (i.e. access to data, time, location and ethical issues). Prior to deciding the most appropriate research strategy for this study, a number of strategies were reviewed. Those proposed by Saunders et al. (2011), included: "*experiment, survey, case study, grounded theory, ethnography, action research, longitudinal research and archival research*" (p. 141). Yet, these strategies should not be understood as mutually exclusive. For example, it is possible to use the survey strategy as part of a case study (Saunders et al. 2011).

Although an experiment is one of the types of quantitative strategy, it was not considered as appropriate, as the aim of the current research was not to study causal links between a small numbers of variables. Similarly, this research was not concerned with determining whether a change in one independent variable causes a change in another dependent variable like it is in experiment strategy (Saunders et al. 2011). Other flexible design studies reviewed were (i) ethnographic studies, (ii) grounded theory and (iii) case study strategies. The case study approach did not meet the criteria of this research as it was not assumed in this study to empirically investigate phenomena in a “real life context” (Robson, 2002, p. 178) with particular attention to richer understanding of context. Grounded theory was not considered in this study, as it is usually inductive in nature and involves theory building and predicting or explaining certain behaviours - again not the core focus for this research. As such, the aforementioned strategies were inappropriate for this current research as neither observation nor interaction with the participants were objectives of this research.

After ascertaining that none of the aforementioned research strategies are suitable for this study, the author decided to use a survey strategy and an on-line questionnaire as being the nearest most appropriate strategy. Firstly, survey research is associated with deductive approach and facilitates the collection of a large amount of data from a large population in an efficient (low cost and relatively short time span) and consistent manner (Saunders et al. 2011). Secondly, a survey strategy appeared to be useful when considering that the sample in this study was to be drawn from geographically dispersed countries/regions spanning Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Sicily. As this research involved a relatively large sample (n=450) involving six different countries/regions that are also speaking each with different languages, a survey strategy offered greater potential to gather data in a more convenient and standardised manner. Finally, the research question and objectives dictated employing a quantitative survey, as the generalisation of results was the intended outcome for this study.

A survey is usually used to answer ‘who, what, where, how -much, -many’ types of questions and tends to be used within exploratory and descriptive research (Bhattacherjee, 2012). As this research is exploratory and descriptive in its style, the survey strategy was an appropriate choice. Another reason for choosing survey was that in this study emphasis were on for recording facts (i.e., demographics) and the collections of the quantitative data. In this way, the data extrapolated from the survey can be “*used to suggest possible reasons for particular relationships between variables and to produce models of these relationships*” (Saunders et al. 2011, p. 144). To summarise, the key arguments in choosing the survey strategy were: (1) A large sample size, (2) An international scope of this research (3) resources availability (time, cost, and internet access), and (4) the objective character of this study aimed at generalisations of key findings. Following the choice of the survey strategy, the next step was to revise quantitative research methods.

4.10 Research method: questionnaire

The choice of method is highly determined by the nature of the research question, the importance of the research area and the influence of time (Remenyi et al. 1998). The research methods reflect how researchers intend to collect the data and which techniques they may employ to answer the research question. According to Creswell (2003), it is useful to consider the full range of possibilities for data collection, for example by considering the following: (1) whether the researcher plans to use closed-ended or open–end questioning, and his/her focus on numeric versus textual (non-numeric) data; (2) whether the researcher's intent is to specify the type of the information to be collected in advance or (3) to allow it to emerge from the participants as the research progresses (p. 6). With the above suggestions in mind, the author of the current research employed a quantitative on-line questionnaire as a supportive research method.

The choice of the questionnaire method was motivated by: (i) characteristics of the sample from which the data was collected (respondents in the public and third sector organisations), (ii) the resources available for data collection process, (iii) the size of the sample, (iv) international context of the study and (v) the importance of reaching particular organisations. Equally important were: the number and the type of questions through which this author aimed to collect the required data. Another vital reason for choosing an on-line structured questionnaire was to ensure the reliability of data collection; and to maintain consistency of both, data collection and data analysis processes.

Questionnaires are one of the most widely and popularly used data collection techniques within the survey strategy (Saunders et al. 2011). A questionnaire is a general term to describe the data collection method where each person is asked to respond to the same standardised questions in a predetermined order (De Vaus, 1996). Hence, questionnaires represent an efficient and standardised means of collecting responses from a large sample. Questionnaires are also an inexpensive way to reach a geographically dispersed sample (Saunders et al. 2011); an important reason for adopting this method in the current study. Questionnaires also enable the researcher to avoid interviewer bias that ultimately impacts the reliability and validity of the data collected (Saunders et al. 2011). The main reason for using questionnaires is to obtain information that cannot be observed or that is not available in archives in written or computed form (Bhattacherjee, 2012). They work well with descriptive and explanatory researches that enable to establish relationships between these variables (De Vaus, 1996). Figure 4.5 illustrates and highlights types of questionnaire used in research.

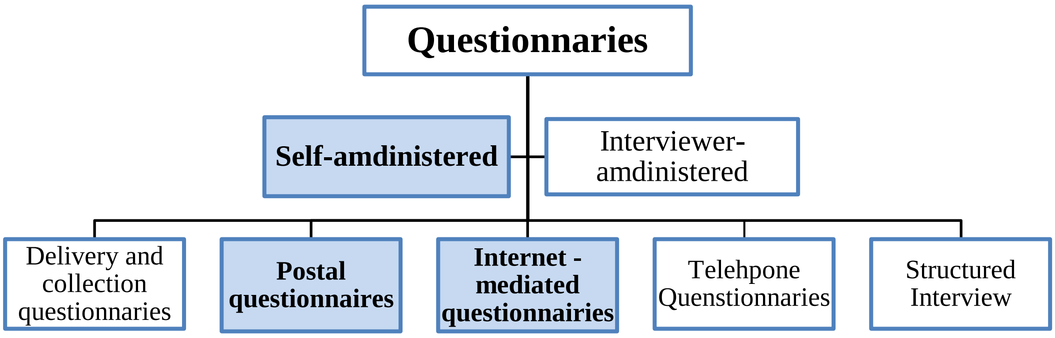

Fig. 4.5: Types of Questionnaire

(Source: adopted from Saunders, Saunders, Lewis and Tornhill, 2011, p. 363)

Referring to Figure 4.5, the questionnaire type employed in the current study was self-administered including both types: internet-mediated and postal questionnaire. The internet mediated questionnaire was sent via Survey Monkey (Ireland, Iceland, Sicily), and also via email with enclosed attachment of the survey (Greece, Bulgaria and Portugal). Postal questionnaires were also sent by hardcopy to respondents (in Portugal and Bulgaria), as these ways appeared to be more reliable and popular ways of distributing surveys in those countries.

Although Sekaran (2003) advised that, response rates to email questionnaires are typically low, yet in this research the results were opposite. This was evidenced with a high response rate reported in this study, for instance in Portugal (37%) and in Bulgaria (29.4%). Additionally a highly structured on-line questionnaire offers great control, ensuring that the respondent is the person whom you wish to answer the question and hence ensures the reliability of responses (Saunders et al. 2003, p. 281). Nevertheless, there are some drawbacks in employing email questionnaires, as for instance any doubts that respondents might have cannot be clarified (Sekaran, 2003). Hence, another important aspect of this research- apart from the questionnaire type- was concerned with the survey design; as, it does influence both reliability and more likely validity of the data collection (Saunders et al. 2003).

4.10.1 Questionnaire design

According to Sekaran (2003) there are three important rules for "sound" questionnaire design: (1) wording of the questions, (2) planning how variables will be categorised and coded after receipt of the responses, and (3) the general appearance of the questionnaire. These rules assisted the current researcher, as they helped to minimise response bias in the research (Sekaran, 2003). Another important aspect in designing questionnaires is the data variables (Saunders, et al. 2011). Dillman (2007) identified three types of variables that can be collected via questionnaires:

- *Opinion* (how respondents feel about something; their attitudes and beliefs)
- *Behaviour* (what people did in the past, do now or will do in the future)
- *Attribute* (data about the respondents' characteristics, i.e., demographics)

In this current research, mostly behavioural or attribute variables were collected via the survey, as this was in line with this survey objectives that were designed to ascertained demographic profile of the respondents (attribute variables), as well as more dynamic aspect of their entrepreneurial orientation (EO), related to respondents' entrepreneurial behaviour (behaviour variables). Yet, there were a few questions enquiring about opinion variables, and these were included in the survey under the heading "other" that gave respondents an opportunity to express their own view about the enquired issue (i.e., empowerment).

According to Saunders et al. (2011) the types of variables that are intended to be collected by the researcher will, in turn, determine the type of questions to be employed within the questionnaire. Most questionnaires include a combination of both open-ended and close-ended questions. However, in the current research, most questions were close-ended[14], including category, list, and ranking questions (Saunders et al. 2011). To view the types of questions used in this study's questionnaire, see Appendix 2. The questionnaire used in this study was designed in line with this study's main objectives, and consists of three key sections:

i. ***Demographics:*** the first set of questions was mostly attribute-type questions that enquired about the general profile of the sample of this study: their age, gender, education, role in the organisations and, business type.
ii. ***Individual entrepreneurial orientation (EO):*** this part of the survey included two questions. The first enquired about the entrepreneurial background of the respondents, as to whether they started their own business, club, society, lobby group, voluntary or any other organisation. The second question enquired about the respondent's entrepreneurial behaviour within his/her work; it asked whether the respondent had initiated or improved work goals, products, services or procedures within their organisation.
iii. ***Organisational entrepreneurial orientation (EO):*** this part of the survey consisted of four questions with regard to (1) employees'/volunteers' empowerment in decision-making processes in their organisations (2) encouragement to seek new opportunities, and (3) how important it is for them to be innovative while performing their work tasks. The last question enquired about how important it is that employees/volunteers exhibit EO-related attributes[15] and when performing their job tasks.

The above three survey's sections enabled the researcher to ascertain both employees'/volunteers' EO, as well as to synthesise their views as regards their organisations' EO, respectively for both, public and third sector organisations.

[14] Close-ended questions usually consists of a number of alternative answers from which respondents are instructed to choose (de Vaus, 1996, cited in Saunders et al. 2003).
[15] The entrepreneurial orientation (EO) related attributes, used to discern organisations' EO: [(being)Resourceful, Resilient, Open-minded, Self-confident, Creative/Innovative, Passionate about work]

4.11 Research design of this study

Research design is the general plan reflecting how the researcher goes about answering the research question (RQ) (Saunders et al. 2011). Figure 4.6 presents this study's research process and informs about different phases and stages involved in this study's data collection process. Figure 4.6 also informs that survey method was used to collect the data in this study.

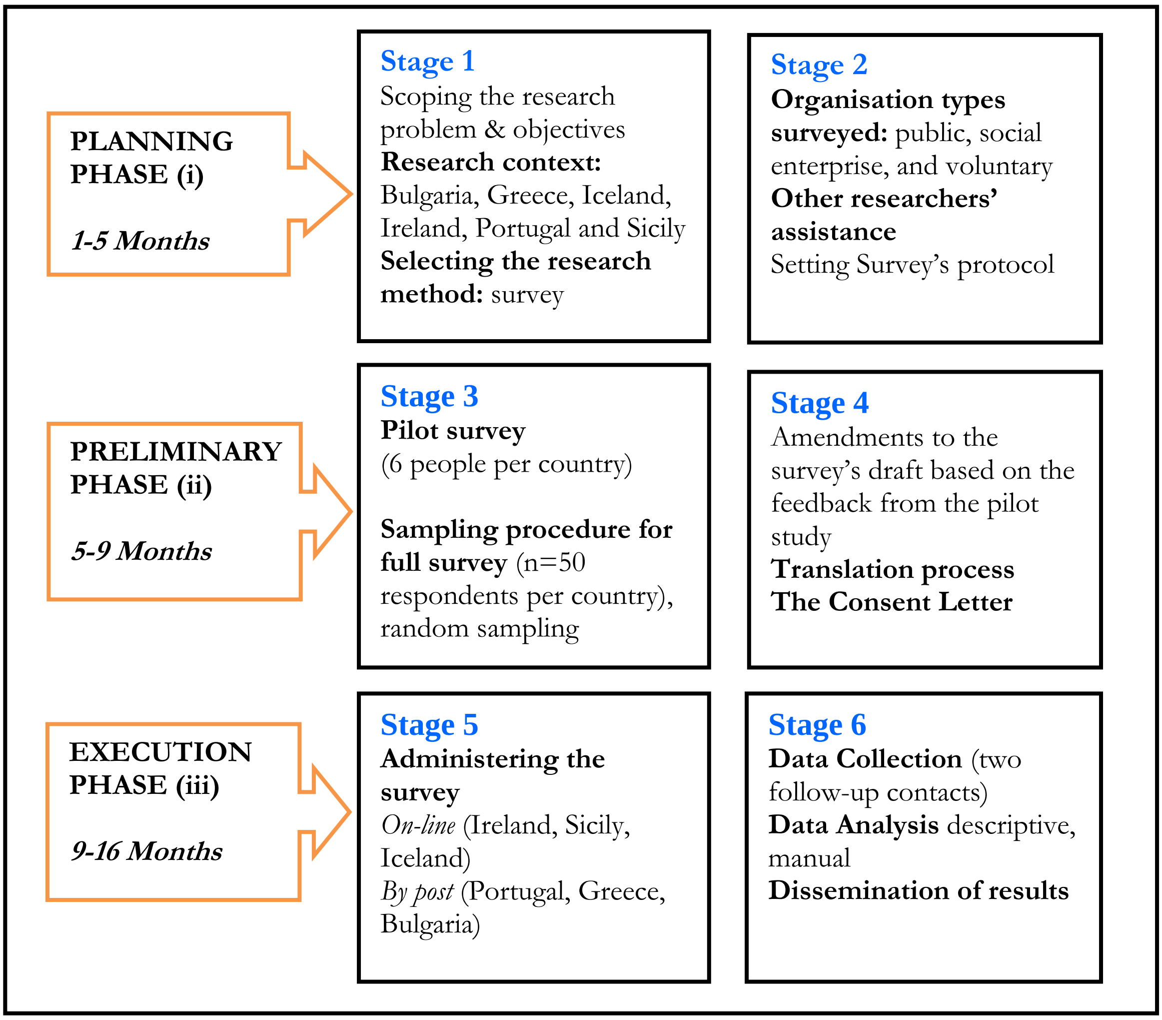

Fig. 4.6: The research process of this study
(Source: Current research)

Depicted in Figure 4.6 are the key research activities followed in chronological order to fulfil this study's research process. Overall, this study's research design was organised into three main phases, such as (see Figure 4.6):

(i) Planning Phase [1-5 Months] that involved two stages (Stage 1, Stage 2, see Figure 4.6) and included activities such as scoping the research problem, identifying research' context and choosing an appropriate research method (survey) (see Figure 4.6). During this phase, the researcher clarified the research problem and objectives (see Figure 4.6, Stage 1) as well as, securing access to the targeted survey's organisations (including public, social enterprise and voluntary sector organisations); and ultimately to the survey's sample and survey protocol. This was achieved through the assistance and help of other researchers that were part of the FIERE project.[16]

(ii) Preliminary Phase [5-9 Months] including Stage 3 and Stage 4 was concerned with pilot testing, applying necessary amendments to the pilot survey, and the survey's translation process. Within this second phase, the key activities were: drafting questions for the survey template, translating the survey template, and writing and sending the Consent Letter (see Appendix 3). However, the main aim of this stage was to pilot test the survey within each country individually (see Figure 4.6, Phase ii, Stage 3); and to identify potential drawbacks of the survey, apply amendments to it and fine tuning the survey questions. This was followed by translation process of the final survey used to collect the data.

(iii) Execution Phase [Months, 9-16] during this final stage, the survey, once translated (see Figure 4.6, Phase ii, Stage 4) was administered individually by the project partners (see Figure 4.6, Phase iii, Stage 5). The survey was sent on-line in Ireland, Iceland and Sicily (via Monkey Survey). However, in Greece, Portugal and Bulgaria the survey was sent by both: email, and also in hardcopy by post, to encourage a higher response rate to the survey; this was recommended by cooperating researchers in these countries who advised that, postal surveys are popular and usually yield a satisfactory response rate (see Figure 4.6, Phase iii, Stage 5). Although data collection processes varied slightly from country to country, the data analysis was performed in a consistent manner by the author. The data analysis was analysed per country, per organisation type and per gender manually by using Excel Spread Sheets. Moreover, Survey Monkey tools were used (only in Ireland, Iceland and Sicily), such as diagrams, graphs and filters (see Figure 4.6, Phase iii, Stage 6).

[16] see for more details, Chapter 2, section 1.2 "Research context"

4.11.1 Pilot survey

The pilot test ensures better validity and a higher response rate (Saunders et al. 2003). Prior to administering the questionnaire to collect data, it should be pilot tested. The purpose of the pilot testing is to obtain feedback and apply necessary amendments, refine the survey if necessary, so there will be no problems in answering the questions and there will be no problems in recording the data (Saunders et al. 2011). Another important aspect of the pilot survey is to ensure that the survey's questions were interpreted and understood in the same way by all respondents and in the way intended by the researcher (Saunders et al. 2011). Thus, pilot testing enables the researcher to assess the questions' validity and the likely reliability of the data that will be collected (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012).

A pilot study was performed individually in each surveyed country with 6 people who were randomly selected without specifying organisation type (see Table 4.4). Overall, there were 36 respondents who participated in the pilot survey (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 Number of respondents in the pilot study per country

Country	Number of respondents surveyed per country
Bulgaria	6
Greece	6
Iceland	6
Ireland	6
Portugal	6
Sicily	6
Total nr:	**36**

(Source: Author)

Anonymity and confidentiality during both pilot stage and survey administering stage were guaranteed in the introductory email consisting of the Consent Letter (see Appendix 3). The author also considered the possible ethical considerations that may be associated with this study, i.e. appropriateness of the procedures of the research to the rights of those who are subjects of the study (Saunders et al. 2011). For example, in this study, it was important to ensure that the information as regards respondents' identity, also the name and location of their organisations were secured and remained private. The pilot survey was standardised, including closed-ended questions and a few open-ended style questions that, were purposively added to obtain feedback in the preliminary stage.

Based on the feedback from the pilot study, there were a few amendments to be addressed. Firstly, the sequence in which the questions appear was adjusted, as it is appropriate to address the questions as regards demographics usually at the initial part of the survey (Saunders et al. 2011). For example, it was suggested that the initial part of the survey, there was a lack of questions as regards respondents' levels of employment. Secondly, there were also concerns with the wording used within the survey. Moreover, after the pilot study, it was suggested to remove from the survey words such as "entrepreneurial" or "entrepreneurial behaviour", as these were seen as referring to someone who is a business-owner rather than an employee or volunteer (i.e. for example this was a major concern in Iceland). Accordingly, amendments were applied to the survey, and by removing or limiting the use of such expressions.

The pilot survey was designed by the author in Ireland by using Survey Monkey. However, when compiling the final survey's template the author also took into the consideration the inputs from others, associated with the FIERE project. Their expertise was used to ensure that all survey questions were easily understood and more importantly that they were understood in the same way by all respondents. Because the survey was translated from English into five different languages (to be administered in Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Sicily) it was important to avoid any ambiguous questions or open questions and to be clear as regards the wording of the survey's questions; this was deemed necessary to ensure that the questions were not misinterpreted by respondents and were understood in the way intended by the researcher (Saunders et al. 2011).

Once the survey was designed, pilot tested and amended, the refined the final version of the survey template was sent to the respondents across the selected countries/regions. After performing the pilot analysis, the author was assured that the survey was a reliable research method in collecting required data for this research.
The next important aspect of this research was to draw a study sample from the study population.

4.11.2 Sampling process and characteristics of the sample

Sampling is the process of selecting a sufficient number of subjects from the population, in a way that is representative to the whole population. Sample is a subset of a larger population (Sekaran, 2003). Sampling enables a higher overall accuracy of the data collected and allows better data management by reducing the number of cases to derive a sufficiently representative sample (from the population). The most common sampling techniques are: (1) probability (i.e., stratified random sampling or cluster sampling) or (2) non-probability (i.e., purposive sampling) (Sekaran, 2003).

Probability sampling is the most popular approach employed in survey-based research, where the population includes at least 50 cases (Saunders et al. 2003). One of the basic probability sampling types is 'simple random sampling', in which every subject in the population has equal chance of being selected as a subject (Sekaran, 2003). Simple random sampling has the least bias and offers more generalisability. As such, this is the sampling method employed within this survey research. The sample of the population in this study was drawn randomly from employees/volunteers in public, voluntary and social enterprise sectors, spanning across six European countries.

Table 4.5 outlines the number of respondents surveyed and the number of organisations involved overall and the response rate yielded in each of the countries surveyed.

Table 4.5 Response rate, number of respondents and organisations surveyed

Country	Targeted sample size	Total Surveyed	Number of valid Responses	Response Rate	Number of organisations
Bulgaria	50	170	50	29.40 %	34
Greece	50	249	49	21.20 %	19
Iceland	50	501	40	8.20 %	34
Ireland	50	225	50	23.10 %	31
Portugal	50	568	209	37.00 %	71
Sicily	50	216	52	24.70 %	27
Total nr:	**300**	**1928**	**450**	**-**	**216**

(Source: current research)

Table 4.5 informs that, the targeted sample size for this study's survey was 50 respondents per country; however, in the case of Portugal the sample size was higher (n=568), also in Iceland (n=501) in comparison to other countries' samples (see Table 4.5). This was an unexpected outcome within this research, as there was an indication that the survey was well received in Portugal yielding response rate as high as 37% (see Table 4.5). In Portugal, the survey was distributed by email and by post and was sent to as many as 71 organisations; and this number is high in comparison to the number of organisations that were surveyed in the other countries (see Table 4.5).

In Ireland the data collection was managed on-line and the number of the responses was monitored via Survey Monkey; as the number of responses was obtained (that is 50), the data collection was stopped. Overall, in Ireland the survey was sent to 45 different organisations (to an average 5 respondents per organisation were surveyed), from which 31 organisations responded, with the total of 50 valid responses (see Table 4.5).

Overall, public, voluntary and social enterprise (SE) sector organisations provided context for this research and examples of these included:

- *Public organisations* (local authorities, municipalities, banking sector, HEI (Higher Education Institutions), state owned enterprises, clergymen);
- *Voluntary organisations* (youth organisations, community centres, sport clubs, interest groups, charities);
- *Social enterprise organisations* (mix of both profit and not-for-profit types; i.e., chambers of commerce, energy agencies, forestry industries, privately owned companies that are not-for-profit, private foundations, i.e. working with migrants).

The next sub-section deals with the validity and reliability of this research.

4.12 The credibility of research findings: reliability and validity

According to Saunders et al. (2011) one of the vital steps in the research process is to assure the credibility of research findings- that is to secure both validity and reliability of the data; this in turn will reduce the possibility of getting the answer wrong. Credibility of research was neatly expressed by Rogers (1661, cited by Raymond, 1993, p. 55, cited in Saunders et al. 2011, p. 156), who evoked that: *"scientific methodology needs to be seen for what it truly is, a way of preventing me from deceiving myself in regard to my creatively formed subjective hunches which have developed out of the relationship between me and my material"*.

Table 4.6 depicts research steps that were undertaken to assure both validity and reliability of this study's data, and provides definition of these two research aspects.

Table 4.6 Validity and Reliability assurance

	Validity	***Reliability***
Definition	▪ *"the extent to which a measure adequately represents the underlying construct that it is supposed to measure"* - Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 58 ▪ **Validity** means *"whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about"* -Saunders et al. 2011, p. 157	▪ *"the degree to which the measure of a construct is consistent or dependable"* -Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 56 ▪ **Reliability** means if the data will be collected in a consistent and standardised manner -Saunders et al. 2011
Steps undertaken to assure validity and reliability	▪ Careful examining of survey's questions (wording, sequence, layout, timing) ▪ Conducting Pilot study ▪ Input from peers-researchers ▪ Taking sufficiently representative sample size generalisability of the findings ▪ Clear conceptualisation of the variables used in this study ▪ Concisely explaining the purpose of the survey ▪ Identification of the research population	▪ Using a highly structured methodology: the survey strategy; on-line and postal questionnaire ▪ Keeping objectivity of research: using closed-ended questions, avoiding open-ended questions. ▪ Well-executed data collection and data analysis processes ▪ Sending the Consent Letter to facilitate response rate ▪ Guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality of responses

(Source: Adapted from Bhattacherjee, 2012 and Saunders et al. 2011)

Reliability refers "*to the extent to which your data collection techniques or analysis procedures will yield consistent findings*" (Saunders et al. 2011, p. 156). Reliability is associated with the quality of measurements and the repeatability of research measures, and hence it refers the extent to which another researcher can yield the same or similar results under different circumstances (Bhattacherjee, 2012). It can be assessed by answering the following question (Easterby-Smith and Lowe, 1991): "*Will similar observations be made by different researchers on different occasions?*" (p. 41). However, it is important to distinguish that reliability implies consistency, but not accuracy (Bhattacherjee, 2012).

One of the most important choices of the investigation regarding this study's reliability was the decision about the research design and which research tool is adopted for the data collection process. One of the main sources of unreliable data is the researcher's subjectivity, or by asking imprecise or ambiguous questions, also asking questions about phenomena that respondents are not familiar with or simply, do not care about (Saunders et al. 2011). Thus, to ensure reliability, this research used a highly structured methodology (an on-line self-administered questionnaire) to facilitate replication in the future studies (see Table 4.6), which is an important aspect to secure data reliability (Saunders et al. 2011). Introducing a high degree of structure to the survey's design enabled to maintain consistency and objectivity of this research, which also did lessen this threat to reliability. This was achieved by applying closed-ended questions, or dichotomous style of questions (Yes/No questions). Thus, to ensure reliability, each of the respondents across the six surveyed countries was invited to respond to the same set of questions. Furthermore, the reliability was improved by an introductory email (with the consent letter) that concisely explained the purpose and procedure of the survey along with reassuring confidentiality.

In turn **validity** is related "*to the extent to which a measure adequately represents the underlying construct that is supposed to measure*" (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 58). Therefore, in this research a concern as regards validity was to ensure the extent to which the results are: (1) applicable to other research settings, and are generalisable or comparable (also called *external validity*), (2) and include a representative set of variables (or concepts) pertaining to this study and to ensure the accuracy of the measurement instrument (called, *internal validity*). One of the steps undertaken to assure validity of this research was clear conceptualisation of the variables, and careful examination of the survey's questions. To ensure validity this can be done empirically (i.e., correlation, focus analysis, factor analysis) and theoretically.

The reliability of this research was assured by careful examining the survey's questions by which the data was collected, where researcher gained a further indication of the validity (Saunders et al. 2011). This was achieved by designing a survey in a highly structured manner to ensure consistency. As such, it was important to consider wording of the questions, the length of the question, sequence in which they appear in the survey, as well as by avoiding ambiguous questions (see Table 4.6). Moreover, as the survey was conducted in countries of different languages, it was important to take into consideration any language nuances. Pilot testing was conducted to ensure these questions were understood consistently and in the same way across all the surveyed countries, and hence to ensure the reliability of the data (Table 4.6). This, in turn allowed ensuring that, the questions were not misinterpreted by respondents and were understood in the same way, and across the surveyed countries.

Debriefing sessions with project partners from six countries also contributed to the validity of the survey's questions (see Table 4.6); for example, the overall feedback obtained from the preliminary analysis enabled to apply necessary amendments to the survey, concerned for example with wording or the survey layout. Finally, the validity of this research was assessed through taking a sufficiently representative sample size, as well as by setting a well-executed data collection process and guidelines as regard dissemination of this study's findings.

4.13 Data collection and data analysis

This research was coordinated by the author in Ireland. However, the data collection was carried out in conjunction with five other project partners' from the aforementioned countries. The benefit of such approach was that through the understanding shared and developed by the researcher; it was possible to increase an understanding of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour and of an entrepreneurial orientation at work within their own' surveyed countries. Moreover, such balanced representation of different regions/countries in Europe offered an interesting research context for the current study, with an international value-added quality.

The primary data were collected over a period of two months, electronically by distributing the standard survey questionnaires (translated into countries' original language) by email and by post (in Bulgaria, Greece and Portugal); also via Survey Monkey portal (Ireland, Iceland, and Sicily). Moreover, the author relied on the reapprove of the survey by the country project-partners, because all the survey responses had to be translated back to English, to enable collection of the survey's results.

In total two follow-up (post-survey) contacts were made: in the first and in the third week after distributing the survey (reminder email, phone call), as advised by Saunders et al. (2011). These steps were taken to encourage their participation and maximise the response rate. Once the data collection process was completed in all the six countries, the primary data were sent by project partners via email to the author, who next synthesised and performed the final survey analysis.

The data analysis procedures were performed manually (by using Monkey Survey supportive tools and by using Excel Spread Sheets) over a period of three months (see Figure 4.6, Phase iii, Stage 6). The data were analysed by considering key aspects such as suggested by Sparrow (1989) (cited in Saunders et al. 2003): specific values (highest and lowest), proportions, distribution, as well as by identifying some relationships in the data. In particular, Survey Monkey was useful, as it has the capacity to create tables, Excel Spread Sheets or diagrams; and supportive tools such as filters, data summary tables and bar charts (i.e. that show the percentage of all the females who had past entrepreneurial experience). The Excel tables containing country data were supportive in analysing first (i) each country individually and then by providing (ii) a summary survey analysis including all six countries. Moreover, the data were also examined by organisations type that were surveyed and by gender.

4.14 Chapter summary

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the research process and the practical aspect of this research. This chapter commenced with addressing the research problem and defining the research question and research objectives. It also presented the conceptual framework that includes key relevant literature areas being reviewed, and the context of this research. Moreover the author drew up the model of this research process, by detailing the research stages involved over the period of this study, to collect the required data (see Figure 4.6).

Another aim of this chapter was to provide justification for choosing a quantitative approach, and present the researcher's pragmatic stance (positivist, functionalist); also to justify the choice of a survey strategy and self-administered questionnaire technique that were employed to answer this study' research question. Much detail is given to the overview of the different research strategies as well as questionnaire research technique that led to the identification of self-administrative internet-mediated and postal questionnaire types as the most appropriate research techniques for collection of the data.

Furthermore, this chapter concludes with detailing the sampling process, pilot testing procedures and introducing the respondents' profile involved in this research (that is respondents from both public and third sector). The attention is also drawn to the validity and reliability of the research process, an important aspect to assure the research credibility (or authenticity). Finally, the last aspect of this chapter was to discuss how the data was collected, analysed and disseminated.

The following, Chapter 5, presents the findings of the primary research where the data gathered through structured on-line survey and postal questionnaire are analysed.

Chapter 5

Presentation of Findings

Chapter 5 Presentations of Findings

5. 1 Introduction

In line with the research question and key objectives that guide this study a survey was designed in order to understand employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO), and whether they behave entrepreneurially in their roles in their respective organisations. Moreover, the survey also enquired about organisations' entrepreneurial orientation, because it was important to understand if organisations that, respondents work for, facilitate or/and encourage their employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour.

Individuals from public, voluntary and social enterprise (SE) sectors were selected to take part in the survey representing Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Sicily. The survey was targeted at different regional organisations (i.e. regional and local authorities, Chambers of Commerce, community and voluntary sector organisations). The main findings concerned with this research are organised into the four main sub-sections:

- 5.2 *Demographics.* This sub-section of the research findings introduces the profile of the study sample by referring to the respondents' gender, age, employment level, their educational level attained as well as the longevity of employment in both their job roles and organisations.
- 5.3 *Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of employees/volunteers.* This part of the survey included two questions. The first, enquired about the entrepreneurial background of respondents; the second enquired about the respondent's entrepreneurial behaviour at their workplace.
- 5.4 *Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of organisations.* This part of the survey consisted of four survey questions with regard to (1) respondent's empowerment within the organisation- in decision-making processes, (2) encouragement in seeking new opportunities and (3) how important it is for employees/volunteers to be innovative while performing their job-related tasks. A final question asked about EO-attributes and how important it is

that the employees/volunteers exhibit such attributes when performing their job tasks.

5.5 *Chapter summary.* This section concludes the chapter with the summary of the key findings.

The following sub-section presents the research findings concerned with demographics of the study sample and introduces the profile of the respondents that participated in the survey.

5.2 Demographics

The ‘Demographics’ section is divided into the following sub-sections:

5.2.1 The profile of the study sample
5.2.2 The employment level of respondents
5.2.3 The age of respondents
5.2.4 Respondent’s level of education attainment
5.2.5 Respondents’ longevity of employment

Following this order, the next sub-section addresses the profile of the study sample, illustrating the international the scope of this study, and presents tables related to organisations types surveyed, and the number of respondents, per country, gender and sector. The next sub-section also provides an overview of this study’s sample by country.

5.2.1 The profile of the study sample

Within the context of the study objectives, the public sector, voluntary sector, and the social enterprise (SE) sector were the selected organisation types surveyed, spanning across six European countries including Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Ireland Portugal and Sicily. Individuals from these three key sectors, regardless of their job roles, were randomly selected and invited to participate in the survey. Figure 5.1 presents the six countries where the survey was first pilot tested, amended and then administered in each country, in that country’s language.

Fig. 5.1: Countries involved in the survey

(Source: www.fiereproject.eu)

Figure 5.1 illustrates the number and the percentage of respondents' per organisation' type surveyed. In total, 450 respondents from 216 organisations were surveyed across the six countries, with the public sector registering the highest number of respondents at 49%, followed by the social enterprise sector at 35% and finally a small sample of voluntary organisations at 16% (see Figure 5.1).

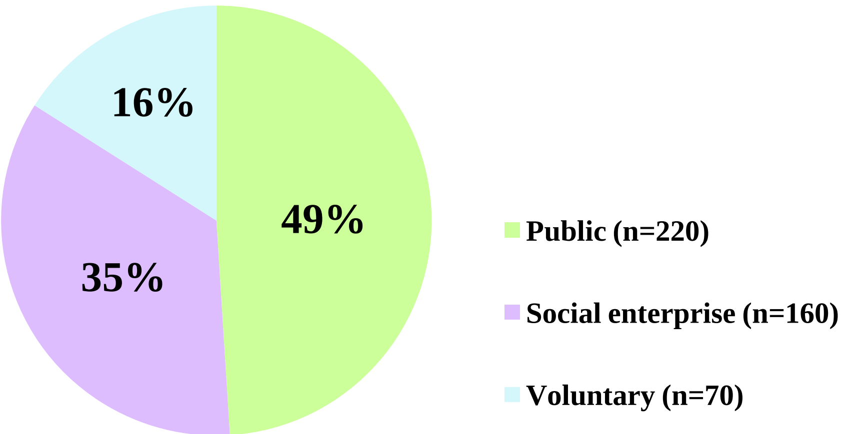

Fig. 5.2: The total % and the number of respondents per sector

(Source: Author)

Figure 5.2 illustrates that a relatively small number of respondents were surveyed in the voluntary sector in comparison to the respondents in the public sector where the number of respondents that replied to the survey was three times higher. Prior to the administering the survey, the sample size was established at 50 respondents per country. Overall, the public sector registered the highest number of respondents at 49%, followed by the social enterprise sector at 35% and finally a small sample of voluntary organisations at 16%. Moreover, there were no respondents from the voluntary organisations in the Greek sample.

A summary of the countries/regions that were part of the survey is as follows:

The Southwest region of Bulgaria was the focus area of the survey and in total 50 respondents replied from 34 different organisations, including 18 males and 32 females of which 64% were represented by the social enterprise sector. All respondents in the voluntary sector are between 21-30 years of age, and most of respondents hold a tertiary level of education (38). Respondents in the public sector tend to hold their roles for a longer period of time, on average 15 years or more, irrespective of gender.

A total of 49 responses were collected from 19 organisations surveyed in Greece. However, there were no voluntary sector respondents represented in the survey, and the public sector represented 59% (29) of the Greek sample. Overall, respondents' educational levels are relatively high with 61% (29) holding a post graduate degree. Moreover, regardless of the sector, 62% (30) of respondents have been employed in their current roles for only 1 or 2 years. The survey was administered by distributing the standard Survey Questionnaires (translated into Greek) to a number of targeted group institutions, classified as (1) 'public': Local Authorities (Municipalities), a State University (in which Administrative only Departments were approached); and (2)'social enterprise': Chambers of Commerce and Industry, Professional Associations and affiliated services providing organisations.

In Iceland, the survey was administered on-line to 167 organisations, of which 41 employees/volunteers responded (with one invalid response) from 34 different organisations. Iceland is composed of 8 regions, each having their own municipalities (local authorities), which are directly linked to associations responsible for lifelong learning, innovation and development as well as culture and tourism. The survey was sent to 3 employees within each organisation/association focusing on regional public organisations, municipalities, voluntary sector organisations and representatives from networks and clusters. Overall, the education attainment of respondents was quite high, as 50% hold a Post Graduate qualification.

In Ireland, the survey was administered in the South-East region and yielded in total 50 responses representing 31 different organisations. Of all the respondents, 30 were from public sector organisations, including HEIs (Higher Education Institutions) as well as government entities such as local and regional authorities, community support & development, as well as culture and art (e.g. museum curators, craft gallery and sport clubs) and agricultural organisations. Overall, the education attainment of respondents is high with 58% (29) holding a Post Graduate degree, of which 62% are from the public sector.

In Portugal, the survey was administered to organisations located between north and central regions, yielding a high number of 209 responses from 71 different organisations. The public sector included 61% of the Portuguese sample, where longevity of employment is higher among females than males. Interestingly, half of the voluntary sample was represented by clergymen, as the Church in Portugal has a strong influence on community activities, and on many social groups. Most of the respondents attained a third level of education 52% (99); however, more females attained Post Graduate and PhDs degree, in comparison to males.

In Sicily, a total of 52 respondents were surveyed from 27 different organisations. In Sicily, the most organisations surveyed are social enterprise organisations, and in particular not-for-profit entities, where many women are involved in higher levels of the hierarchy. The surveyed population was relatively young (except respondents from the public sector), with half of all respondents being 31-40 years of age. Half of all the respondents attained a Degree education, including all respondents in the public sector; and 34% of respondents hold a Post Graduate qualification, being employed in social and voluntary sector organisations.

Table 5.1 illustrates the level of responses per country and per sector, as well as the quantity of female and male respondents per organisation type surveyed and per country.

Table 5.1 Number of respondents surveyed per sector, gender and country

Country	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily		Total Nr of M/F per sector		Total Nr of Respondents per sector
Sector/Gender	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	F/M
Public	3	6	12	17	9	11	16	14	43	85	3	1	86	134	220
Voluntary	4	5	0	0	4	9	4	5	16	4	12	7	40	30	70
Social E	11	21	10	10	2	5	5	6	37	24	12	17	77	83	160
Total Nr of F/M	18	32	22	27	15	25	25	25	96	113	27	25	203	247	450
Total Nr of Respondents	**50**		**49**		**40**		**50**		**209**		**52**		**450**		**450**

[F-females, M-males, Social E- social entreprise] **(Source: Author)**

As shown in Table 5.1, there are a high number of respondents from the Portuguese sample, especially those from the public sector (85 females, 43 males), while there was a relatively low number of respondents from the public sector in Sicily. The high number of survey responses in Portugal was an unexpected outcome and may relate to the fact the survey was sent on-line to many public sector organisations that include a high number of employees.[17]

The public sector represented 50% of the Icelandic respondents and 60% of Irish and Greek respondents, while the social enterprise sector included more than half of the survey's respondents in both, Bulgaria (64%) and Sicily (56%). As can be seen in Ireland and Sicily, the number of respondents is almost equally represented by females and males. Overall, across all the surveyed countries there were more female respondents that replied to the survey (248), than male respondents (203).

The following Table 5.2 illustrates for all the surveyed countries, the number and the type of organisations surveyed within each country and across each of the sectors

[17] Most of the municipalities surveyed in Portugal employ a relatively high number of staff, approx. 50-125 employees; this is a higher number in comparison to the other surveyed countries.

Table 5.2 Type and number of organisations surveyed

Country	Bulgaria	Greece	Iceland	Ireland	Portugal	Sicily	Total Nr of Organisations
Public	6	9	16	15	35	2	**83**
Voluntary	7	0	13	8	10	11	**49**
Social E	21	10	5	8	26	14	**84**
Total Nr of Organisations	**34**	**19**	**34**	**31**	**71**	**27**	**216**

[Social E- social enterprise, M-males; females] **(Source: Author)**

According to Table 5.2, the highest number of the organisations surveyed was in the social enterprise sector (SE) (84), followed by public sector organisations (83), and the least number of organisations in the voluntary sector (49). The survey was sent to an average 5-8 people per organisation, and to 3 employees per organisation in the case of Iceland.

Public sector organisations included local/regional authorities, HEI (Higher Education Institutions), churches, education, health services, culture and art entities and state owned enterprise support agencies. Voluntary sector organisations contacted were youth organisations; sports clubs, community centres, lobby clubs, and interest groups. Social enterprise organisations were profit and not-for-profit types of organisations (i.e. Chamber of Commerce in Portugal and Ireland, forestry industry and energy agencies in Ireland, labour unions and business network in Iceland, and local community development groups that are partly privately owned in Sicily). For those reasons they were classified as a separate category group.

For example, in Sicily there were 14 social enterprise organisations, from which six are for-profit businesses active in fields like marketing, catering and communication; and the other eight were not-for-profit and NGOs (non-governmental organisations), including private foundations, working with migrants, regional development issues, children and youth employment organisations.

5.2.1.1 The survey's response rate

The response rate in each of the surveyed countries was as follows:

In Sicily the survey was distributed on-line to an average 8 employees from 27 different organisations, that is in total 216 survey requests of which 52 responded, which provides a response rate at about 24.7%. In Greece, from a total of 249 survey requests, 53 responded with four invalid responses, providing 49 valid responses (a response rate of 21.2%).

In Portugal, the survey was sent on-line and by hardcopy to the total of 71 organisations, to average 8 employees per organisation, giving in total 568 survey requests, of which 209 valid responses were collected; providing a response rate at about 37%.

In Bulgaria, the survey was sent by hardcopy and by email to 34 organisations to 5 employees per each organisation, giving in total 170 survey requests from which 50 responded; providing a valid response rate of 29.4%.

In Iceland, the survey was administered by using Survey Monkey and sent to 167 different organisations/associations, from which 41 employees/volunteers responded (with one invalid response) including 34 different organisations. Survey Monkey was also used to distribute the survey in both, Ireland and Sicily. The survey was sent to 3 employees per each organisation/association type (that is 501 survey requests) and yielding a low resp**o**nse rate, at only 8%.

In Ireland, of the total 225 survey requests (with 5 respondents per organisation asked), a total of 52 responded from 31 different organisations, with two invalid responses, providing a total of 50 valid responses. That resulted with a total response rate at 23.1 %. In Ireland, the response level was monitored on-line by the Survey Monkey, and as soon as the number of responses was reached (50), the data collection process was stopped. The next sub-section presents findings as regards respondents' level of employment by referring to their current job roles.

5.2.2 The employment level of respondents

This subsection refers to employees'/volunteers' level of employment and their current job position. All the employees' roles were grouped into three main categories, such as:

- "*Senior executives*" (elected leaders, general managers, CEOs, managing directors, Heads of Departments)
- *"Middle management*" (coordinators, managers, centre managers, project managers)
- "*Operatives"* (clerks, administrators, engineers, lecturers, researchers, curators, clergymen, council employees)

The following Table 5.3 illustrates the total number of male and female respondents across public, voluntary and social enterprise sector organisations from each of the six countries, who indicated their level of employment and the type of job roles they perform in their organisations. Please, note that, as regards Greece, there were no responses to these questions.

Table 5.3 The level of employment by gender, sector and country

	Country	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily	
Country	**Employment Level**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**
Public	***Senior Ex.***	2	1	-	-	4	4	5	1	13	0	2	1
	Middle Manager	0	0	-	-	5	7	4	3	0	0	1	0
	Operatives	1	5	-	-	0	0	7	10	30	85	0	0
Voluntary	***Senior Ex.***	1	3	-	-	2	6	0	1	8	0	1	4
	Middle Manager	2	2	-	-	2	3	2	2	0	0	9	2
	Operatives	1	0	-	-	0	0	2	2	8	4	2	1
Social E	***Senior Ex.***	8	7	-	-	0	3	3	3	23	0	3	6
	Middle Manager	0	1	-	-	2	2	1	0	0	0	6	9
	Operatives	3	13	-	-	0	0	1	3	14	24	3	2
Total F/M		**18**	**32**	**-**	**-**	**15**	**25**	**25**	**25**	**96**	**113**	**27**	**25**
Total No		**50**		**No Data**		**40**		**50**		**209**		**52**	

[M-males; F-females; Senior Ex. - senior executives] **(Source: Author)**

As regards to respondents' level of employment, Table 5.3 indicates that, for the public sector in Portugal and Ireland, there were more males who are in 'senior management' roles, in comparison to females who hold rather more administrative or ‘operatives’ roles. For example, in Portugal, across all the sectors, there is a notable contrast in roles held by females and males, with more males holding senior management positions (44 out of 96), and with all 113 females holding ‘operatives’ roles. Overall, there was no ‘middle manager roles’ recorded for Portugal, which is rather unusual (see Table 5.3).

In Iceland, all respondents are either senior executives or hold middle management positions in their organisations; these roles are also equally distributed among female and male respondents in the public sector. However, there were more senior management positions among females (52%) than male respondents (47%). Moreover, it is unusual that there are no ‘operatives’ recorded in the responses from Iceland.

As regards respondents’ roles and gender, a noteworthy observation can be made in both voluntary and social enterprise sectors (SE) in Iceland and Sicily, where the data report that female respondents are in higher levels in their organisations in comparison to males. In Sicily, this may be related to the fact that most of the surveyed organisations were SE or voluntary (see Table 5.2), where it is common to see many women involved in such types of organisations and are in higher-based positions. Again, a similar finding was observed as regards females’ roles in the voluntary and SE sectors in Iceland, where the data confirms that female respondents are also in higher job positions in comparison to male respondents. Overall, in Iceland, nearly half of respondents (19 out of 40) registered as ‘senior executives’ in their organisations.

5.2.3 The age of respondents

Table 5.4 outlines the age of the study sample divided by sector, gender and country. Each of the respondents were requested to state their age by classifying it into one of the five age categories; that is: 21-30, 31-40 41-50, 51-60 and 61 and more years of age. In Bulgaria, in the public sector, the majority of employees are between 51-60 years of age, respectively at 6 out of 9; and all respondents in the public sector in Sicily are falling between 51-60 years of age category. In contrast, all respondents in the voluntary sector (in Bulgaria) are relatively young, with an age range of 21-30 years. Such a young age profile in the voluntary sector is, according to a respondent from Bulgaria, because “*the voluntary sector is a sector that can support young employees to gain work experience as there is no or little costs associated with this type of employment*”. The findings in Bulgaria appear to correspond with the findings in the voluntary sector in Scilly, where the majority of employees/volunteers (14 out of 18) are 31-40 and less years of age, while all public sector respondents are 50 and more years of age (see Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 The Age of respondents by gender, sector and country

	Country	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily	
Sector	**Age [Years]**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**
Public	**21-30**	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	19	0	0
	31-40	1	1	5	7	1	1	3	5	17	38	0	0
	41-50	0	0	3	8	3	6	7	8	12	13	0	0
	51-60	2	4	4	2	3	4	3	1	9	10	2	1
	60+	0	0	0	0	2	0	3	0	0	5	1	0
Voluntary	**21-30**	4	5	-	-	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	2
	31-40	0	0	-	-	0	5	0	2	0	3	10	4
	41-50	0	0	-	-	1	3	3	3	4	0	0	1
	51-60	0	0	-	-	2	0	0	0	10	0	0	0
	60+	0	0	-	-	1	1	1	0	2	0	0	0
Social E	**21-30**	2	8	0	1	0	0	1	1	7	3	4	6
	31-40	6	6	3	3	0	2	2	3	12	14	6	7
	41-50	1	3	5	5	2	3	1	1	6	7	2	3
	51-60	1	3	2	1	0	0	1	1	9	0	0	1
	60+	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
Total F/M		**18**	**32**	**22**	**27**	**15**	**25**	**25**	**25**	**96**	**113**	**27**	**25**
Total No		**50**		**49**		**40**		**50**		**209**		**52**	

(Source: Author)

In Greece, most of respondents surveyed are of a middle-age that is between 31 to 50 years of age (39 out of 49); especially those in the public sector (23 out of 29), with 12 respondents (both females and males) registering with 31-40 years of age and 11 being 41-50 years of age. Overall, it was surprising to see only one out of 49 respondents being 21-30 years of age (see Table 5.4), social enterprise sector.

In Iceland, the average respondents’ age in both, public and social enterprise sectors, is 41- 50 years of age, while in the voluntary sector female employees appear to be younger than male employees; with most of females being 31-40 years of age (5 out of 9) and male employees being 51-60 years of age.

In Ireland, half of all the respondents are between 41-50 years of age (25), from which most of them are females (14). The female population is relatively younger than males, across all the surveyed organisations in Ireland); yet, it was surprising to see that, in total, only two respondents in Ireland reported 21-30 years and solely in the SE sector. Overall, there were no female respondents Ireland of 60+ of age, in comparison to four males (three in the public sector, one in voluntary sector). This gives a similar age profile as in Greece, where 23 out of 49 respondents registered with 40-50 years of age (see Table 5.4). However, in Greece, there were no respondents over 60 years, and with only one female respondent (in SE sector) who registered with 21-30 years of age.

In Portugal, although the majority of employees in the public and social enterprise sectors are 31-40 years of age, there is a notable contrast in respondents' age in the voluntary sector; with all the female employees being 40 and less years of age and the majority of male employees (10 out of 16) falling within the 51-60 years of age category.

Overall, it can be concluded from Table 5.4 that those respondents in the public sector are usually older than those from the voluntary sector organisations, which tend to attract a younger workforce; with those in the social enterprise sector falling into middle category age that is 31-40 years of age. Moreover, Bulgaria and Sicily have a younger age group of respondents, in comparison to other surveyed countries.

An identifiable trend for Ireland, Iceland and Greece is that there are almost no respondents being 21-30 years of age (except one of respondent in each country, Ireland and Greece). This finding appears to be interesting in the context of the recent data by Eurostat (from 11th August, 2015) as regards "Employment rates by Age Group"[18]. Such ranking indicates that, the overall employment rate in Ireland for those employed as being between 25-54 years is estimated at about 74%, and for those being 15-24 years at only 25%. To compare, for Iceland the overall employment rates are: for those employed being of 25-54 years (at about 78%), and for those employed being of 15-24 years, as high as 74%. As such, in Iceland where

[18] http://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statisticsexplained/index.php/File:Employment_rates_by_age_group,_2014_(%C2%B9)_(%25)_YB16.png

the chances of being employed for the young people being 15-24 years are higher (at 74%) than in Ireland (at 25%) it is unusual to see a very small number of surveyed employees/volunteers being 21-30 year of age.

5.2.4 Respondents' level of education attainment

Table 5.5 contains data with respect to respondents' levels of education attainment presented by country, sector and gender. Respondents were requested to indicate the highest level of educational attainment, from the following: *Secondary, Certificate, Degree (BS and BA)*[19], *Post Graduate, PhD.* and "other", which could include additional certificates and diplomas related to specific types of training and courses.

Table 5.5 The level of education attainment

Sector	Education level	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily	
		M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Public	*Second*							1		13	21		
	Certificate	3	4			1	1		1	10	32		
	Degree				10		7		5	15	18	3	1
	P Grad			8	5	8	2	12	6	5	9		
	Ph.D.		2	4	2			3	2		5		
	Other						1						
	Total M/F	**3**	**6**	**12**	**17**	**9**	**11**	**16**	**14**	**43**	**85**	**3**	**1**
Voluntary	*Second*	1	2	-	-				1				
	Certificate	2	2	-	-	1	1		1	6		2	1
	Degree			-	-		4	1	2	10	4	5	2
	P Grad			-	-	2	3	2	1			5	3
	Ph.D.	1	1	-	-	1	1	1					1
	Other			-	-								
	Total M/F	**4**	**5**	**-**	**-**	**4**	**9**	**4**	**5**	**16**	**4**	**12**	**7**
Social E	*Second*	1	1		1					4	5		
	Certificate	9	18		2	1	1					1	2
	Degree	1		6			1		1	33	19	7	8
	P Grad			4	6	1	2	4	4			4	6
	Ph.D.		2		1				1				1
	Other	0	0				1	1					
	Total M/F	**11**	**21**	**10**	**10**	**2**	**5**	**5**	**6**	**37**	**24**	**12**	**17**
Total F/M per country		**18**	**32**	**22**	**27**	**15**	**35**	**25**	**25**	**96**	**113**	**27**	**25**
Total Nr of respondents		**50**		**49**		**40**		**50**		**209**		**52**	

[Sec-second level of education; M-males; F-females; P Grad- Post Graduate] (Source: Author)

[19] A Degree level is a university degree, including BS (Bachelor of Science) and BA (Bachelor of Arts).

Overall, the data in Table 5.5 suggest that the majority of respondents in Bulgaria- especially in the public sector, reported a relatively low level of education attainment that is, a Certificate level of education (38 out of 50); however, according to Table 5.5 there were four females who have a PhD (two in the public sector and two in the SE sector) in comparison to only one male in the voluntary sector. A similar finding is reported in Portugal, where more than half of the female respondents (53 out of 85) attained as their highest level of education either second level (21) or a certificate degree (32). Moreover, the level of education attained among males and females in the public sector in Portugal are similar. However, five of the female respondents have a Ph.D. (in the public sector) in comparison to none of the male respondents. Overall, it was surprising to see that in Portugal, of the total number of 209 respondents, there were only 5 respondents who attained a PhD degree.

In Bulgaria, in the public sector organisations, it is interesting to see that the majority of respondents (7 out of 9) hold only a Certificate level of education (see Table 5.5); additionally, half of the female employees in the public sector (3 out of 6) in Bulgaria tend to stay in their roles for a longer period of time at about 15 years (Table 5.6), irrespective to their roles.

In contrast, in Ireland, Iceland and Greece the level of education attainment is relatively high, with most of the respondents holding a post graduate degree, at 29 out of 50, 18 out of 40 and 23 out of 49, respectively. For example, in Ireland the education attainment among respondents is relatively high with 58% respondents holding a Post Graduate level of education, from which 62% are from the public sector. However, there are more males with a higher education level in Ireland than females where 68% of males attained a Post Graduate degree, in comparison to 48% females. In Iceland, half respondents in the public sector hold a Post Graduate degree (10 out of 20); however, with notably more males holding such qualifications (89%) than females, whom mostly attained a Degree level of education (64%). Overall, 72% of females in the public sector in Iceland did not attain a master’s degree. In addition, the data reported that these females display a relatively high level of past entrepreneurial behaviour with 54% of females (in the public sector) and 56% across all the sectors who were owner of a business in the past, before being employed in their current organisations (see Table 5.9).

As regards education profile in the public sector in Greece, the data report that there are more males with a higher education qualifications in comparison to females; with all male respondents holding at least a Post Graduate degree, whereas most of females (10 out of 17) attained a degree level of education. In respect to respondents' educational qualification in the social enterprise sector, the data inform that in Greece and Sicily, there are more female than male employees who hold a higher level of education, with most females holding a Post Graduate degree, and most of male employees holding a Degree level qualification (see Table 5.5).

5.2.5 Respondents' longevity of employment

This sub-section presents the findings in respect to respondents' roles and, longevity of employment (or their job tenure) in their respective organisations. The following tables illustrate the number of employees/volunteers that have been employed for a certain period of time (see heading "Years"), in their current job roles (Table 5.6) and in their organisations (Table 5.7).

Table 5.6 Respondents' years of employment within their current job role

	Country	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily	
Sector	Years	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Public	0-5		3	-	-	6	6	9	2	34	25	3	
	6 -10	1		-	-	3	5	2	7	4	38		
	11- 15	1		-	-			5	5	5	22		
	16 -20			-	-								1
	20+	1	3	-	-								
Voluntary	0-5	4	4	-	-	1	6		3		4	11	6
	6 -10		1	-	-		3	1				1	1
	11 -15			-		3		3	2	16			
	16 -20			-	-								
	20+			-	-								
Social Enterprise	0-5	5	11	-	-	2	2	3	4	11	9	8	15
	6 – 10	3	10	-	-		3		1	17	13	4	
	11-15	1		-	-			2	1	9	2		
	16-20	1		-	-								2
	20+			-	-								
Total F/M		17	32	22	27	15	25	25	25	96	113	27	25

(Source: Author)

The data for Greece were not categorised by gender. However, based on the composite data for all three sectors, there is evidence to suggest that of the 49 respondents 34 were with their respective organisations for over 10 years (15 of which are with their organisations over 20 years), and 15 were in their organisations less than 10 years (three of which for less than 2 years). As regards employment levels in Greece, of all the respondents 19 have been in the same role for more than 10 years, while another 30 for a shorter period, as short as 1-2 years.

Table 5.7 Respondents' years of employment within their organisations

	Country	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily	
Sector	**Years**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**
Public	**0-5**		3	-	-	2	1	4		34	5	3	
	6-10			-	-	7	8	3	4		55		
	11-15	2		-	-		2	9	10	9	25		
	16-20			-	-								1
	20+	1	3	-	-								
Voluntary	**0-5**	3	4	-	-	1	6		3		4	10	6
	6-10	1		-	-		3	1				2	1
	11-15		1	-	-	3		3	2	16			
	16-20			-	-								
	20+			-	-								
Social Enterprise	**0-5**	5	11	-	-	1	2	3	3	11	9	8	15
	6-10	3	10	-	-	1	3		2	17	13	4	
	11-15	1		-	-			2	1	9	2		
	16 -20	1		-	-								
	20+			-	-								**2**
Total F/M		**17**	**32**	**22**	**27**	**15**	**96**	**27**	**27**	**96**	**113**	**27**	**25**

(Source: Author)

For Bulgaria, an identifiable characteristic for the public sector is that employees in the public sector tend to remain in their roles for a longer period of time that is for 11 and more years, which was declared by 5 out of 8 respondents; with half of females working for more than 20 years in their roles and in their organisations, mostly holding 'operatives' roles.

In Portugal, when comparing both Tables 5.6 and 5.7 it can be observed that there is higher role mobility among females in the public sector where out of 55 females who work between 6-10 years in their organisations, 38 females remained in their roles (see Table 5.6) while another 17 females are in their current roles between 0-5 years. This is an interesting finding as most of the female respondents are relatively young, with 57 out of 85 females being of 21-40 years of age (see Table 5.4) and all are working in operative/administrative roles (see Table 5.3). In contrast, of all 43 male respondents in the public sector in Portugal only four declared they are working in their job role for the period of 6-10 years (see Table 5.6); this may also relate to the fact that 23 out of 43 of these males are between 21-40 years of age (see Table 5.4).

Relatively low mobility (or role fluctuations) in the sector are shown in the voluntary sector across most of the surveyed countries (see Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Sicily), where the majority of respondents, especially females, tend to work in their roles as long as they are working in their organisations. This finding also corresponds to employees in the public sector in Sicily and Bulgaria. In the social enterprise sector organisations, across all the surveyed countries, there is less role changing in comparison to respondents in the public sector.

However, there have been more changes in respondents' roles in the public sector over time in Iceland and Ireland, especially for those respondents working in their organisations between 11-15 years. For instance, of the 10 female respondents in the public sector in Ireland working in their organisations between 11-15 years (see Table 5.7) five still remain in the same job roles, while another five stated they changed their roles; with two females working in their new job roles between 0-5 years and the other three working in their job roles for 6-10 years (see Table 5.6). Moreover, the data in Table 5.6 indicate that there appears to be more male respondents in the public sector in Ireland who have changed their job in the last five years (5) in comparison to only 2 females. This may be related to the fact that males in the public sector in Ireland have a higher education qualification than females (see Table 5.5) and perhaps this increases their chances for new job opportunities. Overall, in Iceland in the public sector, females are working slightly longer than males in their organisations (see Table 5.7); however, both male and female respondents had held their job roles for less than five years (6 out of 9 males; 6 out of 11 females) as evidenced in Table 5.6.

In Sicily, most of the respondents (42 out of 50) across all the three sectors had been working in their organisations for a relatively short period of time, five or less years. This is probably due to the relatively young age of respondents but also due to the nature of the not-for profit organisations surveyed, which usually attract a younger workforce.

5.3 Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of employees/volunteers

The purpose of this sub-section is to present the survey findings concerned with two aspects: (i) Entrepreneurial background of employees/volunteers and (ii) Employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour at work. In line with these aspects, this part of the survey focused on respondents' past entrepreneurial experiences, for instance, if they ever started their own business or set up/initiated a club, society, interest group or voluntary organisation. Moreover, this part of the survey also enquired whether respondents behave entrepreneurially at work by asking if they ever improved or initiated processes, procedures, services/products and goals in their respective organisations. Table 5.8 provides a summary of all the respondents who claimed they did behave (see the heading "Yes") or not (see the heading "No"), entrepreneurially in the past.

Table 5.8 The number of respondents with past entrepreneurial experience

Type of organisation	Country	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily	
	Gender	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
Public	Yes	2	2	10	8	6	7	11	9	15	18	1	0
	No	1	4	2	9	3	4	5	5	28	67	2	1
	Total F/M	3	6	12	17	9	11	16	14	43	85	3	1
Voluntary	Yes	2	4	-	-	4	9	4	4	10	3	10	6
	No	2	1	-	-	0	0	0	1	6	1	2	1
	Total F/M	4	5	-	-	4	9	4	5	16	4	12	7
Social Enterprise	Yes	8	8	7	6	2	5	3	4	22	8	12	11
	No	3	13	3	4	0	0	2	2	15	16	0	6
	Total F/M	11	21	10	10	2	5	5	6	37	24	12	17
Total nr of F/M per country		18	32	22	27	15	25	25	25	96	113	27	25
Total nr of respondents		50		49		40		50		209		52	

[F-females, M-males, Yes-respondents with experience, No-respondents without experience]
(Source: Author)

Data compiled from the Table 5.8 indicate that most of the respondents have past entrepreneurial experience (outside of their workplace), with Iceland at 83% (33 out 40) Sicily at 77% (40 out of 52), Ireland at 74% (35 out of 50) with the highest number of respondents followed by those in Greece at 63% (31 out of 50) and Portugal, at only 36% (76 out of 209). Overall, there was a high number of respondents in the public sector organisations in Ireland (67%), Iceland (65%) and Greece (62%) who declared they had past entrepreneurial experience; yet, the corresponding number of males (10 out of 12) in the public sector Greece was higher in comparison to females (8 out 17).

In Iceland there was the highest level of past entrepreneurial experience reported across all the sectors surveyed, with 56% of females and 40% of males who have started their own business (see Table 5.9). Overall, it is interesting to see that nearly 50% (19 out of 40) of Icelandic respondents started a business, hence they acquired entrepreneurial knowledge and expertise that perhaps may explain their proactive approach at work resulting in a high number of improvements at work (see Table 5.10). Moreover, the data indicate that from all the six surveyed countries, only in Iceland it was the case that all respondents in both voluntary (13) and social enterprise organisations (7) declared they had past entrepreneurial experience.

The interesting finding for Iceland is that the corresponding number of female respondents who registered with past entrepreneurial experience across all the three sectors is slightly higher (21 out of 25) than males (12 out of 15) (see Table 5.8); especially in the public sector where more than half of public sector females in Iceland (6 out of 11), declared they had initiated their own business. This is contrary to the finding in other surveyed countries where more males in comparison to females reported business-related past entrepreneurial experience.

Another noteworthy finding that emerged as regards past entrepreneurial experience and female respondents was noted in the public sector in Greece (47%), in Bulgaria (33%) and Portugal (21%), where overall less than a half of female employees declared they had such experience. Moreover, it was observed based on the available data (see Table 5.10) that female respondents in the public sector in Bulgaria and Greece appear to behave proactively at work with half of these females declaring they have improved/initiated at least two different initiatives at work. Yet, those females in Portugal all claimed, they improved one aspect at work, and mainly contributing to “goals”, 24 out of 85 (28%), area of improvement.

Overall, with respect to gender and past entrepreneurial experience, the data indicate that there is a notable contrast in the past entrepreneurial experience among male and female employees; especially in the public and social enterprise sector organisations in Portugal, Bulgaria and Greece where there appears to be a relatively higher proportion of male employees, who registered past entrepreneurial experience, in comparison to female employees. This finding also corresponds with respondents in the social enterprise sector in Sicily, where it is also evident that females have gained less past entrepreneurial experience, in comparison to males. However, in Portugal an interesting data result is that, although there are a relatively small number of employees with past entrepreneurial experience (32%), all employees, across the three organisation types, stated they did behave entrepreneurially in their current workplace (see Table 5.10).

Overall, Table 5.8 informs, that employees/volunteers in the public and social enterprise sector organisations do not seem to display the same levels of the past entrepreneurial experience as those employees/volunteers in the voluntary sector organisations; with the exception of male employees in the voluntary sector in Portugal, where 10 out of 16 reported past entrepreneurial experience. Furthermore, the data also established, that for the voluntary sector organisations across all the countries (except Iceland), overall it appear that more females registered past entrepreneurial experience, in comparison to male employees.

5.3.1 Types of respondents'/volunteers' past entrepreneurial experience

Another aspect of the respondents' entrepreneurial background was to verify the type of organisations that respondents have started or initiated in the past. Individual respondents who may in the past have established his/her own business, community organisation or a new club, already have a glimpse of what it means to be entrepreneurial and may inherently think and behave in an entrepreneurial manner at their workplace. Especially those employees/volunteers who started/initiated their own business in the past may display a high level of knowledge and experience and entrepreneurial spirit, that could be useful for the purposes of improving different aspects of their work, including processes, services/products, procedures or goals.

Table 5.9 provides details in relation to respondents' past entrepreneurial activities and the types of organisations they have started/initiated.

Table 5.9 Types of the organisations started/initiated by respondents

	Country	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily	
Sector	**Types of org.**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**
Public	***O.B.***			8	4	4	6	4	1	15	12		
	Club	1		2	1	4	2	5	5		6	1	
	Society		1			2		2	3				
	Vol. Gr.	1			2	2	1	5	3			1	
	Intrst. Gr.		1		1	2		4	2				
	Lobby Gr.					4	3	1					
	Other			1	1	1	1	1	1				
	Nr of M/F with past experience	**2**	**2**	**10**	**8**	**6**	**7**	**11**	**9**	**15**	**18**	**1**	**0**
	Nr of organisations	**2**	**2**	**11**	**9**	**19**	**13**	**20**	**15**	**15**	**18**	**3**	**0**
Voluntary	***O.B.***		2	-	-	1	3	3	4	4	1	1	
	Club	1	1	-	-	1	3	1	2	1	1		
	Society		1	-	-		3	1	2		1	2	2
	Vol. Gr.	1		-	-	1	2	2	2	3		4	2
	Intrst. Gr.			-	-		1					1	1
	Lobby Gr.			-	-	1	2		1	1			
	Other			-	-		2			1		2	1
	Nr of M/F with past experience	**2**	**4**	**-**	**-**	**4**	**9**	**4**	**4**	**10**	**3**	**10**	**6**
	Nr of organisations	**2**	**4**	**-**	**-**	**4**	**16**	**7**	**11**	**10**	**3**	**10**	**6**
Social Enterprise	***O.B.***	5	8	3	3	1	5	2	4	12	4	4	
	Club	1		3	2			2	1				
	Society	1	1						2	5		2	1
	Vol. Gr.	1		1				1	2	5	4	3	6
	Intrst. Gr.		1	2		1		1	1			1	3
	Lobby Gr.						1	1					
	Other			1	3		1	1				2	1
	Nr of M/F with past experience	**8**	**8**	**7**	**6**	**2**	**5**	**3**	**4**	**22**	**8**	**12**	**11**
	Nr of organisations	**8**	**10**	**9**	**8**	**2**	**7**	**8**	**10**	**22**	**8**	**12**	**11**
Total nr of respondents		**50**		**56**		**40**		**50**		**209**		**52**	

[O.B. - owner of the business; F-females, M-males; Gr. – group; Intrst.-interest; Other- another type of organisation stated by respondents, Nr. of organisations- refers to the total number of organisations started by males/females in that sector] (Source: Author)

As regards types of the past entrepreneurial activities of employees/volunteers working in public, voluntary and social enterprise sectors, the data in Table 5.9 suggest, that employees in the public sector in Iceland and Ireland were involved in initiating many different types of the organisations in the past; especially male employees in these countries. For instance, the data indicate, that 4 out of 9 male employees in the public sector in Iceland stated, they were involved in setting up at least three different organisations types, including a club and a lobby group and own business. This further may explain the findings as regard improvements at work, and why respondents in Iceland and Ireland also took a proactive approach in improving organisation's 'goals', 'processes' or 'services'(see Table 5.10).

Moreover, it was interesting to see that out of the total number of respondents in the public sector in Iceland, half were owner of a business (10 out of 20), including more than half of female employees who indicated they started their own business in the past. However, it was also interesting to see that in the public sector in Ireland, most of the respondents were involved in setting up a club in the past (10), rather than their own business, especially among females. This also corresponds with the data findings for the public sector in Greece (see Table 5.9), where more than half of the respondents registered past entrepreneurial experience, with more male employees than females who had started/initiated their own business or a club.

Another interesting finding as regards past entrepreneurial activities in Iceland and in Ireland can be observed in the voluntary sector, especially among female employees, who according to the data appear to be more proactive in initiating different organisation types in the past than their male peers. To support that view, the data report, that in Ireland, on average 4 out of 5 females stated, they have initiated at least two different organisations types (mostly own business)[20]; also in Iceland, in the voluntary sector on average 33% females stated, they started at least three different organisations, such as their own business, club or a society.

In the social enterprise sector, it was interesting to see the differences in the type of the past entrepreneurial activities among female respondents from Bulgaria, Iceland and Sicily. For example, all female employees in the social enterprise sector in Iceland (5) and in Bulgaria (8) stated they initiated their own business in the past. In contrast, most female employees in Sicily (6 out of 11) expressed they were involved in setting up different types of organisations, such as voluntary groups (6 out of 11) or an interest group (see Table 5.9).

[20] Among the organisations types started by respondents in Ireland were the "Mother-Toddler Group" for young mothers and their children (interest group), the "Rural Youth Association" (society club), also a" Centre for Newfoundland and Labrador Studies".

The second part of this sub-section presents the findings as to whether respondents behave entrepreneurially in their current organisation that is if they ever initiated or improved work goals, processes, product/services or procedures within their organisations. Table 5.10 outlines the number of employees/volunteers per country/sector and gender who stated they have improved/initiated different aspects of their work (see the rows marked "Yes").

Table 5.10 Respondents' types of improvements in their respective organisations

	Country	Bulgaria		Greece		Iceland		Ireland		Portugal		Sicily	
Sector	**Types of improvement**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**	**M**	**F**
Public	***Goals***	0	1	3	3	7	6	13	8	14	24	0	1
	Products	1	0	2	2	3	3	6	4	8	9	0	0
	Services	1	1	11	12	6	7	13	10	11	17	0	1
	Processes	1	2	0	0	3	7	14	13	4	19	0	1
	Procedures	0	2	8	10	5	7	2	13	6	16	0	1
	Other	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
	Yes	3	3	11	12	7	7	14	13	43	85	0	1
	Total Nr F/M	**3**	**6**	**12**	**17**	**9**	**11**	**16**	**14**	**43**	**85**	**3**	**1**
Voluntary	***Goals***	1	2	-	-	4	7	4	4	6	1	4	5
	Products	0	1	-	-	3	6	2	3	4	1	1	5
	Services	1	0	-	-	3	9	4	4	4	1	5	6
	Processes	1	2	-	-	2	6	3	4	2	1	5	1
	Procedures	1	0	-	-	2	6	4	2	0	0	3	3
	Other	0	0	-	-	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
	Yes	2	4	-	-	4	9	4	5	16	4	8	7
	Total Nr F/M	**4**	**5**	**-**	**-**	**4**	**9**	**4**	**5**	**16**	**4**	**12**	**7**
Social Enterprise	***Goals***	2	3	1	3	2	1	5	5	16	12	9	8
	Products	1	2	0	1	1	4	3	2	5	8	5	5
	Services	3	7	8	6	1	3	4	3	5	1	9	7
	Processes	3	5	0	0	2	1	3	3	8	2	5	7
	Procedures	2	4	6	7	2	2	4	0	3	1	6	4
	Other	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0
	Yes	6	12	8	7	2	4	5	5	37	24	9	8
	Total Nr F/M	**11**	**21**	**10**	**10**	**2**	**5**	**5**	**6**	**37**	**24**	**12**	**17**
Total Nr of respondents		**50**		**49**		**40**		**50**		**209**		**52**	

[Total Nr of F/M- total number of females and males per each sector type] **(Source: Author)**

It was important to categorise types of improvements at work, as depending on the organisations type, employment level and perhaps employee's level of experience and competence, individual employees may differ, in their opportunities or abilities to initiate or even suggest improvements in their organisations. The "other" answers refer to the situations, where one person contributed to many different aspects of work in their organisations. To this end, one respondent in the voluntary sector in Ireland stated he contributed at work to his organisation's "*strategies, structures, projects and partnerships"*.

Table 5.10 informs that overall most of the respondents across the three sectors, except some females from the public sector in Bulgaria and male respondents in Sicily, indicated that, in their view, most of them "contributed" in various ways in their organisations' operations, either internal ones (i.e. setting goals, revision of processes or procedures) or external improvements, related to their dealings with market, including products and services.

As regards respondents' types of improvements in the public sector the data indicate that, most of the employees have contributed in various ways in their organisations, and main areas of improvement included: "services" in Greece (79%), "processes" in Ireland (90%), and "goals" in both, Iceland (65%) and in Portugal (30%). It was also interesting to see that, in Portugal all respondents across all the three sectors stated they took a very proactive approach to improvements at work, with each respondents claiming that he/she has contributed to at least one improvement at work (see Table 5.10). Overall, Portugal is the only country where all respondents declared, they have improved some aspects of their work.

On the other hand, the data indicate that respondents in the public sector, especially females in Bulgaria and males in Sicily appear to behave less proactive or entrepreneurial in their organisations. Moreover, it is interesting to see that from the three male employees in the public sector in Sicily, with one holding a "middle management" role and other two "senior executive" roles, none of them have ever contributed or improved any processes, services goals or processes in their organisations. All those males are 51-60 years of age, with only one (the public sector, Sicily) who stated that, he had past entrepreneurial experience (see Table 5.8).

In the voluntary sector, the data also indicate that there is a relatively high number of employees/volunteers across all the countries (especially in Iceland, Ireland and

Portugal) who, contributed to different aspects of their work, mostly including areas of improvements such as “goals” and “services”. However, in the voluntary sector organisations in Bulgaria and Scilly, it appears that more female employees take a proactive approach in improving “things” at work, in comparison to male employees, especially female employees in Sicily, where all females stated they have contributed, mostly to “services” (7) in their organisations.

With respect to respondent’s entrepreneurial behaviour at work in the social enterprise sector, the data suggest that the types of improvements vary across the countries. For example, most of the respondents in the social enterprise sector in Portugal, and all in Sicily and Ireland, stated they had mostly contributed to “goals” in their organisations, while most of the respondents in Bulgaria and Greece, were rather concerned with improvement of “services“ at their work.

As regards types of improvements in the social enterprise sector most of the improvements were concerned either with “services” (Bulgaria at 56%; Greece at 93%; and Sicily at 94%) or with “goals” (Ireland at 100%; Portugal at 46% and Scilly at 100%) (see Table 5.10). Overall, in Greece and Bulgaria on average 50% of respondents claimed they have introduced at least 2 improvements in their respective organisations. However, in the case of Sicily and Ireland, there was a strong indication that, especially, male employees were proactively orientated at work. For instance, 100% male respondents in Ireland and 75% in Sicily (also 47% female respondents in Sicily) stated they made on average four different improvements. Moreover, all these males stated they have contributed to the “goals” aspect in their respective organisations.

With respect to the types of improvements and gender, the data inform that in the public sector in Ireland, there are differences in the types of improvement between female and male employees. While both female and male have were very proactive in improving “processes” in their organisations, male employees were focused on improving “goals” and “services”, in turn, females were more concerned with “procedures” (13) in their organisations. This is an interesting finding that may also be related to the nature of work and types of roles that, both female and male employees perform within the public sector organisations in Ireland. According to the data, the majority of female employees in the public sector in Ireland are in operative roles (10 out of 14) (see Table 5.3), hence this may also explain their tendency to focus more on “procedures”, a more functional aspect of work that assists their day-to-day operations. In contrast, most of male employees in the public sector in Ireland (9 out of 16) hold senior management or middle management positions (see Table 5.3) hence this may also suggest their tendency to improve the more strategic aspects of their work, such as “goals”[21]. Overall, “services”, beside “processes”, was also one of the main subjects of improvement for male respondents in the public sector in Ireland; also for all respondents in Greece (100%), and all female respondents in Iceland.

5.4 Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of the organisations

This aspect of the survey pertaining to the organisation’s EO was designed to identify the organisation’s environment that respondents are working in and the extent to which these organisations are “entrepreneurially orientated”; and whether organisations support and facilitate their employees’/volunteers’ entrepreneurial and innovative behaviour at work. In total, four sets of questions were used, in order to explore this aspect of the organisations:

(i) The freedom and encouragement employees/volunteers had in their organisations to pursue opportunities or improve “things” at work.

(ii) The empowerment of employees/volunteers had in decision-making processes.

(iii) To establish whether it is important or not for employees/volunteers to behave innovatively/creatively within their working environment.

(iv) To ascertain if organisations, in respondents’ views, require them to display entrepreneurial orientation attributes when performing their job tasks

The above findings were organised into two main sub-sections. The first sub-section 5.3.1, presents the data as regards to the first three questions (i), (ii), and (iii). The second sub-section, 5.3.2, focuses on question (iv) listed above. The last question

[21] **‘Goals’** are usually concerned with more strategic and focal aspects of work, whereas **‘Procedures’** are more concerned with administrative aspects of work such as rules or regulations, or instructions that assist or guide performance of certain role types.

(iv) was designed to understand if the environment that those respondents are working in, can be described or classified as “entrepreneurial”.

5.4.1 Empowerment, encouragement and innovative/creative behaviour

This sub-section presents the findings as to whether organisations across public, voluntary and social enterprise sectors, in the opinion of respondents, encourage them to explore new opportunities or empower them to take part in decision-making processes at work. It also presents respondents views as to how important it is for employees/volunteers to be innovative and creative in their organisations, when delivering services to customers.

According to the data in Table 5.11 employees in the public sector organisations do not appear to enjoy the same levels of decision-making empowerment and encouragement as those respondents in the voluntary sector organisations. For instance, while nearly all respondents in the voluntary sector indicate they feel empowered in decision-making processes and/or encouraged to seek new opportunities (except a small number of males in the voluntary sector in Portugal), there is a tendency that female employees in the public sector (for example in Bulgaria 50%, Greece 52% and Portugal 61%) are not encouraged nor empowered as much as their male counterparts in their organisations. However, this may be linked to the nature of work they perform, as most of these females hold operative roles in their organisations; hence the remit of their job description may limit their decision-making latitude.

Table 5.11 displays the data as regards to the overall number of respondents who expressed their view, whether they feel empowered to make their own decisions and/or if they are encouraged to pursue new opportunities in their organisations. Table 5.11 also displays data regarding how important it is, in the view of employees’/volunteers’, to behave innovatively and creatively at work.

Table 5.11 The level of encouragement, empowerment and the importance of innovative/creative behaviour in the organisation

	Country	Bulgaria				Greece				Iceland				Ireland				Portugal				Sicily			
	Sector	M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F	
	Yes/No	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
Encouragement	**Public**	3	0	3	3	11	1	9	8	7	2	9	1	13	3	12	2	22	21	52	33	0	3	1	0
	Voluntary	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	3	1	7	2	3	1	5	0	14	2	4	0	12	0	7	0
	Social Enterprise	9	2	15	6	5	5	6	4	2	0	5	0	5	0	6	0	22	15	22	2	12	0	17	0
	Other									1						1									
	Total nr of respondents	**50**				**49**				**40**				**50**				**209**				**52**			
Empowerment	**Public**	3	0	3	3	8	4	9	8	9	0	9	2	13	3	10	4	42	1	60	25	0	3	1	0
	Voluntary	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	4	0	9	0	4	0	5	0	14	2	4	0	12	0	7	0
	Social Enterprise	10	1	18	3	4	6	7	3	2	0	5	0	5	0	6	0	22	15	22	2	11	1	17	0
	Other													1											
	Total nr of respondents	**50**				**49**				**40**				**50**				**209**				**52**			
Need to be innovative/creative	**Public**	3	0	6	0	12	0	15	2	7	2	9	1	15	1	11	3	41	2	80	5	1	2	1	0
	Voluntary	4	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	2	1	4	5	4	0	5	0	16	0	4	0	12	0	7	0
	Social Enterprise	11	0	21	0	10	0	10	0	2	0	4	1	5	0	6	0	27	10	22	2	12	0	17	0
	Other									2															
	Total nr of respondents	**50**				**49**				**40**				**50**				**209**				**52**			

['Other'- additional comments made by respondents to the survey questions; Y-yes, N-no, F- females, M-males] **(Source: Author)**

The style of questions used to gather the data presented in Table 5.11 were dichotomous that provides two possible responses, such as ‘Yes/No’. The heading “other” reflects an individual respondent’s opinions, as to what it means for them to be ‘encouraged’, ‘empowered’ or/and ‘to behave innovatively’ in their organisations.

In respect to encouragement and empowerment in the social enterprise sector, an interesting finding is to see that there appears to be more male employees in Portugal (15 out of 37) and in Greece (5 out of 10) than females, who stated they do not feel encouraged in their organisations, nor empowered in their decision-making processes. For example in Portugal in the social enterprise sector, more females stated (22 out of 24) they feel empowered in the decision-making process in their organisations, in comparison to males (22 out of 37).

Overall, the data compiled in Table 5.11 indicate that employees in the voluntary sector organisations feel the most empowered to make their own decisions at work and are the most encouraged to seek opportunities within their working environment. Especially, female employees in the voluntary sector in Sicily, Ireland, Portugal and Bulgaria, who according to the data, all expressed they feel both empowered, encouraged and who also support the opinion that employees should behave innovatively and creatively in their respective organisations. Overall, the least empowered set of employees are males in Sicily and also males in the social enterprise organisations in Greece (40%) and Portugal (34%) (see Table 5.11).

The answers under heading “other” included additional comments made by respondents, who expressed their own opinion as regards to encouragement, empowerment or an innovative behaviour at their work. Supportive comments from one male employee in Ireland linked encouragement with a creative culture by stating: “*Within my Department yes but outside of that No - it is very difficult to change the culture of other departments even for improvements there is a reluctance to change”.* Another comment was made by a female respondent from the public sector in Ireland, who interestingly suggested that as regards “empowerment” that “*the organisation’s success depends significantly from being creative and entrepreneurial, but not necessarily being empowered”.*

As regards to the innovative/creative behaviour, the data in Table 5.11 indicate that the majority of respondents concur that it is important for employees to be creative and innovative within their work environments, with Bulgaria (50), and Ireland (47) registering the highest, followed by Sicily (except males in the public sector) and Iceland (28) with the lowest rate of consensus to this question. Overall, (5 out of 9) female respondents in the voluntary sector in Iceland and all males in the public sector in Sicily (3) indicated that they are not required to be innovative and creative in their work. This is an interesting finding considering that all males in the public sector in Sicily are in higher-management positions in their organisations, similarly to those in the voluntary sector in Iceland where 6 out of 9 females hold senior executives positions (see Table 5.3).

5.4.2 Entrepreneurial orientated-attributes (EOA)

The second sub-section pertaining to organisations' EO presents findings as regards respondents' opinions as to whether they consider if their organisations enable them to display entrepreneurial orientation attributes (EOA) when performing their job roles. The EO-related attributes refers, in this study, to non-observable characteristics of organisations' EO that may also reflect their internal environment, as anticipated by Covin and Lumpkin (2011). Depicted in Table 5.12 entrepreneurial attributes were used in the survey as an indication of the organisation's environment: the more respondents answer "Yes", the more an organisation can be classified as "entrepreneurially" orientated.

Table 5.12
Entrepreneurial orientation attributes (EOA) used to discern organisations' EO

Q: "Does your organisation require you to be (tick as many as appropriate)?"		
	Yes	**No**
1. Resourceful		
2. Resilient		
3. Open-minded		
4. Self-confident		
5. Creative/innovative		
6. Passionate about work		

(Source: Author)

There is no data available for this question from the respondents in Greece. However, it was possible to derive general findings in Greece as regards this question. Overall, in Greece, 25 out of 49 (51%) employees concur with the opinion that their organisation requires from both-female and male employees to display EO-related attributes when performing their job roles. Table 5.13 refers to respondents' views, as regards if they are or are not expected to behave in line with EO attributes (see Table 5.12) when performing their designated job roles.

Table 5.13
Respondents' views as to whether their organisations require them to be entrepreneurially orientated at work

	Country	Bulgaria				Iceland				Ireland				Portugal				Sicily			
	Gender	M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F		M		F	
Sector	Yes / No	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N
Public	Total Answers	3	0	3	3	7	2	8	4	11	5	10	4	41	2	73	12	1	2	n/a	n/a
	Total Nr of M/F	3		6		9		12		16		14		43		85		3		1	
Voluntary	Total Answers	4	0	5	0	3	1	8	1	3	1	4	1	7	9	1	3	4	8	5	2
	Total Nr of M/F	4		5		4		9		4		5		16		4		12		7	
Social E	Total Answers	9	2	16	5	1	1	5	0	3	2	5	1	30	7	23	1	9	3	8	9
	Total Nr of F/M	11		21		2		5		5		6		37		24		12		17	
Nr of M/F by country		32		18		15		26		25		25		96		113		27		25	
Total Respondents		50				40				50				209				52			

[n/a- no answer to this question] **(Source: Author)**

According to the data presented in Table 5.13, it can be concluded that in the public sector organisations in Bulgaria, Ireland and Iceland, there are slightly more male employees who stated that, their organisations require them to exhibit EO-related attributes (EOA) when performing their roles, than female employees.

On the other hand, in Portugal in the public sector there was a consensus as regards to respondents' opinions, where a much higher number of both female (73 out of 85 (86%)) and male employees (41 out of 43 (95%)) expressed that their organisations require them to display entrepreneurial attributes, when performing their job roles. However, in the voluntary sector in Portugal and Sicily, an interesting finding is to see that, their employees/volunteers (and especially amongst male respondents) are not so much expected to behave entrepreneurially, in comparison to male respondents from the other countries in the voluntary sector (Table 5.13). This finding is evidenced in the data, for instance in Portugal, where overall only 7 out of 16 (44%) male and only 1 out of 4 female (25%) respondents support the opinion that their organisations require them to be entrepreneurially orientated at work; again in Sicily, this number include only 8 out of 9 female respondents who concur with this opinion (see Table 5.13).

Another interesting conclusion was drawn as regards the voluntary sector in Sicily, where it appears that their organisations seem to require rather from female 5 out of 7 (71%) than male 4 out of 12 (33%) respondents, to display the set of entrepreneurial attributes, while performing their job tasks. This may be linked to their relatively high-based positions in their organisations where 6 out of 7 (86%) females are either senior executives (4) or middle managers (2).

As regards to EO-related attributes requirements and the social enterprise organisations, two interesting points can be derived from the data. The first is that, female employees in the social enterprise sector in Sicily are not required by their organisations, as much as their male counterparts, to perform their roles in line with EO- related attributes; secondly, in Ireland and in Portugal in the SE organisations, it appears that more female employees in comparison to males are expected to possess entrepreneurial attributes or behave alike when performing their job roles. This finding is interesting in relation to their level of employment, as 23 out of 43 male respondents in the SE organisations In Portugal are senior executives, while all females are in operative roles (Table 5.3).

5.5 Chapter summary

When evaluating data, it is important to ascertain particular sector, gender and countries, as depending on organisations types, different job roles, demographic profile of respondents, and even their working environment, because, they all may influence employees'/volunteers' capacity to instigate different improvements at work such as processes, service or goals (Bysted and Hansen, 2015). Moreover, organisations may differ in their vision of what it means for them to be innovative or entrepreneurial, and such different understandings may also affect their employees'/volunteers' behaviour, and also dictate different levels of encouragement and empowerment given them by their organisations. In this vein, the main aim of this thesis was on the one hand to explore employees'/volunteers' EO, and on the other hand to ascertain their organisations' EO to better envision what it may facilitate or/and be an indication the entrepreneurial behaviour at work, regardless of organisation type.

5.5.1 Demographics, key findings

In total, across the six countries Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Sicily 450 respondents from 216 different organisations were surveyed, representing public, voluntary and social enterprise sectors; with public sector registering the highest at 49%, followed by respondents form social enterprise sector at 35%, and finally a smaller sample from the voluntary sector at 16%. There were no respondents representing the voluntary sector organisations in Greece.

As regards respondents' level of employment, an identifiable trend for the public sector, especially in Portugal, Ireland and Bulgaria, is that more males hold senior executive roles, while predominantly females occupy operative roles in their organisations. In contrast, in the voluntary sector in Bulgaria, Sicily and Iceland, the identifiable trend is to see females in higher positions in their organisations, holding senior executives roles, rather than males, who are mostly in middle management roles or operatives (see Table 5.3). The data also interestingly identifies that, among the respondents, there are no operative roles in the Icelandic sample; while for example half of the respondents in Ireland hold operative roles, also in Portugal all female respondents hold such roles across all the three sectors.

With respect to longevity of employment in respondents' roles and in the organisations, the data inform that in Greece, employees work for a relatively long period of time in their organisations, with 50 % of respondents working for about 10 years and 30% working for as long as 20 years. Moreover, it is interesting to see that employees in the public sector in Bulgaria tend to hold their positions for a long period of time that is about 15 years irrespective of gender; also the longevity of employment in respondents' roles in the public sector in Iceland and Portugal is higher among female employees, in comparison to male employees (see Table 5.6). In Sicily, the majority of respondents work in their roles and in their organisations for less than 5 years, irrespective of gender.

Overall, there was a high level of education attainment in Iceland, Ireland and Greece, especially among male employees in the public sector organisations, from which the majority hold at least a Post Graduate qualification, while most of the respondents in Bulgaria have a Certificate level of education, with the majority of respondents in Sicily and Portugal attaining a Degree level of education. The data also inform that, in the public sector in Iceland most females (7 out of 11) did not attain a Masters, and most of males registered with a Post Graduate qualification (8 out of 11); however, according to the data slightly more females than males has started their own business in the past (see Table 5.9). In Portugal, in the public sector of all the respondents (113) only five females attained a Ph.D. degree and 53 out of 85 females did not even attain a Degree level (see Table 5.5).

There is an older age profile amongst public sector employees (except Portugal, where 79 out of 128 respondents falling into the 31-40 years age category) in comparison to respondents in voluntary or social enterprise organisations. For example, in Bulgaria and Sicily in the public sector most of respondents are 51-60 years of age, while those respondents in the voluntary sector tend to be younger i.e., all respondents in Bulgaria registering with 21-30 years of age and 14 out of 19 in Sicily being 31-40 years of age (see Table 5.4). Overall 34% of the public sector sample is aged over 51-60 years old, with a comparably small number of young employees, who are of 21-30 years of age (25 out of 221 (12%), see Table 5.4.

An identifiable trend for the voluntary sector in both Bulgaria and Sicily is that they had a younger age group of respondents in comparison to other surveyed countries, with all employees in Bulgaria being 21-30 years of age. In Bulgaria, according to key informants, this is due to the fact that voluntary sector supports younger employees to accumulate work experience, as there is no or little cost associated with it. In Sicily, this is perhaps related to the nature of the not-for-profit organisations surveyed which usually attracts a younger workforce. Overall, the surveyed population in Sicily was relatively young with 18 out of 19 (51%) respondents being between 30-40 year old (see Table 5.4)

5.5.2 Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of employees/volunteers, key findings

Overall, respondents in Iceland and Ireland, across all the three sectors, display a high level of past entrepreneurial experience, with a relatively high number of respondents in the public sector who declared such experience; this refers to 13 out of 20 (65%) of respondents in the public sector in Iceland; and 20 out of 30 (67%) of respondents in the public sector in Ireland (see Table 5.8). These respondents also took a proactive approach in improving organisations' aspects, especially "services" and "goals. In the case of Iceland, there was a high number of females who registered past entrepreneurial experience 21 out of 25 (84%), especially those from the public sector where more than half females started their own businesses.

Overall, the data inform that respondents in the public and social enterprise sectors do not appear to display the same levels of the past entrepreneurial experience as those employees/volunteers in the voluntary sector organisations; especially respondents in the social enterprise sector in Bulgaria, Greece and Portugal, where only less than a half of females registered past entrepreneurial experience (see Table 5.8). This may suggest a reason for a lower level of entrepreneurial behaviour in their work environment (see Table 5.10); however this is not the case in Portugal, where 65% of all respondents did not engage in any type of past entrepreneurial activity, yet all of them stated they were proactive in improving different aspects of their work, especially those employees in the public sector.

5.5.3 Entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of organisations, key findings

Based on the data, it was observed that public sector organisations (except organisations in Iceland and Ireland) do not encourage employees to look for opportunities nor empower them in decision-making processes especially among female employees in the public sector in Bulgaria, Greece and Portugal and male employees in Sicily. However, in the case of Greece and Portugal, there is a high number of male employees in the social enterprise sector, who indicated that they are neither encouraged nor empowered to take part in the decision-making processes in their organisations (see Table 5.11). Overall, it appears that respondents from voluntary sector organisations are those set of employees that feel the most encouraged to seek new opportunities and also feel empowered in decision-making processes in their organisations, especially among female employees across all the six countries.

The majority of respondents concur with the opinion that it is important for employees in their organisations to behave innovatively and creatively when delivering services to customers, with Bulgaria (50 out of 50) and Ireland (46 out of 50) registering the highest (see Table 5.11); however, male respondents in Sicily, males in the social enterprise sector in Portugal (10 out of 37), and most of the females in the voluntary sector in Iceland (5 out of 9), expressed their opinions that employees in their organisation do not necessarily have to display an innovative/creative behaviours when performing their job tasks.

The next chapter, Chapter 6, Interpretations of the study's results, provides an interpretation of the findings presented in this chapter in the context of the relevant literature reviewed.

Chapter 6

Interpretation of the study's results

Chapter 6 Interpretation of the study's results

6.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to provide the interpretation of this study's results, presented in Chapter 5, and to discuss these findings in the context of relevant literature. The discussion will be presented under the three main sections which reflect the main discussion points arising from the primary research. Firstly, the set of findings regarding respondents' demographic profile such as age, gender, education and level of employment are discussed that gives more general information about employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO). Secondly, respondents' prior entrepreneurial experience is ascertained which captures a more dynamic aspect of their EO. Attention is also drawn to EO attributes[22] (EOA) that were used in this study to ascertain respondents' views as regards their organisations' EO. One of the aims of the survey was to determine whether these organisations are entrepreneurially orientated and if they facilitated or impeded volunteers'/employees' entrepreneurial behaviour. Finally, the last issue for discussion refers to organisations' EO. The discussion on this topic focuses on respondents' views about empowerment, encouragement and how important is to behave innovatively/creatively in their job roles.

Major findings from this research indicate that there is a relationship between employees/volunteers that display entrepreneurial experience, their education attainment, and the degree to which they feel empowered in the decision making processes or are encouraged to seek new opportunities. Of note is also findings regarding the extent to which these employees/volunteers are required to display entrepreneurial orientation-related attributes when performing their job tasks. Moreover, the primary results of this study also suggest that EO of organisations may have an impact on employees'/volunteers' behaviour at work, to the extent to

[22] EOA (entrepreneurial orientation-related attributes) : Resourcefulness, Resiliency, being Open-minded, Self-confident, Creativity and Innovativeness, and being Passionate about work

which they feel empowered in decision-making or are encouraged to pursue new opportunities and their entrepreneurial orientation.

6.2 Individual's entrepreneurial orientation (EO): demographics

One of the common approaches in explaining entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial orientation (EO) that has been used in the previous research is by analysing the general demographic variables such as, level of education, age, and gender, level of employment, occupational profiles or wealth. These demographics variables were treated as possible determinants on one's inclination towards entrepreneurial behaviour (Shook, Priem and McGee 2003; Cowling, 2000; Brockhaus, 1982). For example, a previous study by Jelenc, Pisapia and Ivanusic (2015) suggested that demographic variables such as past experience, gender and education play a significant moderating role on Croatian IT employees' proactive and innovative behaviour at work. For instance, they suggested that, female entrepreneurs were more proactive than male entrepreneurs, and those entrepreneurs with higher educational attainment were willing to take risk, to act proactively and behave innovatively at work.

Findings as regards past entrepreneurial experience in this research were to some extent consistent with the findings by Jelenc et al. (2015), in a way that achievement of a high education degree combined with past entrepreneurial experience creates entrepreneurs (employees/volunteers) with higher level of pro-activeness at work. Overall this study concludes that, there was a high education attainment among respondents in Greece, Ireland and Iceland (at 61%, 64% and 45%, respectively) who attained Post Graduate education level. These respondents also display high levels of past entrepreneurial experience, especially those in the public sector with Greece (62%), Ireland (67%) and Iceland (65%); this was paralleled to their high-level of proactive behaviour at work, where accordingly 23 out of 29 (79%) in Greece, 27 out of 30 (90%) in Ireland and 14 out of 20 (70%) of respondents in Iceland indicated that they did improved/initiated different aspects at work.

According to Wakkee, Elfring and Monaghan (2010) enhancing entrepreneurial behaviour of employees in traditional service sector (i.e. public sector) organisations is a challenging task, especially in situations when employees have been working within an organisation for a long period. Wakkee et al. (2010) also verified that, long-term employees turn their work into a routine and they are usually accountable of effectiveness and obliged following of standard procedures, instead of focusing on being innovative or creative at work. For instance, in the public sector in Bulgaria, overall half of the females have been working in their respective organisations for over 20 years and also only half of the females declared they have improved/initiated different aspects at work during their employment (see Table 5.10). This finding may be reflective of these females' age (all being 50-60 years of age) and/or the nature of responsibilities they have at work, with 5 out of 6 females working as operatives in their respective organisations (see Table 5.3).

Previous literature pertaining to entrepreneurial orientation (EO) also suggested that education may facilitate an individual's capacity for creativity, flexibility and self-direction (Altinay and Wang, 2011). Education was also found to develop one's ability to respond to a wide array of situations, hence contributing to innovative and proactive behaviour within an organisation (Altinay and Wang, 2011; Rainey, 2009; Cowling, 2000; Blanchflower and Oswald, 1998). In the current study, it was observed that both category of respondents those with a high level of education such as Post Graduate or Ph.D. (Iceland, Ireland and Greece), were almost as equally proactive as those with a lower education attainment such as a Certificate (i.e. in Portugal, Bulgaria) or a Degree (Sicily) education levels. However, according to the data (see Table 5.10), those respondents with a higher level of education (such as Ph.D. or Post Graduate) have improved/initiated a more variety of "things" at work.

Another noteworthy finding that emerged in this study is that, the frequency of proactive behaviour (that is a number of improvements per person) appears to be lower amongst respondents who attained a Certificate (Bulgaria, Portugal) level of education. This is contrary to those respondents registering with higher education levels such as Post Graduate or Ph.D. (Ireland, Iceland Greece, and Sicily- in the voluntary sector). For instance, the current study found that, female employees in the public sector in Bulgaria and Portugal who have attained at least a Certificate qualification (4 out of 6; 53 out of 85, respectively), have improved on average one improvement per person. In contrast, most female employees in the public sector in Greece who attained a Degree level, that is 10 out of 17 (59%), stated they improved at minimum two or more improvements per person. In contrast, in Iceland in the public sector, in total 64% of female respondents has a Degree educational level. Moreover, the data indicate that there was a high number of improvements among females in the public sector in Iceland, as high as five improvements per female (see Chapter 5, Table 5.10). Such findings concur with the study by Jelenc at al. (2015) that, education appears to be one of the key aspects, besides past experience, that has an impact on individual's entrepreneurial (proactive) behaviour at work.

Previous research has confirmed that gender also has influence on the level of entrepreneurial activity. For instance, several studies (Berglann, Moen, Roed and Skogstom, 2011; Grilo and Thurik, 2008; Cowling, 2000; Blanchflower and Oswald, 1998) have shown that females typically exhibit lower levels of entrepreneurship than men. This view corresponds with the survey findings in Bulgaria, Greece and Portugal, especially in the public sector, where on average less than half female employees (2 out of 6 in Bulgaria, 8 out of 17 in Greece and 18 out of 85 in Portugal) declared they had past entrepreneurial experience. These females also display low, in comparison to males, levels of proactive behaviour at work, resulting in a low number of improvements (except females in Greece).

However, the results of the studies related to education and gender appears to be, in the context of previous research (Soininen, 2013; Masuda, 2006; Robinson et al. 1991), inconsistent. For instance, the study by Masuda (2006) (cited in Soininen, 2013) on latent entrepreneurship (preferences for self-employment) concluded that, Japanese female workers display a higher entrepreneurial willingness and are more likely to take a higher risk than males in Japanese business society. The results by Masuda (2006) corresponds with this study's results regarding females in Iceland and Ireland, who both display as high as male levels of past experience (84% and 65%, respectively) and entrepreneurial behaviour at work. Although, the data clearly state the females in these two countries attained slightly lower educational levels, in comparison to males (see Chapter 5, Table 5.5).

In Iceland overall, 21 out of 25 (83%) registered past entrepreneurial experience, with more females 6 out of 11 (55%) than males 4 out of 9 (44%) in the public sector who stated, they initiated their 'own business' in the past. What is noteworthy about this finding is that, according to the data, most of those females did not attain a

Master's degree, that is 7 out of 11 (64%) and thus registering with a Certificate degree, whereas nearly all males in the public sector that is 8 out of 9 (89%) registered with a Post Graduate qualification (see Chapter 5, Table 5.5). Moreover, this finding is in contrast to all this study's other primary findings, as this is the only instance where female respondents with lower education levels than males, reported higher levels of past entrepreneurial experience and proactiveness at work.

Previous literature also suggested that prior entrepreneurial experience of business owner influences EO of organisation and contributes to its competitiveness (Altinay and Wang, 2011; Harrison and Gibson, 2008). Overall, data compiled from the survey supports the concept that males did behave more entrepreneurially in the past than females (and especially in the public sector). This holds true for nearly all surveyed countries (except Iceland and Scilly- there was no respondents who started their own business) where notably a higher proportion of the males stated they had start-up entrepreneurial experience. The findings in this survey as regards proactive behaviour at work also appear to correspond with the findings by Grilo and Thurik (2008) who suggested that females typically display lower levels of entrepreneurial engagement (in the enterprising behaviour) than males.[23]

However, it was observed in this study that for example in Iceland as high as 50 % of all respondents were owners of a business, of which most were females, that is 14 out of 20 (70%) (see Table 5.9). Another example includes Ireland, where of the respondents who owned a business in the past (18), half (9) were females. Overall, the survey results in Iceland and Ireland may suggests that where entpreneurial activity is inherent within an organisation there is perhaps less of a gender divide (Masuda, 2006) but more focus on individual employees'/volunteers' potential.

6.2.1 Entrepreneurial behaviour of employees/volunteers

As a part of the survey analysis it was deemed important to understand how entrepreneurial employees/volunteers are in their current roles and organisations, and whether they have any prior entrepreneurial experience (outside of their workplace). An individual who may in the past have established their own business or a

[23] Grilo and Thurik (2008) used data from two surveys (2002 and 2003) containing over 20,000 observations of the 15 old EU member states, Norway, Iceland, Liechtenstein and the US.

voluntary club and who inherently thinks in an entrepreneurial and creative manner he/she will also have tendency to act in similar way within his/her workplace (Altinay and Wang, 2011; Politis, 2005). This view is supported in the findings reported in Iceland, Ireland and Greece, which show relatively high levels of (respondents'') past entrepreneurial experience paralleled to high levels of proactive behaviour at work resulting in high numbers of improvements at work (see Chapter 5, Table 5.10).

Moreover, the employees/volunteers who display high levels of past entrepreneurial experience are more alert in opportunity seeking (Kirzner, 1979) and may be more receptive to innovation (Drucker, 1985). They may be more proactive in developing the most effective solutions to problems facing their organisations (Fernandez and Pitts, 2011), and they are also more capable to leverage necessary knowledge and skills that may lead to different kinds of improvements, as appears to be in the case of respondents in Iceland, Ireland and in Greece.

Data compiled from the survey indicate that most of the respondents have entrepreneurial experience outside of their workplace, especially those respondents in Iceland 33 out of 40 (83%), Ireland 35 out of 50 (70%) and slightly lower but nevertheless a high consensus in Greece 31 out of 49 (64%). This finding appears to correspond with a relatively high degree of empowerment in decision making-processes of respondents' in the aforementioned countries; and especially among respondents in the public sector organisations. For instance, 16 out of 20 (80%) in Iceland, 15 out of 30 (50%) in Ireland and 17 out of 29 (59%) of respondents in Greece and all employed within the public sector, expressed that they feel empowered in decision-making processes in their respective organisations (see Table 5.11). In Sicily, the vast majority that is 40 out of 52 (77%) and in Bulgaria more than a half 26 out of 50 (52%) of respondents indicated they had some past entrepreneurial experience.

In the case of Iceland, there was a high level of past entrepreneurial activity reported across all the sectors (83%), especially in the public sector, where 56% of females and 40% of males had started their own business. This was parallel to a relatively high level of entrepreneurial behaviour in Iceland that was reported across all the sectors (61 different associations or organisations out of 41 respondents, see Table 5.10). The ability to improve different aspects at work reflects an individual’s proactive and change-orientated posture in their organisations (Rauch and Frese, 2007). However, limited support of this view can be found in the case of respondents in Bulgaria and Portugal and in Sicily (in the public sector), who overall registered the lowest level of proactive behaviour hence a low number and variety of improvements at work. Interestingly, in the public sector in Sicily, none of males stated they improved things at work, although they are working in high senior positions in their organisations (see Chapter 5, Table 5.3).

Overall, the findings as regards proactive behaviour at work in Portugal were unexpected and surprising. To this end, the data indicate that despite the low levels of Portuguese respondents’ past entrepreneurial experience (36%), each of the respondents declared that she/he improved at least one aspect in their organisations. This is an interesting finding that may be explained by the findings as regards EO-related attributes. For instance, the vast majority of respondents in the public sector in Portugal, both males (96%) and females (86%) shared the view that their organisations require them to display EO attributes (indicated in the survey) when performing their roles (i.e. to be resilient, resourceful, and open-minded).

On the other hand, the low level of past entrepreneurial experience that was noted among respondents in Portugal (that is one improvement per employee) may be tied to their relatively short longevity of employment in their organisations (40% of respondents’ working in their current roles for less than 5 years); also to these respondents’ relatively basic level of employment with majority (79%) being employed in ‘operatives’ roles in their organisations. Moreover, their relatively young age may be an indication of their low levels of past experience where for instance, 62% of respondents in the public sector registered with 40 and less year of age (see Table 5.4).

One of the most consistent findings that evolved in this study is that, the lack of past entrepreneurial experience or empowerment may impede respondents’ initiative and limit the scope of improvements within their workplace. This view appears to correspond with this study’s findings regarding employees in the public sector organisations in Greece and Bulgaria, and Portugal; again more for female employees in the public sector in these countries, where overall less than a half of females declared they had past entrepreneurial experience and where a similar proportion of females stated they feel empowered in their organisations. This was paralleled to these females' relatively small number of achievements (or improvements) at work and their limited empowerment (except females in Greece), in comparison to higher levels of empowerment perceived by male respondents.

Overall the findings regarding empowerment at work appears to be in congruence with literature on innovative behaviour in the public sector (Bysted and Hansen, 2015; Fernandez and Pitts, 2011; Kim, 2010; Thompson, 1965) according to who the challenge may surface especially for employees in the public sector; as they may be more constrained in their autonomy due to the remit of their job description, limited time or limited empowerment that organisations afford to share with their employees.

In relation to respondents' proactive behaviour at work, the current researcher also observed through the data that there may be a relationship between respondents' level of employment, the degree of empowerment and the type of improvements they instigate at work. For instance, in the public sector in Ireland, the majority of male and female employees expressed they feel highly encouraged 44 out of 50 (88%) and empowered 43 out of 50 (86%) within their roles. However, on the one hand, most males in the public sector in Ireland who are in senior executives or middle management roles (9 out of 16) stated they were proactive in improving a more strategic aspect of their work such as "goals" (13 out of 16). On the other hand, all females in the public sector in Ireland are operatives (10 out of 14), declaring they contributed mostly to "procedures" (13 out of 14) in their workplace, and such type of improvements usually entails regulation and monitoring their day-to-day job activities (see Table 5.10).

According to Robinson and Sexton (1994) past experience was also found to have a positive impact on the entrepreneurial behaviour, yet, according to these authors, not so strong as educational background. This contention partially is refuted in the context of the current study's findings, as respondents' past entrepreneurial experience rather than education, appears to be a more convincing finding that tied positively to respondents' entrepreneurial behaviour at work. For instance, nearly all females in the voluntary sector in Sicily (6 out of 7) declared they had past entrepreneurial experience; again all these females (7 out of 7) stated they improved as high as five different aspects of their work (see Table 5.10), and hence behaved proactively.

Overall, what emerged from the primary findings is that those respondents having high level of entrepreneurial background and with higher education level (i.e., Post-Graduate or Degree education levels) appear to be proactive in improving many different aspects at work. This holds true for Iceland, Ireland, and Greece and also in Sicily (mostly in the voluntary sector), where relatively high education level was registered, with 45% of the Icelandic sample, 64% of the Irish sample, 61% of the Greek sample and slightly lower number of the Sicilian sample (38%) hold a Post Graduate qualifications. These findings were also similar as regards respondents' proactive behaviour at work in the aforementioned countries resulting in high number of improvements at work, with 92% (Ireland), 82.5% (Iceland) and 72% in Greece of respondents who declared they contributed in various ways in their respective organisations.

6.2.2 Encouragement and empowerment

Another vital aspect of the survey was to understand the level of freedom, support and encouragement that employees/volunteers had in their organisations' decision-making process and the freedom they had to seek out new opportunities. As previous research emphasised that the organisational culture and its management style has an important impact on entrepreneurial/innovative behaviour of their employees at various department levels (Kuratko, Hornsby and Covin, 2014; Coombes, Morris Allen, and Webb, 2011; Covin and Slevin, 1991). This refers to an internal environment of an organisation, and its culture; also how it supports and encourages employees to seek out new opportunities based on their own initiatives and the empowerment that an organisation affords to share with their employees.

The extent to which an organisation can be identified as entrepreneurial depends on the organisation's ability to empower employees/volunteers to be more creative and proactive at work (Kuratko et al. 2014; Kanter, 1984). This view was supported by Fernandez and Pitts (2011) who suggested that empowerment and employees' involvement in decision-making processes are one of the pivotal factors that may spur bottom-up innovation in public sector organisations. However, the survey data reported that some public sector respondents (75% in Sicily, 42% in Portugal, 33% in Bulgaria) are not encouraged to look for new opportunities, nor are they empowered in the decision making process within their organisations (75% in Sicily, 47% in Greece, 33% in Bulgaria) (see Chapter 5, Table 5.11).

As regards encouragement and gender in the social enterprise sector, the data suggest that, in Greece and Portugal, there are a high number of male respondents in the social enterprise (at 60% and 40%, respectively), who expressed the view that, they do not feel encouraged to explore new opportunities at work nor are they empowered to take part in their decision-making processes in their organisations. This was accompanied by their relatively lows levels of improvements at work, which may be linked to their level of employment and responsibilities they hold in their current job roles. For example, the data confirm that, in Portugal in the social enterprise sector, of males who stated that they feel empowered in decision-making processes (22 out of 37), most are in 'operatives' roles (14), and are 31-40 years of age.

According to Kuratko et al. (2014) and Fernandez and Pitts (2011) one of the important drivers of employees' innovative behaviour is empowerment and perceived job autonomy that not only creates feelings of safety but also spur motivational state needed for generating creative solutions (and therefore improvements) at work. However, what emerged in this study is that low levels of empowerment may not necessarily impede one's ability to instigate different improvements at work. This was ascertained in this study's findings as regards females in the public sector in Greece and Portugal, who despite low levels of empowerment, claimed they were proactive in improving many different aspects of work such as processes, services or procedures, in their respective organisations.

Overall, the data extrapolated from the survey demonstrated that respondents from voluntary and social enterprise sectors enjoy a greater level of empowerment in decision - making processes in their organisations and greater encouragement to seek out new opportunities in comparison to their peers in the public sector.

In relation to empowerment and encouragement, supportive comments from one employee in the public sector in Ireland interestingly noted, that: "*the organisation's success is highly dependent on employees being significantly creative and entrepreneurial, but not necessarily being empowered to do so*". This viewpoint appears to concur with Mulgan and Albury (2003) who suggested that it is important to be creative and innovative at work and especially in the public sector organisations; they also suggested that managers in the public sector and other professionals "*have very little space to think about doing things differently or delivering services in ways which would alleviate the (internal) pressures and burdens*" (p. 31). This contention may, next, indicate the importance of the time factor in analysing an individual's EO and their innovative behaviour. Previous research on entrepreneurial behaviour (Bysted and Hansen, 2015; Kuratko et al. 2014; Kanter, 1984) emphasised that employees/volunteers require extra time or free time (apart from their working hours), to be able to show creativity or/and exercise their innovative endeavours at work.

6.3 Innovative behaviour and entrepreneurial orientation attributes (EOA)

With respect to innovative behaviour at work most of respondents concur that it is important to behave innovatively and creatively at work with overall high consensus among respondents in Bulgaria (50 out of 50), Portugal (190 out of 209), Ireland (46 out of 50) and Greece (47 out of 49), with the lowest numbers in Iceland (30 out of 40). Among respondents who did not support an opinion as regards the importance of being innovative/creative at work were females in the voluntary sector (5 out of 9) in Iceland, males in the social enterprise sector in Portugal (10 out of 37), and a small number of females in the public sector in Ireland (3 out of 14). However, it was unexpected finding to see that, overall, the highest number of respondents who did not support the view that it is important to be innovative/creative at work was registered in Iceland (25%, 10 out of 40). This is an interesting finding that, may also confirm the contention made by Sandberg, Humerinta and Zetting (2013) that, being entrepreneurial does not necessarily mean being innovative; and some organisations (also individuals) that may be entrepreneurially orientated, may not necessarily be (or wish to be) innovative, as anticipated by Drucker (1985). However, the Icelandic respondents display overall the highest of level of past entrepreneurial behaviour (83%), combined with their highly proactive approach in improving different aspects at work. Moreover, 38 out of 40 respondents in Iceland expressed that they feel empowered in decision-making processes in their current job roles.

Overall, the findings as regards the importance of innovative behaviour in the public sector were positive across all surveyed countries and such result also appears to be in congruence with the literature (Bysted and Hansen, 2015; Stewart, 2014, Borins, 2002), who did not find public sector employees as being less innovative than those employees in the private sector.

According to strategic management literature, the dimensions of EO that include risk-taking, innovativeness and proactiveness, are embedded in the organisations' philosophy and strategy that drives decision-making processes and employees' entrepreneurial behaviour towards creating new goods, offering new services, and/or exploring new market opportunities (Stevenson and Jarillo, 1990; Drucker, 1985). EO could therefore be an important indicator of the way in which an organisation is structured (Altinay and Wang, 2011; Covin and Lumpkin, 2011; Zahra, 1993) or which attributes or values it conveys. For example, previous research on EO also ascertained that the organisational culture and hence also its values/attributes are important aspects influencing entrepreneurial behaviour within existing organisations (Lee and Petterson, 2001, Covin and Slevin, 1991). In this study different entrepreneurial orientation attributes (EOA) were considered (see Table 5.12) in order to determine organisations' EO and to establish if these organisations environments, in the views of respondents, can be described as "entpreneurial".

Overall, in relation to entrepreneurial orientation attributes (EOA), the general trend suggests that more male respondents in comparison to female respondents, who were of the opinion that, their respective organisation require them to display EOA at work, and hence to behave entrepreneurially at work. These findings were confirmed, for example, through opinions of male employees in the public sector in Bulgaria, Ireland, Iceland, and also in Portugal. On the other hand, in the voluntary sector there are more females, rather than males, who are required to perform their roles in line with indicated EO-related attributes; and this finding reflects female respondents' views, in the voluntary sector in Portugal and Scilly. This may be linked to the finding as regards the level of employment in the voluntary sector, where the identifiable trend is to see females in higher positions in their organisations than males, especially in Sicily, Iceland and Bulgaria, where half of females occupy their senior executives' roles. This finding appears to be in congruence with the view of Hopkins (2010) who confirmed that, female employees are prevalent within the workforce in the voluntary sector (71%, in UK), with 45% females being in the chief executives" (p. 23) positions.

6.4 Chapter Summary

The above discussion has explored the employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation at work and the extent to which they behave (or are encouraged) entrepreneurially in their respective organisations. This was achieved by exploring on the one hand aspects pertaining to employees'/volunteers' EO demographics as well as their entrepreneurial behaviour. On the other hand, by exploring aspects concerned with organisations' EO (empowerment, encouragement, innovative behaviour at work and EO attributes).

A major finding from this research is that, based on the findings, there appears to be a link between employees/volunteers that have entrepreneurial experience (external to the organisation in which they are currently working/volunteering), the degree to which they are enabled to be entrepreneurial within their organisations, and the degree to which employees/volunteers are encouraged to seek opportunities, and are empowered in decision making processes. Hence, employees'/volunteers' past experience, educational attainment and their position at work coupled with their proactive orientation can result in many different improvements at work; all appear to be important variables when exploring an individual's entrepreneurial orientation (EO) at work.

Moreover, this study signals that those employees/volunteers with higher education attainment and strong entrepreneurial background seem to behave entrepreneurially at work resulting in many different improvements at work such as processes, goals or services. Another noteworthy finding that evolved from this study is that, the challenge for individual employees to be entrepreneurially orientated appear to be tied to their organisation's structure, internal culture, management style and the extent to which organisations support or facilities employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour at work through an appropriate culture empowerment and encouragement.

As this chapter discussed the findings presented in Chapter 5, the next chapter, Chapter 7, outlines the overall conclusions and highlights the contribution of this research. Moreover, the next chapter also identifies a number of limitations that emerged throughout this research process, and details recommendations for future research avenues.

Chapter 7

Conclusions, Contribution, Limitations and Recommendations

Chapter 7 Conclusions, Contribution, Limitations and Recommendations

7.1 Introduction

Researchers often pose questions, such as: *"What makes a firm entrepreneurial?"* (Lumpkin and Dees, 1996, p. 162) or *"What is the essence of being entrepreneurial?"* (Krueger, 2007, p. 93). Interesting, in the author's opinion, are also questions, such as: (1) How entrepreneurial are employees/volunteers at work and how this can be identified? (2) Do organisations provide an internal supportive environment that would prompt their staff to depart from ordinary ways of performing their work? These questions also appear to be recurring in the context of previous research seeking to understand entrepreneurial and innovative work behaviour in established public and third sector organisations (Bysted and Hansen, 2015; Kuratko, Hornsby and Covin, 2014; Zampetakis and Moustakis, 2010; Chell, 2007; Mair, 2005).

This research endorses such previous research call by exploring employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in the public and third sector organisations. This research attempts to provide new insights by looking at EO from a new perspective of employees/volunteers so to better understand what may influence and/or impede their entrepreneurial/innovative behaviour at work. As such, this study's overarching aim was to understand whether employees/volunteers behave entrepreneurially (or are encouraged) in their organisations on a day-to-day basis (Mair, 2005). While prior studies have to a large extent typically adopted either a macro or a micro perspective in mirroring the phenomenon of EO and in explaining entrepreneurial behaviour in established organisations, the author of this thesis reconciles both perspectives. However, this research explicitly focuses on understanding employees'/volunteers' EO.

This research focuses on the exploration of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) at the level of employees/volunteers and also by ascertaining their organisations' EO (including public and third sector organisations). Hence, this research also sought to understand if these organisations impede or facilitate their employees' entrepreneurial endeavours (behaviours). Firstly, this study ascertains the importance respondents' demographic profile that refers to a more general information as regard employees'/volunteers' EO, as well as it explores a more dynamic aspect of EO, such as entrepreneurial behaviour, and prior experience in exploring employees'/volunteers' EO. Secondly, it acknowledges the importance of the organisations' EO by reflecting respondents' views about empowerment, encouragement and innovative/creative behaviour at work. Finally, this study also draws attention to EO attributes that employees/volunteers exhibit, when performing their job roles. Thus, by exploring EO at both, organisational and individual levels, this study is to some extent unique, because it delves into variables that have been not been often studied jointly within one piece of research.

This chapter proceeds as follows: first, conclusions from both the findings and discussion chapters, as well as highlighting the contribution that emanated from this study are presented. Next, the limitations associated within this study are identified, followed by recommendations for future research that may trigger new research avenues within the areas of entrepreneurial orientation (EO), entrepreneurial behaviour and intrapreneurship.

7.2 Conclusions

Overall, the current research indicated that, when exploring employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) to understand their entrepreneurial behaviour, it was deemed necessary to consider their demographic profile (i.e. age, education, employment level, job tenure), their entrepreneurial background (i.e., past entrepreneurial experience) and their proactive behaviour at work (i.e., improvements at work). Moreover, it was equally important to ascertain their organisations' EO, as they all in the light of this study's findings, appear to be important antecedents of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour. These findings correspond with previous empirical studies by Wakkee, Elfring and Monaghan (2010) and Mair (2005) who both suggested that both organisational and individual variables are important antecedents of entrepreneurial behaviour. A major finding from this research is that, based on the data, there appears to be a link between (i) employees/volunteers that have entrepreneurial experience (external to the organisation in which they are currently working/volunteering), (ii) the degree to which they are enabled to be entrepreneurial within their organisations, (iii) the degree to which employees/volunteers are encouraged to seek opportunities and are empowered to take decisions, and (iv) whether they consider innovative/creative behaviour as being important in their work.

Overall, the results derived from the survey suggest that Iceland and Ireland both can be classified as more "entrepreneurial" when compared to other surveyed countries. This view corresponds with findings, in Iceland and Ireland where, across all the three sectors, a relatively high number of respondents display high levels of prior entrepreneurial experience (at 83% and 74% respectively); parallel to their relatively highly proactive behaviours at work resulting in various improvements (mainly goals and services) within their work. However, the aim of this study was not to highlight one category of employee at the expense of another; rather to portray the facts whether employees/volunteers behave in an entrepreneurial manner in their organisations. Moreover, this study seeks to understand if these organisations support their staff in their entrepreneurial endeavours, by creating an appropriate environment that is conducive to employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviours.

Based on the primary findings, the social enterprise and the voluntary sectors, according to the data, there appear to be more entrepreneurially orientated than the public sector. Acknowledging the fact that nearly half of the respondents did not engage in entrepreneurial activity in the past (especially in the public sector in Greece, Portugal and Bulgaria and mostly among females), it may support the need for further training within this sector that is female focused to enhance their entrepreneurial skill-set.

In the current study it also emerged that, in those countries where employees/volunteers reported a relatively high level of education attainment (i.e. Ph.D. or Post Graduate degrees, Iceland, Ireland, Greece), there was also a relatively high percentage of respondents who had past entrepreneurial experience; furthermore, it was also observed that in those countries who reported a relatively high level of education attainment and high levels of past entrepreneurial experience, that employees/volunteers in these countries appear to be proactive in improving different aspects of their work (such as processes, services or procedures (i.e., Sicily- in the voluntary sector, Ireland, Iceland and Greece- across all the sectors). This is in contrast to those countries with lower educational levels, such as Primary or Certificate (i.e., employees in Bulgaria, and also in Portugal), where lower frequency of proactive behaviour and hence lower number of improvements per employee/volunteer was registered. This finding seems to correspond with the contention made by Jelenc, Pisapia and Ivanusic (2015) that education earned equips entrepreneurs with an additional proactiveness at work. Altinay and Wang (2011) noted that education may also facilitate an individual's capacities for creativity, flexibility and self-direction, and develop the ability to respond to widely different situations at work. Thereby contributing to employees'/volunteers' ability to improve different aspects of their work (i.e. processes or services) and ultimately to their innovative behaviour at work, as appears to be the case in Ireland, Iceland, Greece (mostly males), and in Sicily (mostly females).

Interestingly, this study also ascertained that there is congruence between employees' /volunteers' levels of employment, type of organisations and the types of the improvements they have instigated within their organisations. As such, employees with senior executive roles in the public sector organisations were focused on the improvement "goals" aspect in their organisations, whereas for senior executives in the voluntary sector organisations the priority was to refine the "services" aspect (see Sicily and Iceland, voluntary sector, Table 5.10). This was the case in the public sector in Ireland, where most males are 'senior executives' and contributed to "goals" aspect at work, whereas the majority of females being 'operatives' declared they were involved in improving "procedures" aspect in their respective organisations.

It also becomes apparent in the current study that, an organisational context, culture, and its supportive environment, they all to a certain extent, influence employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial and innovative behaviour at work. This was evidenced for example in the public sector in Bulgaria, Portugal and Greece, where there is a tendency that public sector organisations do not offer sufficient encouragement or empowerment to female employees, which in turn impedes their proactive initiative at work resulting in lower numbers of improvements within the areas such as, processes, services or goals. The low empowerment and associated with it, the limited opportunity and scope of improvements were especially registered amongst female employees in the public sectors in the aforementioned countries. In a similar vein, this finding corresponds as regards males in the social enterprise sector organisations in Portugal and Greece.

Thus, the challenge appears that public sector employees require greater work discretion, empowerment, rewards, and more top management support in order to change their behaviours from passive to being more 'entrepreneurial'. This in turn suggests another conclusion for the current research, that the challenges for individuals to be entrepreneurially orientated in their work are inevitably linked to the entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of their organisations. This refers to the way how organisations support and facilitate employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour by creating an appropriate environment. Hence, this study concurs with the view of Kuratko et al. (2014) that, the organisational internal environment plays an immense role in stimulating an individual employee's perception, motivation and their willingness to engage in entrepreneurial and innovative behaviour at work.

Finally, the primary results of this research are similar to those by Cowling (2000) and Grilo and Thurik (2008), who noted that there are significant differences across countries, sector type and gender in terms of those employees who behave entrepreneurially/ innovatively at work. In particular age, gender and education were found to be the key variables, although the nature and strength of the relationship varies considerably across countries, regions and sector types.

7.3 Contribution

Entrepreneurial behaviour matters for individuals, for communities and for countries (Bird and Schjoedt, 2009; Gibb and Hannon, 2006). Studying employees'/ volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation and entrepreneurial behaviour contributes to our understanding of entrepreneurship and human behaviour in general. It also allows researchers to ask questions that focus not only on why employees/volunteers behave the way they do, but also on the interplay between entrepreneurial behaviour and other aspects such as education, learning, human capital, labour market dynamics, policy makers and quality of work.

This study contributes to a deeper and broader understanding of entrepreneurial behaviour of employees/volunteers in public sector, voluntary, and social enterprise organisations. This research has implications for managers in these organisations, policy makers, educators and trainers involved in supporting employees and volunteers to be more entrepreneurial in their work environments. This research also provides us with deeper insights into the entrepreneurial orientation (EO) of employees/volunteers in the public, voluntary and social enterprise organisations. This study may also have important practical implications that can assist public sector organisations and their employees to become more entrepreneurially orientated and thus, to provide quality services and to create new public value (Kim, 2010; Moore, 1995). This research also contributes to other advocates of entrepreneurship in the public sector who argued that entrepreneurial managers can create public value by analyzing public needs and by implementing creative and innovative ideas (Diefenbach, 2011; Borins, 2002; Morris and Jones, 1999).

One of the vital contributions of this research lies in the assessment of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour and their involvement in entrepreneurial orientation. To this end, it can be argued that while top managers have an immense role in establishing an organisation's EO, the input of employees/volunteers at different employment levels is equally important in transforming EO into organisational performance (Van Doorn, 2012; Diefenbach, 2011). Hence, providing and establishing the accommodating environment and realising the inherent value of EO is challenging and it is a joint endeavour of top managers and volunteers/employees at various levels (Kraus, 2013).

Moreover, understanding the differences and commonalities across individuals and across countries is an important stepping stone in understanding entrepreneurial behaviour in general and its important implications for both public and third sector organisations. In addition, this study also sought to identify the potential antecedents of entrepreneurial orientation, which is, in the view of Miller (2011), an under-researched field within the entrepreneurial orientation literature. Thus, this study may have potential implications for policy makers, behaviours related to strategy implementation or HR practices (i.e. recruitment or job placement practices). For example, public and third sector organisations can tailor their recruitment/job placement processes to attract ‘entrepreneurial’ people, select the best candidate, and ensure appropriate staffing, as anticipated by Meynhardt and Diefenbach (2012).

Furthermore, this study also may contribute to management practices. It has important implications for senior teams, organisational leaders, and CEOs who aim at leveraging their employees/volunteers’ EO into an increased organisational performance. For instance, senior teams or leaders may establish a common understanding as regards to the importance of EO to organisational survival, its long-term competitiveness or pressures to innovate. This in turn will allow them to align the goals and tasks across different organisations’ departments, and across different employees’ responsibilities at work (i.e. front-line staff, operatives, and middle managers).

According to Altinay and Wang (2011), it is important that organisations’ leaders or senior managers assess how different inherent socio-cultural characteristics of employees may contribute to different dimensions of their organisations’ EO. Such an assessment could, for instance, help them to identify their learning and training needs and encourage employees to attend relevant courses offered by the local councils or community support associations.

Moreover, based on the deficiency identified in previous literature (Miller, 2011; Lumpkin and Dess, 1996), this study acknowledges the context theme of entrepreneurial orientation (EO) an EO’s potential variables. These included socio-cultural variables and employees’/volunteers’ demographic profile, their past experience and a wide array of factors inherent to the organisations’ EO, such as empowerment, encouragement, entrepreneurial attributes or promoting innovative behaviour at work. This research also concurs with Bolton and Lane (2012) who emphasised that, an understanding of an individual’s EO can lead to more cohesive and successful project teams and also can be valuable to future business owners, and business incubators; it also allows for a better understanding of individual behaviour within any organisation’s context. The recognition of individual EO also allows employees to better understand their role, a firm's vision, values shared within a firm, as well as the expectations that top management has towards their work. It also better assists individual employees in understanding their own weaknesses and strengths as a basis for their self-development or self-fulfilment at work. Understanding the employees'/volunteers' EO may also alleviates the tensions associated with new entrepreneurial initiatives, strategy or new projects implemented within their organisations (Van Doorn, 2012).

Hence, one of the significant contributions in this study is to highlight the value of the individual work and the way the individual entrepreneurial endeavours may be directed at improving different aspects at work such as processes, administration techniques, or services. Therefore, by behaving proactively, employees/volunteers would contribute at the same time to the overall organisations' EO. On the other hand, a better understanding of organisations' EO guides key decision makers to arrange a supportive environment, that enhances and increases individual propensity to engage in entrepreneurial or/and innovative behaviours (Kuratko et al. 2014). Finally, the knowledge of the differences in EO across sectors and genders, can give valuable indicators or clues to policy makers but also to educators in schools and universities and to companies, wishing to stimulate entrepreneurial attributes, skills and behaviours in their employees/volunteers or students (Kollman et al. 2007).

7.4 Limitations

Despite many interesting insights emerging from this study's results, there are many limitations. For instance, there are some limitations arising from the methodology employed within the current research. Firstly, the author to some extent relied on the work of the project partners, who assisted the author in the processes of translation, administering the survey and in making pre-survey contact with surveyed organisations. Secondly, the assigned survey partners implied different procedures as regards administering the survey within each surveyed country. They also used different sampling techniques which resulted in different sample sizes, for example in Portugal (209) and Iceland (41), or a lack of sample types (i.e., Greece, lack of voluntary sector sample). Moreover, the author did not perform any statistical analysis, which could have established more accurate relationship between the different types of the data. The reason for that is that the researcher did not have the access to some of the individual data (i.e. in Greece due to technical issues), and in Iceland (some the individual responses were incomplete). Another reason for lack of statistical analysis was that this was not intended in the initial part of the research. Thirdly, the procedure of collecting and analysing data varied from country to country. For instance, Iceland, Ireland and Sicily Survey Monkey portal was used, while Bulgaria, Portugal and Greece sent the survey was sent by email.

Another limitation was related to the fact, that the employees' and volunteers' roles were unevenly distributed (i.e. there was no operatives roles in Iceland, and no middle management roles in Portugal), per each organisation' type and per country. This, in turn, impeded comparison of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial behaviour across surveyed countries, with respect to their different levels of employment and for example, type of the improvements they instigated at work. Moreover, one of the limitations was associated with the fact that, it was not possible to identify from the data, whether respondents who for example have had a considerable past entrepreneurial experience were also those who felt the most empowered at work or those who for example improve/initiated a high number of improvements at work.

Among other limitations of this study is its cross-sectional nature and that it adopts only a quantitative design. Qualitative in-depth interviews would have added a greater value to the study, if the time would have allowed doing so. Moreover, the interview technique perhaps would have given a more thorough explanation of the underlying aspects related to innovative and entrepreneurial work behaviour of employees/volunteers; or perhaps would add a greater clarity of what does it mean for employees/volunteers to innovate within their organisations. For instance, the deployment of open-style questions in the survey could possibly reveal more detailed reasons why some employees feel constrained or limited in their entrepreneurial endeavours at work, as it appears to be in the case of female employees in the public sector organisations in Portugal, Bulgaria and Greece. As such, future studies could focus on their research area (i.e. females and empowerment at work).

Finally, another limitation may be associated with the scale of the current study. While the efforts have been made to include quite a large sample population, the voluntary sector organisations represented only a small sample (70) of all the organisations that were surveyed (216) in six countries (see Table 5.2).

Moreover there was another limitation concerned with the scope of the research. Overall, the survey was conducted in a one particular region/municipality or county of the each country surveyed, except Portugal. As such, the surveyed regions were: a part of South of Sicily, East part of Iceland, in Ireland the survey was confined mostly to the South-East region, the Southwest Region (SWR) of the Bulgaria, and a middle-West part of Greece.

Despite those limitations, the author found that this study offers unique and new insights into some of the challenges that both public and third sector organisations faces; these include, for example, the need to offer innovative services (Bysted and Hansen, 2015) and creating value to the public (Moore, 1995).

7. 5 Recommendations

Considering the fact, that the prevailing number of studies have focused on analysis of EO at the organisational level, the exploration of the EO at the individual level, although attempted before (Jelenc et al. 2015; Bolton and Lane, 2012; Okhomina, 2010), still provides a new and promising avenue for future research. The limitations identified in this study also suggest new opportunities for future research.

Firstly, a similar study may be conducted on a national or local level, including employees and volunteers from public and third sector organisations, which are more "locally" situated and could include purposively selected and similar sized samples. Moreover, the sample may be drawn from employees/volunteers being at the same employment level. The national or local level of study, would provide an easier access to the target sample, and would allow carrying out more in-depth studies, in which case the researcher would intend to complement the quantitative study with qualitative interviews. A convenient access to the sample and a local context of the study would also offer a greater control for the researcher over the research process, and would enable for example, to employ a larger (than in the current study) sample. Moreover, it would be of value to include other country regions, organisation types and classes of economic actors (i.e. to focus only on public sector middle managers or voluntary sector senior executives), and by adopting a multiple location study design would enable more robust conclusions.

The second call for future research may be to focus on individual's (employees and volunteers) entrepreneurial orientation (EO) at work by seeking the potential moderating factors that may influence or stimulate their entrepreneurial behaviours at work (i.e. rewards, motivation). For instance, an interesting question to ask may be: What motivates employees to behave innovatively and accommodate/maintain their entrepreneurial orientation (EO) at work? This study provides only limited indications as regards the link of respondents' role, and the ability to improve certain aspects of work. Future study may expand on exploring these two variables in a greater detail.

The respondents in the current study were selected randomly to be part of the survey process. Thus, another proposal emanating from this study is that future studies may instead establish a more specific research criteria and select a sample type purposively, for example by including only those employees who had their own businesses in the past or those being in middle management roles. Moreover, two of the consistent findings in this study as regards gender are that male employees (especially in the public sector organisations) appear to have higher levels of past entrepreneurial experience in comparison to female employees. Similarly, the higher proportions of male employees feel empowered in decision-making processes at work in comparison to female employees; and this gender disparity is the most prevalent- according to the data- in the case of Portugal, Greece and Bulgaria.

Moreover, two of the consistent findings of this study are that male respondents (especially in the public sector organisations) in comparison to female respondents appear to have higher levels of past entrepreneurial experience; also that the higher proportion of male employees/volunteers feel empowered in decision-making processes at work, as it was the case in Portugal, Greece and Bulgaria. In this vein, future study may focus on collecting more gender-specific data in this area, and by exploring females at various employment levels. That is because this survey's results clearly indicate that most of the surveyed females across countries/regions did not have any past entrepreneurial experience (except Iceland) nor did they feel empowered and encouraged as much as their male colleagues (respondents); and this refers especially to female respondents in the public sector organisations.

The recent OECD report on the topic "Gender equality in education, employment and entrepreneurship" (2012) also supported the need to collect more gender-specific data in public sector organisations by asserting that:
"(....) many female professionals find it difficult to climb the career ladder. (...) while on average in OECD countries women earn 16% less than men, female top-earners are paid on average 21% less than their male counterparts. Women are also disadvantaged when it comes to decision-making responsibilities and senior management positions" (OECD, 2012, p. 5).

Therefore a proposal emanating from this research is the need to explore the situation of female employees working at different employment levels in their organisations; this may be achieved by identifying the degree to which they feel empowered at work, or by exploring the degree to which they are enabled to behave innovatively at work, as anticipated by Bysted and Hansen (2015) or Westrup (2013). Moreover, as this study's results ascertain that a relatively high number of female respondents feel a lack of empowerment (mainly in the public sector), may also suggest an opportunity to research the need for gender rebalancing through appropriate HR practices (see Meynhardt and Diefenbach, 2012).

Another future study may, for example, focus on female employees across different organisation's department levels. For instance, there was an indication in this study's findings that a high proportion of female employees do not feel much empowered in comparison to male employees, nor that they have considerable entrepreneurial background (i.e. females in the public sector in Portugal and Bulgaria). Future researchers may, for example, take a more niche approach and focus on certain employee categories (e.g. senior management, front line staff or operators) and analyse more in-depth their entrepreneurial behaviour and their involvement within their organisations' EO. For instance, one of the interesting future research prospects may be to focus on the importance of organisations' leaders or middle managers in managing EO, and realising the inherent value of EO across all organisations' departments, as proposed by Meynhardt and Diefenbach (2012).

As regards organisations and EO-related attributes, future studies could deploy a different set of EO-attributes (different from those employed in this current study) to unravel how organisations can better stimulate the relationships between employees' EO and organisational performance. For example, a newly deployed set of attributes could reveal employees'/volunteers' specific types of behaviours, such as: proclivity towards risk taking or their innovative orientation at work. In other words, the author of this study contends that it would-be valuable to have a clear understanding of the factors leading to the identification of an individual' EO. This study's findings may contribute to existing literature as regards antecedents of EO.

Ucbascaran, Westhead and Wright (2001) asserted that additional research attention should be directed towards gaining a greater understanding of the behaviour of different types of entrepreneur (i.e., nascent, novice, serial and portfolio entrepreneurs). In similar vein, this study calls for further attention into investigations of entrepreneurial behaviours of different category of employees' (i.e. middle managers, operatives or front line employees) and their roles in building entrepreneurial and innovative potential of their respective organisations. This study highlights the pivotal role of employees'/volunteers' involvement in creating their organisations' EO; it also concurs with Morris, Davis and Allen (1994) who asserted that:

"(…) *individuals matter, and must be given the incentive and autonomy to identify opportunities and champion innovative products and processes*" (p. 98), in their respective organisations.

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APPENDICIES:

Appendix 1: Abbreviations

CE	Corporate Entrepreneurship
EO	entrepreneurial orientation
EOA	entrepreneurial orientation attributes
ESDE	Employment and Social Developments in Europe
FIERE	Furthering Innovative and Entrepreneurial Regions in Europe
ICTs	Information and Communication Technologies
NPM	New Public Management
NPOs	not-for-profit organisations
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
SE	social enterprise (sector) organisations
TSOs	third sector organisations
VO	voluntary (sector) organisations

Appendix 2: Survey Questionnaire

CEDRE
Waterford Institute of Technology

Waterford Institute *of* Technology
INSTITIÚID TEICNEOLAÍOCHTA PHORT LÁIRGE

Introduction: My name is Anna Rogowska and I am pursuing Masters by Research at Waterford Institute of Technology, Ireland. I kindly invite you to collaborate with my Master's Survey, as your responses will be of great contribution of my research titled:
"An exploratory analysis of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation in public and third sector organisations". The completion of the survey will take approximately five minutes and your responses will be treated as strictly confidential in accordance to EU law. Thank You in advance for participating in this survey.

Anna Rogowska
Researcher

Prof. William O'Gorman
Supervisor

1. Name of Organisation: __________________________________

2. Location of Organisation: _________________________________

3. What is the business/activity of the organisation? ____________________

4. What type of organisation is it?

○ Public Sector (such as local/regional authority, education, health services, state owned enterprise support agency chamber of commerce)

○ Voluntary (such as sports club, lobby group, social club)

○ Community Enterprise

○ Social Enterprise sector (such as for profit and not for profit business)

○ Other (please specify) _____________________________________

5. Name of Person Completing this Survey: ________________

6. Role in Organisation: ____

7. How long are you in this role in the organisation? ___________________

8. How long are you working in the organisation? _____________________

9. Are you?

○ Male ○ Female

10. Age Range:

○ 15-20 ○ 20-30 ○ 30-40 ○ 40-50 ○ 50-60 ○ 60- Plus

11. Highest Level of Education Attainment:

○ Secondary ○ Certificate ○ Degree ○ Post Graduate ○ PhD
○ Other Certified Qualification

12. Have you personally ever setup/started (tick as many as is appropriate)?

○ Your own business ○ Club ○ Society ○ Voluntary group ○ Interest group
○ Lobby group ○ None ○ Other entity (please specify) ___________________

13. In your current organisation, have you ever initiated/improved?

○ Goals ○ Products ○ Services ○ Processes ○ Procedures

○ Other (please specify) ____________________

14. Does your organisation encourage employees to look for new opportunities or business, and/or improve your organization's processes and procedure?

○Yes ○ No ○ Other (please specify) ____________________

15. Does your organisation empower employees to make their own decisions when they can?

○Yes ○ No ○ Other (please specify) _________________

16. In your opinion do employees in your organisation need to be creative/innovative when providing products/services to clients/customers?

○Yes ○ No ○ Other (please specify) ___________________

17. Does your organisation require you to be (tick as many as is appropriate)?

Resourceful	Creative/Innovative
Resilient	Decisive
Open- Minded	Result Driven
Analytical	A Leader
Self-Confident	A Manager
Self-Starter/Proactive	A Decision Maker
Passionate about work	Other (please specify)_______

18. In your opinion, to perform your role in your organisation do you need to be (tick as many items as is appropriate)?

Resourceful	Creative/Innovative
Resilient	Decisive
Open- Minded	Result Driven
Analytical	A Leader
Self-Confident	A Manager
Self-Starter/Proactive	A Decision Maker
Passionate about work	Other (please specify)_______

19. In your opinion how important are the following skills in your organisation?

	Very Important	Important	Neutral	Of Little Importance	No Importance at all	N/A
Self-Efficacy	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Creativity and Innovation	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Being Proactive	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Goal Seeking	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Critical Thinking	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Analytical Thinking	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Problem Solving	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Leadership	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Persistence	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Project Management	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Resourcefulness	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

20. In your opinion, in order to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of your organisation, how important is it that employees/volunteers are trained in?

	Very Important	Important	Neutral	Of Little Importance	No Importance at all	N/A
Self-Efficacy	○	○	○	○	○	○
Creativity and Innovation	○	○	○	○	○	○
Being Proactive	○	○	○	○	○	○
Goal Seeking	○	○	○	○	○	○
Critical Thinking	○	○	○	○	○	○
Analytical Thinking	○	○	○	○	○	○
Problem Solving	○	○	○	○	○	○
Leadership	○	○	○	○	○	○
Persistence	○	○	○	○	○	○
Project Management	○	○	○	○	○	○
Resourcefulness	○	○	○	○	○	○

21. **If these skills were packaged into one training programme would it benefit your organisation?**

○ Yes ○ No ○ Other (please specify) ____________________

22. **In your opinion should such a training programme be accredited by an approved educational organisation?**

◯ Yes ◯ No ◯ Other (please specify) ____________________

23. **In your opinion how should this type of training programme be delivered?**

A series of workshops (for example over an 8 weeks period)
On-Line
Blended Learning
Face to Face Lectures
Other _____________

Comments (optional)

____
____
____
____
____
____
____
____
____

Thank You

Anna Rogowska
annexrogowska_123@gmail.com

Appendix 3: Consent Letter to participate in the survey

Dear Sir/Madame

My name is Anna Rogowska and I am pursuing a Masters by Research at the Department of Management and Organisation at Waterford institute of Technology (WIT), Ireland. I kindly ask for your collaboration by answering the questionnaire for my Master's thesis. The key objective of this research is to support and to enhance entrepreneurial/ innovative behaviour and entrepreneurial skill-set of staff and volunteers in the public, social enterprise, and voluntary organisations. The completion of the survey will take approximately 5 minutes and your responses will be treated as strictly confidential and anonymous, in accordance with EU law. Data from the survey are essential to the accomplishment of my Masters research titled "An exploratory analysis of employees'/volunteers' entrepreneurial orientation (EO) in the public and third sector organisations" and carried out under the supervision of Prof. Bill O'Gorman.

This survey is being sent to employees and volunteers engaged in public and third sector organisations spanning across six European countries including: Bulgaria, Greece, Iceland, Ireland, Portugal and Sicily. Your completion of the survey on the https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/J65VCYS will be of great contribution for my research.

If you have any questions about the survey, please call me at 086-2340141 or contact me at annexrogowska_123@gmail.com.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Anna Rogowska
Researcher