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Innovation and Entrepreneurship: New Ways of Thinking

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The third issue of the proceedings of the Estonian Entrepreneurship University of Applied Sciences is a selection of the best papers presented at the Annual conference of the university dedicated to Innovation and Entrepreneurship: new ways of thinking.

The new ways of thinking are also reflected in all five articles, which were chosen to be published. Merle Talvik and her co-authors found that the entrepreneurial environment will change and the unemployment will be a characteristic of the future. The unemployment could lead to self-employment, but this needs special skills to be taught to current youth. Ruth Alas and her co-authors have found the features that should be taught to successful entrepreneurs. Mare Kurvits together with her colleagues investigates the issue and effect of teaching entrepreneurial skills.

The new approach to entrepreneurship and enterprising mind set is carried out by Siim Sultson who has projected it to the town planning topic and Risto Laar who together with his supervisor dedicate their attention to customer satisfaction, which according to these authors is one of the cornerstones for entrepreneurship

Dear readers, Hopefully my brief introduction to the themes of the articles will spark your interest to explore the topics more thoroughly. The articles have been subjected to the process of a double blind review by international editors and reviewers and have been carefully selected.

We would like to thank all the authors, editors, reviewers and conference participants for the wonderful work you have done and for your entrepreneurial spirit.

On behalf of the editorial board,

Krista Tuulik

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FACTORS EFFECTING CUSTOMER SATISFACTION THROUGH SUPPLY CHAIN CONTEXT

Risto Laar, MA student at EUAS
Eneken Titov, lecturer at EUAS

INTRODUCTION

To be successful in a modern supply network, many companies have made rapid changes in their everyday business. Competition has become more and more aggressive and the fight for customers is now an everyday reality. Supply chain management is an increasingly important organizational concern, and proper management of supplier relationships constitutes one essential element of supply chain success (Fawcett et al, 1995; Giunipero and Brand 1996; Özkan et al, 2010). Supplier satisfaction is based on the relationship between the customer and the salesperson. In order to build and maintain healthy long-term relationships, some researchers have broadened the examination of relationship satisfaction drivers to include variables related to a supplier's performance on product range, product support, customer service efficiency, sales promotion effectiveness, pricing, sales force expertise and knowledge (Biong, 1993; Gosh et al, 1997; Schellhase et al, 2000; Abdul-Muhmin, 2005; Özkan et al, 2010). The company's supply chain strength is a key factor to survive in this fierce competition for customers. The global economic crises can be overcome only with the help of partners and good cooperation with customers. The chain will be as strong as its weakest link and it is every business' goal to eliminate this weak links or to make them stronger. A possible way of dealing with uncertainties in the supply chain is the increased cooperation between the constituting organizations (Khabbazi et al, 2010). Inside companies there is an important aim to overcome obstacles like cultural differences and common thinking and the way of thinking "out of the box" is more and more crucial. The effectiveness of supply chain management decision-making relies heavily on the notion of cooperation and coordination, or synchronization, across all organizations in the supply chain network (Leffakis, 2011). Companies cannot afford to remain isolated as their survival depends on their ability to organize an efficient "supply web" that brings value for all participants (Allesina et al, 2010). Today supply chain companies are between many different interest groups like owners, stockholders, customers etc. Firms should constantly scan the business landscape to identify new opportunities to satisfy their customers and provide solutions to changing market needs (Weerawardena, 2003; Barčic et al, 2011).

The aim of this paper is to give the latest overview about literature of this issue and determine the most impacting factors of customer satisfaction among the listed factors above. As part of ongoing research and based on the literature, the authors have chosen seven factors: technical capability, innovation, delivery, conformance quality, pricing, flexibility and service.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

In B2B business, the supply chain can be long and dependent on other industries. If one company wants to investigate their customer satisfaction it is essential to find out the factors which have the greatest impact on customer satisfaction In business to business (B2B) markets, when considering the satisfaction of an industrial customer, it is necessary to evaluate the satisfaction of the different constituents of the buying centre being in contact with the industrial supplier (Parasuraman, 1998; Özkan et al, 2010). In this paper, the seven dimensions will be explained next.

Dimensions of Supplier Performance

The seven dimensions analysed in this paper are: technical capability, innovation, delivery, conformance quality, pricing, flexibility and service.

Technical Capability

Today customers have multiple choices among companies in the market. It means that they can make business with company who offers highest value to them. Companies can't base today only on a good product and well-trained salespersons - they must offer additional value. Technical capability is one possibility. It can give to the customer extra value and to the business extra margin. An opportunity to use technical capability as additional value is characteristic for big companies, because they have better funds. Smaller companies may have better flexibility for changes in technical capability. Purchasing raw material with different standards and specifications or semi-final products (outsourcing) is performed to fulfil the demand of the customer's order (Khabbazi, 2010). In the strategic purchasing literature beside selection of classical supplier criteria, technological capability is a very important factor when making the purchasing decision (Katsikeas et al, 2004; Özkan et al, 2010). If the customer sees that the company offers a needed technical capability they can rely on this company's know-how. This is the basic need for insurance, that this company can develop with the time and market and they have the possibilities to help the end user create extra value.

Delivery

One of the customers' main questions is interest toward the companies' ability to deliver the product. A company's strength lies on their performance capability. Companies try to give value to customers' needs and wants, however poor distribution can result in a negative impression (Kotler and Armstrong, 2010; Choudhary, 2011). As seen in recent history the economic and environmental situation can change very rapidly and good supply chains make fast changes in their delivery performance. Also a companies' ability to change agreements at the last minute, if customer changes their mind, should be considered. Organizations and supply chain networks may not always be able to predict or avoid a disruption, but they can reduce their risk exposure by the implementation of key strategic planning tools (Skipper et al, 2009). Companies are looking for more and more different possibilities to improve their delivery performance. Deliveries on time, delivery door-to door, delivery to another location are only some samples of possibilities of that issue. Factors such as order commitment speed, order-to-delivery, lead-time and on-time delivery are becoming new competitive differentiators among manufacturing companies (Zhang & Tseng, 2009). Delivery performance inside a supply change relies on many different factors. It is the main flow and trust of purchasing from the supplier and being able to deliver it reliably to the end customer. Delivery is very important because the delivery of raw materials or semi-products on time, with demanded quantity and quality, at the demanded place is an obligation for suppliers and it will increase the satisfaction of the customer (Özkan et al, 2010). An organization with no strategic plan for delivery of their product or service is similar to a person who starts their journey without knowing their final destination (Rajesh and Uday, 2004; Choudhary, 2011).

Conformance Quality

Quality is always been the symbol for some brands, companies and products. Now with volatile economics, most of the customers are trying to get costs down so they can buy or produce the end product cheaper. At the same time quality is not considered to decrease. Firms compete on quality, customers search for quality, and the markets are transformed by quality. It is a key force leading to delighted customers, a firm's profitability, and the economic growth of nations (Deming, 1982; Kennedy, 1987; Rust,Zahorik, and Keiningham, 1995; Golder et al, 2012). Quality is currently something that is no longer only a problem of the manufacturer but is also a responsibility throughout all of the supply chain.

Firms and customers both participate in the quality process. However, while quality production is primarily the domain of firms, quality evaluation is primarily the domain of customers and quality experience is the domain in which firms and customers interact (Golder et al, 2012). This means that the quality chain is long and needs investigation and control. Quality has become more important because of the information and technical capabilities that the customer can access. It is easy to measure quality by comparing it to a similar product and getting information from the internet. Companies usually conduct marketing surveys to reveal what their target customers want and then design their products to meet the perceived demand. Subsequently, during the quality conversion phase, production resources such as raw materials, labour, etc., are converted into the desired product according to the design quality specifications (Wu, 2010).

Quality can be always upgraded or something customer specific can be added. This helps companies to bond the customer to their specific product. In order do to this the companies need to cooperate with customers and only together they can create a good and reliable product or service. Golden et al, (2010) has described that quality has three integrative frameworks:

- The quality production process- occurs when firms use attribute design and process design specifications to convert their resource inputs and those from customers into produced attributes.
- The quality experience process- occurs when firms (alone or with the customer) deliver attributes for customers to experience and customers perceive these attributes through the lens of their measurement, knowledge, motivation, emotions, and expectations (Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984)
- The quality evaluation process- occurs when customers compare the offerings perceived attributes with their expectations to form summary judgements of quality and then satisfaction.

All companies know that even if they have a good quality product or quality service, the customers could see things differently. The customer can value the quality, but can still decide not to like the product. The companies can react differently to this quality evaluation (Wu, 2010):

- For any production system, when optimal conformance quality decreases, the optimal design quality should decrease in order to maximize overall profit. Expensive resources spent on high end products can be easily wasted in their rough quality conversion process.
- When design quality decreases, the corresponding optimal conformance quality declines as well. When producing low end products, focusing too much on improving conformance quality in the short term can be suboptimal.
- When design quality or conformance quality declines, the optimal selling price of the product should also be reduced. Consequently lower-end customers will be able to buy the product and the overall demand is increased.
- The improvements of conformance quality can provide an incentive for the company to further improve the design quality for its product offerings that results in improvement of overall profit.
- If either design or conformance quality increases, the selling price of the product should be increased to maximize the overall profit margin for the company.

Service

Traditional manufacturers have moved into service and customer solution fields to solidify their positions in increasingly competitive markets and raise their revenues and margins leading to the well-documented shift from goods-dominant to a service-dominant logic in business markets (e.g. Antioco et al, 2008; cit. Ulaga & Reinartz, 2011). The good service given by the supplier may be helping the increase in customer satisfaction (Chan and Kumar, 2007; Özkan et al, 2010). If a customer's product or production needs some kind of help, they prefer companies who can help them also with some kind of service. For the customer it is a link done by the supply chain and they don't need heavy investments or time. Product and price could be the easiest factors to copy by competitors and that's why managers search for new ways to differentiate themselves in a buyer-seller relationship. Increasingly, businesses have to focus on service orientation to differentiate themselves from their competitors (Liang & Tseng, 2010). Good service includes the process of solving problems by the salespersons. Indeed, it can be difficult for frontline employees to separate the sales and service context (Hafer and McCuen, 1985): sales are often predicated on an effective service function relationship (Bowler et al, 2011), and effective service quality should impact salesperson performance (Amyx and Bhuian, 2009) (Koppitsch et al, 2013). This means that the frontline personnel are the first key factor for good service. Good service starts at employing the right people. Prior literature (e.g., Jones et al, 2005; Moncrief, 1986) indicates that sales context has changed substantially, particularly because of increased customer expectations for service delivery and the performance of salespeople. Salespeople's service recommendations may make them an explicit target of blame if there is a problem with the service delivery (Koppitsch et al, 2013). One of the services that the employees can provide to customers on a high level is after sale service. The after sale value line includes timely delivery, installation of the product for the customer, good warranty terms and time, enhanced service quality, proper feedback from customer about the whole service, product and work according to majority recommendations of the consumer (Choudhary et al, 2011). Providing service is currently the main issue for companies, because this is area where companies can earn money. To be a good service provider, companies need good relationships with their customers and must try to satisfy them as much as possible. For example, suppliers such as IBM, Lexus, and Caterpillar derive great advantages from their reputations for providing high-quality service after a sale is complete (Cohen, Agrawal, and Agrawal, 2006; Challagalla et al, 2009). During service operations failures, employee interactions with customers are a critical service element in restoring customer satisfaction (Anderson, Bagget, Widener, 2007; Kotni, 2011). Because of the importance of the employees, companies need to train their personnel by systematic improvement. The various factors like communication materials, service personnel response, consistent courteousness and convenient operating times form almost 50% of what a customer expects during after-sales service (Prabakaran and Babu, 2012). People skills are the foundation of good customer service, and customer service skills are critical to professional success in almost any job (Evenson, 1999; Zehr, 1998; Robles, 2012). In their study Challagalla et al,(2009) suggested that there are three key forms or dimensions of proactive post sales service in both business-to-business (B2B) and business-to-consumer (B2C) contexts:

- Proactive prevention- a supplier initiating contact with customers to check how its products are performing and taking actions to pre-empt product failures.
- Proactive education- a supplier initiating contact with customers to advise them how to derive more value from their product purchases.
- Proactive feedback seeking- a supplier initiating contact with customers to solicit their feedback.

Flexibility

Flexibility means a quick response capability to changing customer requirements (Özkan et al, 2010). It is not easy always, because with the flexibility comes large expenses. Moreover, manufacturing flexibility can be very expensive (for frequent changeovers or buying overtime capacity, for example) (Zhang and Tseng, 2009). To avoid large spending and misunderstandings after the order, pre-work with detailed information should be elaborated. By having an effective supplier coordination mechanism in place, a manufacturing firm could align its supplier's capabilities (its external) to cope with unexpected customer requirements with ease (Jayaram et al, 2011). In the supply chain context it is more difficult to be flexible. Supply chain contends with many different factors and companies have to be ready basically for everything. Flexibility becomes a critical order-winning criterion since a firm's flexibility gains a competitive advantage by a rapid response to a customer's volatile demand (Chu et al, 2011). From the perspective of buyers, the following external flexibilities significantly relate to supplier response to environmental turbulence (Chu et al, 2011):

- Volume flexibility- the ability to change the level of aggregated output.
- Mix flexibility- the ability to change the range of products made within a given time period.
- Product flexibility- the ability to introduce novel products or to modify existing ones.
- Delivery flexibility- the ability to change planned or assumed delivery dates.

Of these flexibilities the volume flexibility is the hardest to fulfil for a trade company and production company, because it involves a lot of planning and costs. It is more achievable for smaller companies because of easier planning and more flexible scheduling. This is where the stockholding company can help the most in all this flexibility. In today's highly competitive environment customers demand faster responses and a wider variety of products (Jayaram et al, 2011). At the same time stockholding companies are forced to have smart purchasing, have less material in the stock with shorter payment terms etc. All supply chain partners jointly share the responsibility for achieving new product flexibility (Kumar et al, 2006; Chu et al, 2011). Help from the salesperson is crucial; their ability to predict the material flow and material need is critical. Developing a close relationship with the customer requires identifying the customers' requirements, receiving feedback from customers, and conveying this feedback to employees who can then execute changes based on the feedback (Kaynak and Hartley, 2008; Jayaram et al, 2011).

Literature about flexibility shows that trust is a significant belief from the customer side. Customers need to know can their partner in the supply chain can provide them flexibility. It is well known, that it is ten times harder to get back an old customer than find a new one. Research has found that trust significantly and positively relates to commitment (Geyskens, Steeenkamp, and Kumar, 1999; Morgan and Hunt 1994) and cooperation (Anderson and Narus, 1990; Morgan and Hunt, 1994) (Chu et al, 2011). If the relationship between customer and supplier is working well and they have a positive trust between each other, then that link is hard to interrupt by competitors and is an ideal partnership for companies. Therefore, the supplier will be motivated to increase the value delivered to the buyer by adapting its own products, processes, and procedures to the buyer's specific needs (Chu et al, 2011).

Competitive Pricing

Price competition has lost its former meaning. Market-oriented customer-based organizations think of sustaining and promoting customer's loyalty as a new means instead of competing over a price (Christopher, 1996; Nazari et al, 2012). This can be different by markets. If it is an end-users market like Scandinavia the customer values different outputs like quality, innovation etc. In markets like Estonia, where the main production comes from sub-contracting products, the price could be still a main issue. A study of Iran cement production showed that despite the high price of the company's product in proportion to the price of the competitor products, customers are more sensitive to some other factors (Nazari et al, 2012). A similar conclusion was found in the investigation in the Turkish manufacturing industry, where price did not play a statistically significant effect on customer satisfaction (Özkan et al, 2010). This does not mean that price is not important. It is one criterion for the customer to decide among many competitors and this means companies must do everything possible so that the price will be the last issue on the table. An intuitive explanation is that price leaders might emerge when products are undifferentiated as a means to avoid price competition. Another explanation is that when own sales can be impacted by competitors' price changes it is necessary to react to a competitors' price change (especially a decrease) with a change of one's own (Roy and Raju, 2011). If business deal is valued with the low margin originally it is better for the supplier to offer other bonuses rather than lower the price. Pricing is business' most sensitive economic lever, directly affecting a company's revenue and margin (Hwang et al, 2011). The pricing in a project based business can be sometimes more difficult than the average pricelist. In the project based pricing, companies have to offer every time different price depending on the demands of the project. Companies can customize their price based on customer location, purchased volume quantity, product features and product life cycle (Hwang et al, 2011). If the customer needs also a service, it gives more opportunities to the seller. In retail one of the price manipulation possibilities is to sell bigger packages, with another product etc. In business practice, however, package size changes are much less frequent than price changes, possibly because package size changes are associated with costly and complex changes in the production process (Gu and Yang, 2010). The customer likes to decide on the multiple benefits given to a product. In heavy industry it is simpler for the customer to decide e.g. steel is steel everywhere and customer must decide the best package offering. However in the apartment store the choice of similar products is very large and it can confuse customers. As Barone, Manning, and Miniard (2004) documented, a price comparison in one product category may lead consumers to become suspicious of noncompetitively priced products in different categories. Consumers may view these "missing" comparisons as signaling that the retailer does not possess a price advantage (at least not one worthy of being communicated) and may even prompt inferences that the retailer is more expensive than its competitor (Miniard et al, 2013). Salespersons have the inside information from the customers that can be used to make the deal. Amid increasingly fierce competition, effective pricing is one of the most powerful levers to improve profit margin (Hwang et al, 2011).

Innovation

Changes can be made in manufacturing technology, production processes, labor, capital, infrastructure, and overall market knowledge (Barčic´ et al, 2011). According to Nybakk et al, 2009, truly new innovations are often referred to as "new-to-the-world innovations" or "radical innovations", while improvements in existing products, services, or management practices are referred as incremental innovations (Barčic´ et al, 2011). A starting point for the idea of openness is that a single organization cannot innovate in isolation. Companies have to engage different types of partners to acquire ideas and resources from the external environment to stay abreast of competition (Chesbrough, 2003a; Laursen and Salter, 2006a; Dahlander and Gann, 2010). Innovation is the field that gets most of the funds in a modern company. All companies want to invent something and become the new Apple. However, as firms become more efficient and remove slack from their systems, it becomes increasingly more difficult to make improvements simultaneously in multiple dimensions without negatively impacting other dimensions (Schroeder et al, 2011). This means that companies face the possibility that in a large innovation mood they forget the everyday business and their customer's satisfaction drops dramatically. Verworn and Hipp (2009) noted that the company, to become and remain innovative, needs to employ creative and, above all, highly educated persons and that high proportion of highly educated staff members has a significant positive impact on the development of innovations (Barčic´ et al, 2011). The literature shows that strategies of innovation help a company in three ways (Anthony et al, 2004; Bowonder et al, 2010):

- Providing new offerings or experiences that excite the customer.
- Staying ahead of the competition in the marketplace.
- Entering into new market segments or creating new businesses.

Not everybody can be inventors. Most of the companies must be innovative on the things that they do in everyday business and help to create more value to the customer. Increasingly, industry leaders complement their product offerings with service innovations to enhance the overall customer value (Shelton, 2009). Customer-oriented firms are more likely to innovate and develop new products and services that are valued by their customers (Wagner, 2009). If the company has a good relationship with the customer, it should be easy to notice if anything or something needs to be done in a new innovative way. Whatever is done, whether the innovation process is centralized or dispersed, rigorously structured or freewheeling, a company has to find the right people and put them in the right environment (Gobble, 2012). Some big companies have started a new innovative small company inside the big one. It is composed of creative people whose only job is to be open minded. A good example in Estonia is PMT and its creation company Meiren Engineering. As long as a company is not at the bottom with regard to R&D spending, it makes no difference whether it's the biggest spender in the industry or merely a middling spender. How much a company spends is less important than how it spends that money (Gobble, 2012). The success of open innovation can differ across technologies and industries (Christensen et al, 2005; Dahlander and Gann, 2010).

Most of the literature about innovative suggests co-creation. Companies are changing their innovation strategies from "innovating for customers" to "innovating with customers" and involving those customers in the process of "knowledge co-creation" (Desouza et al, 2004; Nambisan, 2002; Desouza et al, 2008). This means that companies must trust their customers and vice versa. Information behind the innovation is a key figure and currently with the help of the internet the information flow should be large and fast. In co-creation the customer needs are well documented and the innovation is a true value to the customer-supplier relationship. Companies must be quick with the customer or at least the customer's interest, because the competitors are always lurking. Intel believes that there are only two types of firms: „the quick and the dead" (Bowonder et al, 2010).

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this paper was to give an overview about the latest literature and customer satisfaction at supply chain context. The authors also found some theoretical evidence for picking seven success factors: technical capability, innovation, delivery, conformance quality, pricing, flexibility and service. The main topic was to analyze the seven factors that were picked because of the latest research findings.

Many researchers have tried to understand customer satisfaction from the supplier's point of view. This paper was inspired by researchers Özkan et al. 2010 because their new approach was defining supplier performance from a supplier selection and evaluation criteria point of view. This paper is more of an overview of the literature and there is not support through new research.

What the authors have defined from this paper is that customer satisfaction is extremely important for supply chain and this is an issue that needs more research. All of the defined seven factors are important to maintain or create customer satisfaction and companies must work with all of them. Although some studies found that price is not so important a factor to affect customer satisfaction, this paper's authors believe that this is something that is very specific by region and needs more investigation. It can be that sub-contracting impacts a company's value price more than innovation.

Many globalized business-to-business organizations are focusing their strategic efforts on managing the supply chain to create a competitive advantage and maximize financial performance. The effectiveness of supply chain management decision making relies heavily on the notion of cooperation and coordination, or synchronization, across all organizations in the supply chain network (Leffakis, 2011). All of the picked seven factors are equally important to every member of the supply chain and can strengthen or weaken customer satisfaction. One of the main issues throughout the referred literature was the need to have the right people working for the company. Employees have great power and an opportunity to resolve most of the problems. Employees can be creative and innovative and give some feedback about customer's needs that help companies be more flexible towards their customers. The customer-supplier relationship is the main goal and companies can help achieve customer satisfaction by supporting that customer bond through these seven factors. Once trust is built, both partners are more likely to coordinate their efforts because each party does not act only for its own interest (Anderson and Narus, 1990; Mohr and Spekman, 1994; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Chu et al, 2011). To sum it up, it should be stated that identifying the effective factors on customer performance which is based on the way of customer's decision making, can be the starting point to recognizing customer incentives in their making of purchasing decisions (Divandarri, 2005; Nazari, 2012).

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This paper gives an overview of literature and is not supported by research in the local region. Findings from the Turkish research can greatly vary because of cultural differences and that there are mainly sub-contracting work in Estonia and not manufacturing as in Turkey. In this paper only the past five year's research literature was analyzed and there were no books included.

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ESTONIAN HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' ATTITUDE TOWARDS UNEMPLOYMENT 1991-2012

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INTRODUCTION

Estonian people, as citizens of the European Union, live in a period of time where they sense instability in their everyday lives. The world's economic order has fallen into crisis and global problems, which surface as a consequence of the progress of civilization, prefigure an increasing threat to the continuance of humankind. Events in the world have made people think about fundamental problems concerning the existence of their planet. The media amplifies this feeling by emphasising that the "world order" is in crisis. (Valge & Sepp, 2009; Vipp, 2012)

Unemployment is one of the global problems which has distinctively come forth during the economic crisis (Opinion of, 2013).

According to Statistics Estonia (2013a) the rate of unemployment in Estonia in 2008 was 5.5%, in 2010 it was 16.9%. Unemployment has fallen steadily since 2010, mostly among males. In 2012 unemployment overall was 10.2% and that of the 15- to 24-year-old was 20.9%. In the second quarter of 2013 the rate of unemployment fell to 8.1%, and that of the youth to 16.1%. Male unemployment usually tends to be higher than among females, however in the second quarter of 2013 the rate of unemployment between the sexes was of equal level. In the third quarter of 2013 the overall rate was 8 % but in the fourth quarter the reduction in unemployment slowed and the rate was 8.7 %, which means there were 59 000 unemployed persons in all of Estonia (Statistics Estonia, 2014). January 2014 had 7,520 new unemployed persons (Registreeritud töötus, 2014). Therefore, unemployment continues to be a serious problem.

In order to include people in the processes of solving unemployment and other global problems it is necessary to find out to what extent these issues are important to individuals and what is their perception of the potential to solve these problems. After having acquired information and knowledge methods could be devised about how to influence people in understanding the importance of these problems and their own responsibility in solving them.

Why were adolescents studied? For many developmental psychologists, adolescence is seen as a period of preparation for adulthood (Call, Riedel, Hein, McLoyd, Peterson, & Kipke, 2002). It is a unique period of development with regard to a person's future orientation. Social norms and expectations push adolescents toward future-oriented thinking. Through this process, adolescents should gain experiences that help them shape their own expectations of the future, which include perceptions of possibilities and opportunities (Nurmi, 2004). These expectations will impact their decisions and the opportunities they pursue, which will place them on trajectories that shape the rest of their lives.

Based on the surveys conducted earlier (e.g., Dodds & Chong-de, 1992) the authors considered adolescents a social group that can be most readily influenced. The present survey is based on the notion that problems reflected in the concerns of the youth are actual problems in the society at large. Therefore the results of the survey grant knowledge not only about the attitude of the young, but allow conclusions to be drawn about the vitality of a certain global problem –

unemployment – in the whole community of Estonia. The knowledge gained from the survey is essential because the present high school students are the designers of the future.

METHOD

The survey was conducted among high school students all over Estonia in the autumn of 2012 and the results were compared to the surveys conducted between 1991 and 1995. In 1991 the survey was carried out two months after the Republic of Estonia had re-gained its independence. Those who participated in 2012 had been born in a re-independent Estonia and had grown up in a society with Western European values.

The survey was conducted by using A World Problem Questionnaire (WPQ; Chlewiński & Zaleski, 1991) in which 32 global problems were described by professor Zdzislaw Chlewiński from the Catholic University of Lublin, Poland to which Zbigniew Zaleski added "the scale of attitudes towards the future". In 2012 Martin Talvik supplemented this survey (Talvik, 2013) and added seven statements describing world problems which can also become crucial in the future. The earlier 32 statements were kept the same in order to guarantee comparability. The seven additional statements were based on the opinion of qualified experts (Leonard, 2011; Seitz and Hite, 2012; Issues on the..., 2013).

In 2012 the survey involved 1,391 high school students of the age of 16.91±0.88 (M±SD), 578 of the respondents were male and 813 female. This is 6.19% of all students in the high school lists of Estonia (Alus- ja üldhariduse, 2013), which makes the reliance level (Reaves, 1992) 0.97. Thus the results can be generalised onto all of Estonia's high school students. Furthermore since earlier surveys (Chlewiński, 1993) have indicated that the concerns of the adolescents reflect the concerns in the society as a whole, the results can be generalised also onto the total Estonian population.

From 1991 to 1995 there were 1,943 high school students all over Estonia questioned by Mati Talvik (Talvik, 1995; Talvik, 1998). The survey of that period was based on the aforementioned questionnaire of 32 world problems translated into Estonian. The permission for translation and use was granted to Mati Talvik by Zbigniew Zaleski in 1991. In addition, Mati Talvik obtained the database with the results of similar surveys from Belgium, Western and Eastern Germany, Poland, Ukraine, and Lithuania.

In order to facilitate the analysis of the results, all problems described in the questionnaire were given brief titles: 1. Nuclear war, 2. Demography, 3. Ecology, 4. Cancer, 5. Civilization diseases, 6. New diseases, 7. Natural disasters, 8. Psychical diseases, 9. Prejudices, 10. Religious conflicts, 11. Personal Alienation, 12. Unemployment, 13. Family crisis, 14. Drug addiction, 15. Resources Exploitation, 16. Manipulation, 17. Alcoholism, 18. Interpersonal contacts, 19. Poor-rich conflict, 20. Life standard differences, 21. Women's role, 22. Family crisis & delinquency, 23. Cultural & moral deterioration, 24. Conformism, 25. Industrial waste, 26. Professional diseases, 27. Folklore disappearance, 28. Nationalistic conflicts, 29. Illiteracy, 30. AIDS, 31. Secularization, 32. Violence & terrorism, 33. Global warming, 34. Demise of small nations, 35. Holes in the ozone layer, 36. Internet addiction, 37. Dangers of genetically modified organisms (GMOs), 38. Waste, 39. Space refuse.

As mentioned before, problem No 12, Unemployment, will be discussed in detail in this paper.

In the questionnaire the global problems were presented as statements describing the worst possible scenario to happen when humankind does nothing to fight the problem (e.g., Unemployment: New technologies and computers eliminate human labour, which leads to unemployment and the impoverishment of many families). The survey participants had to evaluate how important the problem was for them at that moment on the 5-point Likert-type scale, in which 1 equalled to „not important at all", 3 equalled to „leaves me indifferent" and 5 was „the issue is very important to me".

After that the participants had to evaluate how the importance of the problem would change in the period of 50 years on a percentage scale from -100% to +100% by 10% increments.

Responses on the percentage scale were regarded to reflect optimism or pessimism concerning the future (-100 to 0 = optimism; 0 to +100 = pessimism; Zaleski, Chlewinski, & Lens, 1994).

In addition to the WPQ questionnaire, 715 respondents of the first survey period took part in project "Toleration", where their attitude towards differences (other nationalities, races, disabled people etc) was examined (Talvik, 2001). These results were compared to the WPQ results.

RESULTS

The problem of unemployment is multidimensional and complex, and the data are rich. For statistic data processing one- and two-dimensional data analysis methods, correlation analysis, factor analysis and dispersion analysis methods were used.

The Importance of Unemployment for High School Students

The survey results indicate that the factor with the greatest impact on the results was the respondent's gender. Women deem the problem more important than men.

Unemployment left males relatively untouched (M=3.23), whereas females considered unemployment an important issue (M=3.82). In the list of global problems, unemployment was in the 10th place in 2012, whereas in 1991 it had been in the 17th place.

When comparing the regional data, how youth in different parts of Estonia where the survey was conducted see the issue of unemployment, it was discovered that unemployment is more important among rural youth than among the youth living in Tallinn. The results of the survey were compared with the registered rate of unemployment in different regions. It turned out that in the districts of East-Virumaa, Valgamaa and Põlvamaa where the actual rate of unemployment is high, students consider the issue more important. On the island of Saaremaa and in Tallinn, where the problem leaves students indifferent, the rate of unemployment is lower than the Estonian average. In Tartu and Võru, where the rate of unemployment was the lowest among the cities, the problem was still relatively important. Thus a simple conclusion that the problem is deemed more important there where the actual rate of unemployment is the highest cannot be drawn (see table 1).

Region	Registered rate of unemployment	Mean value of importance of unemployment
District of Võru	7.1%	3.87
Tartu	7.8%	3.53
Island of Saaremaa	9.2%	3.33
Tallinn	9.6%	3.21
District of Põlva	11.5%	3.71
District of Valga	15.3%	3.69
District of East-Virumaa	17.5%	3.63
Estonia in total	10.2%	3.58

Table 1. Registered rate of unemployment in different regions (Statistics Estonia, 2013b) and the correlation with the perception of importance of the problem by high school students (2012).

The Results of The Prognosis on The Scale of Optimism-Pessimism, and Its Change Over Time

Students responded that when compared with today the issue of unemployment becomes more important by an increase of +35.73% on the scale of -100% to +100%.

The relationships between gender and optimism/pessimism about the solution of unemployment problem was also investigated. More specifically, it was investigated whether women, who usually score higher on anxiety scales (see e.g., Hang & Hauser, 1991), would report greater pessimism about the solution to global problems in the future.

It turned out that women really are more pessimistic about the prognosis of the future than men. Males thought that in 50 years unemployment will be more important than today by about a quarter (M=+26.01%) while females estimated that the issue will be worse than today by about a half (M=+42.64%).

Comparing the results of 2012 with those obtained in the early 1990s it can be seen that the greatest shift in future perception occurred in 1992 (with respect to 1991). In 1991 students saw the problem's future less pessimistically than in comparison with 1992 and later years (with the exception of 1995; see figure 1). However in all years under investigation the orientation is at the pessimistic side of the scale (0 to +100). In other countries in 1991 the result was the following: Belgium -2.94; Western Germany -7.17; Eastern Germany -15.76; Poland -0.20; Ukraine +13.13; India -14.31; USA -13.20 and Lithuania -10.00. Estonian students showed the most pessimistic orientation (+31.09; see figure 1).

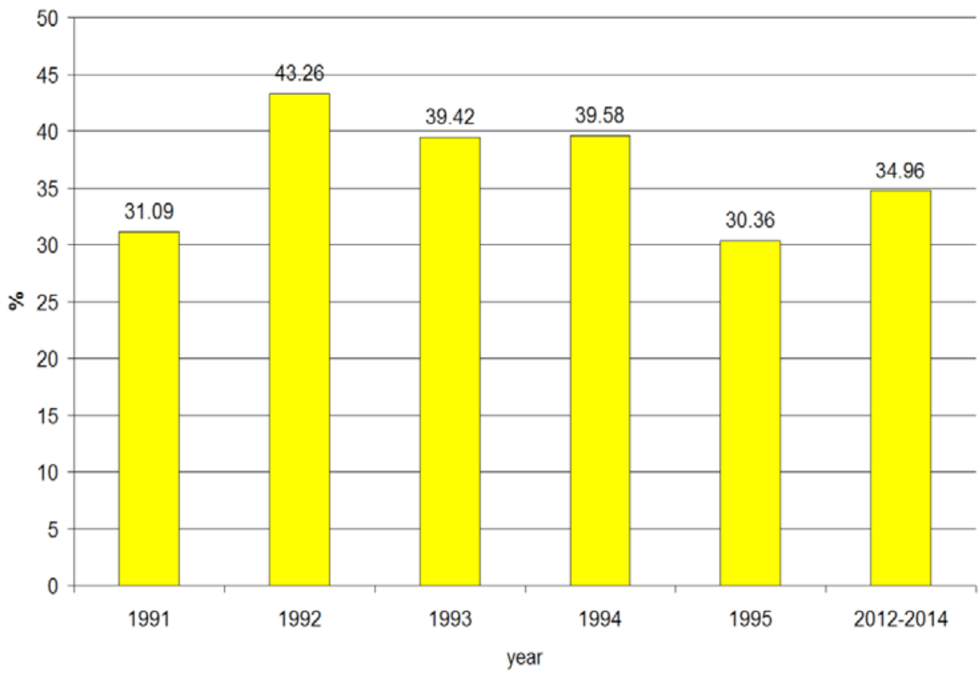

Figure 1. Differences in students' prognosis on the scale of optimism-pessimism concerning unemployment (mean values).

The Semantic Shift of The Unemployment Problem

The factor analysis results indicate that in the 1990s unemployment, together with personal alienation, formed one factor whereas in 2012 a significant shift becomes noticeable. In addition to personal alienation unemployment is part of the same factor as cancer, civilization diseases, psychological diseases, family crisis, interpersonal contacts, women's roles, and internet addiction.

This shift indicates that young people have become more conscious of the issue of unemployment, and some may have experienced it through their relatives or family members. Unemployment is not any more just a problem of non-active and closed individuals but can be associated with various interpersonal contacts and family problems, it can cause diseases and cause people to escape into the virtual world. The meaning of unemployment has become considerably wider over 20 years (see figure 2).

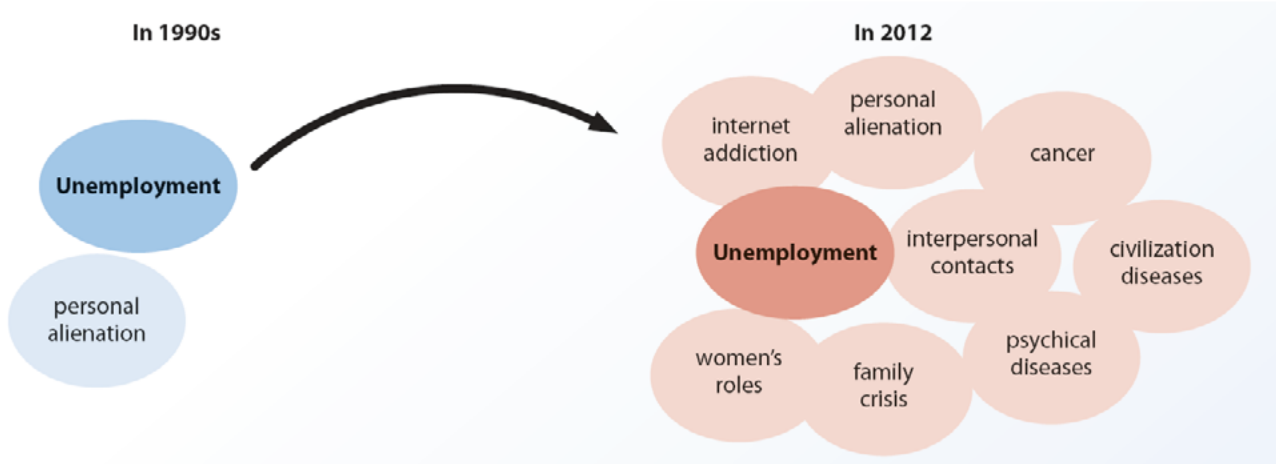

Figure 2. The semantic shift of the unemployment problem

CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The results of this survey offer vital feedback for educators in Estonia.

The survey demonstrated that the problem of unemployment is in general important for high school students and in students' perception that the issue becomes more important by +35.73% in the future.

Former surveys have shown that high school students obtain knowledge about crucial problems either from school or via the media (Rickinson, 2001). Knowledge does not grow in vacuum. Each bit of knowledge or idea should be treated as a social, not as an individual phenomenon. People adopt the values of the social group into which they belong, and this way build up the system of their value judgments and meanings (Bourdieu, 1993).

Thus people evaluate certain issues as citizens of one or another society, observing the existing norms. People evaluate problems according to their social roles; they respond as men or students rather than "multi-dimensional personalities". The society does not impact attitudes to global problems by personality, but rather through gender, education, religious position, etc. Since nothing personal is asked, it is expected that the results do not reflect the personality but the bearer of the social role (Talvik, 1995). Individual thinking processes are affected by cultural and general models existing in the corresponding region and national group.

The year 2012 showed a general pessimistic background towards the problem of unemployment. Why in 2012 do Estonia's youth see the future of the problem in a pessimistic way? The increased pessimism among the young can be explained by the overall disappointment and depression. Every one is complaining about their status quo which obviously proceeds from the economic crisis in the European Union, the monetary reform (Estonian kroons were exchanged to euros in January 2011), inflation and the decrease of purchasing power in Estonia.

The optimism of 1991 can be justified by the sudden and unexpected liberation from the totalitarian regime which brought along a general wave of optimism in the society. The prevalent opinion was that everything could only become better. The selected sample expressed optimism in connection with the atmosphere of a "spring of democracy". Everything expected in connection with the liberation was achieved and obviously nobody believed that things could grow worse. The year 1992 witnessed the increase of pessimism towards unemployment. The optimism ended in 1992 – the year of the previous monetary reform when roubles were exchanged to Estonian kroons. Purchasing power decreased together with the natural growth of population which reached the bottom line in 1994 (-8036) (Statistics Estonia, 2013a).

Thus in the years between 1992 and 1995 the general background in the society was a rather pessimistic one and that could affect pessimism concerning the future of finding a solution to the unemployment problem.

The greatest factor affecting the results was the respondent's gender. Women deem unemployment more important than men. It can be asked whether women consider the problem more important because they score higher on anxiety scales (Hang & Hauser, 1991) or whether the reason is that they respond to social expectations. Z. Chlewinski (1993) explains female pessimistic judgment by women's lower fear threshold. The authors' former survey (Talvik, 1995) has suggested that subjects who deem global problems important score high on social desirability on the EPQ survey score (Eysenck, 1975). Though the survey was anonymous, it was conducted in an official institution – school. Women could feel that they should be concerned about unemployment and respond according to expectations. Social desirability can explain the matter.

The interpretation of the whole world is based on former experiences. These could be from personal lives or obtained from parents, teachers, the media, etc.

The survey shows that high school students from South-Estonia and East-Virumaa are more pessimistic than those living in Tallinn. The rate of registered unemployment (with the exceptions of the university city Tartu and tourism centre Võru) is also higher there. \It can be concluded that in addition to knowledge, general pessimism is also affected by experience obtained from the direct living environment. About one fifth of children in Estonia – in 2011 the figure was 16.2% – live in relative poverty, most of them in rural districts (Suhteline vaesus, 2013). Influence on different appraisals can also be attributed to the factor of material well-being that could affect the results of the survey. Nurmi (1987) and Beal (2011) have stated in their research that future-oriented cognitions may vary across socio-economic statuses. Opportunities available to adolescents, and their expectations for success, vary by social class.

The 715 respondents of the WPQ questionnaire from the first survey period took also part in a project "Toleration", where their attitude towards differences (other nationalities, races, disabled people etc) was examined (Talvik, 2001). The Toleration survey contained several questions about material well-being of families. The results were correlated to the WPQ results. The attitude towards unemployment is connected to the father's education, the financial resources of the family and the amount of technical appliances at home. The higher the father's education, the more financial resources and technical appliances a family had, the more optimistic was the attitude towards unemployment. The most optimistic were students from families who had a yacht or a motorboat.

A person's pessimism about solvability of global problems is expressed when people have direct contact with them (Zaleski, et al, 1994). If unemployment is a distant issue, it is seen in a more optimistic manner and vice versa. If there has been any personal contact with the problem, it is perceived pessimistically.

Taking the previously presented results and connections into account many challenges for educators emerge from the survey. How to prepare students for employment in a complex, insecure and constantly changing world? How can innovative entrepreneurial education help to develop jobs, careers and economic growth? How can education help to release or conquer the fear of unemployment? Which specialities are "hard and fast"? What is the destiny of the so called "soft specialities"?

Summarizing the survey results it can be stated that in 2012 the youth believe that the entrepreneurial environment after 50 years will be characterized by a high rate of unemployment. Estonians have been more pessimistic about unemployment than other nations throughout 20 years (Zaleski, et al, 1994). Why is it so? How to teach entrepreneurial skills to persons with pessimistic orientation? If one foresees a negative future, it may be hard for them to work to improve it. Obviously the negativistic attitude has to change first. Another question is, how is the attitude connected to coping strategies? Further research on these topics is encouraged.

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[i] About the general results of the whole survey see the article (Talvik, Talvik & Talvik, 2013).

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THE IMPACT OF BASIC TRAINING FOR STARTING ENTREPRENEURS IN ESTONIA

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INTRODUCTION

As the role and importance of entrepreneurs in society is increasing all over the world the focus on research of the actual outcome of entrepreneurship education has also increased. Moreover, starting a business is supported by the government and funds. The increased interest in entrepreneurship education as well as in supporting the new business is motivated by the intended results of entrepreneurship: the creation of new sustainable businesses and economic growth.

Unfortunately in Estonia researches about the outcome of entrepreneurship education and the effectiveness of entrepreneurship courses are practically missing.

In 2012 the first study about current teaching practices in Estonia and Latvia was carried out by Inna Kozlinska and Tõnis Mets. (University of Tartu), (Kozlinska, Mets 2013)

That study addresses the gap in carrying out the training and getting feedback of results of trainings over a longer period.

On the longer timescale the expected outcome of the training is the creation of a new enterprise. This forms the basis of studying the impact of the trainings.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The results of entrepreneurial education and trainings (or courses) have been research objects for more than twenty years. In 1986 Dainow (Dainow, 1986) published a review of entrepreneurship education. Dainow concluded that there was a need for more systematic research and more variation in methods in order to bring the research field forward. Ten years later, Gorman et al. (1997) reviewed 29 theoretical articles and 63 empirical articles focused on entrepreneurial education (EE), enterprise education or education for small business management. All the articles were written during the period 1985 to 1994. In contrast to Dainow's findings (1986) there appeared to have been a marked increase in empirical research, particularly in the area of the educational process and structure. The results of the research indicated considerable consensus that entrepreneurship can be taught and that teaching methods can be enhanced through active participation. (Goreman et al, 1997, ISBJ p. 71) Goreman et al concluded that there was preliminary evidence that entrepreneurial attributes could be positively influenced by educational programs and that many entrepreneurship programs are able to build awareness of entrepreneurship as a career option and to encourage favorable attitudes toward entrepreneurship.

Dickson et al (2008) examined the literature published in 1995-2006. The review had a specific focus on empirical research linking either general education or specific forms of entrepreneurial education to either the creation of a new venture or some measure of entrepreneurial success. The findings of the review indicate a significant positive relationship between education and entrepreneurial performance. But the review highlights the lack of consensus in both definitions of entrepreneurial education and what should be the appropriate and measurable outcomes for entrepreneurial education. They identified two streams of research: one focused on the founding of ventures as the outcome of entrepreneurial education (six articles published since 1995) and the other focused of some outcome that serves as a precursor of selection into entrepreneurship (fifteen articles published since 1995).

Strand (2013) published a review focused on empirical research linking entrepreneurial education to measurable outcomes. Strand documents knowledge on three themes:

- the outcome of entrepreneurship education, in the form of increased intention;
- the effects of various types of pedagogical approaches on entrepreneurship education;
- the macroeconomic effects of entrepreneurship education.

The Outcome of Entrepreneurship Education, In The form of Increased Intention

Thompson (2009) states that no uniform approach to defining and measuring individual entrepreneurial intent has yet emerged. The lack of a clear definition of individual entrepreneurial intent and a reliable, validated way to measure individual entrepreneurial intentions have hindered progress in identifying micro- and macro-environmental conditions associated with entrepreneurship.

Thompson (2009) defined individual entrepreneurial intent as a self-acknowledged conviction by a person that they intend to set up a new business venture and consciously plan to do so at some point in the future. That point in the future might be imminent or indeterminate, and may never be reached. They may not ever actually set up a new business because myriad personal circumstances and environmental factors may militate against this. *Measuring an increase in intention to set up a new business cannot make sure that the number of new, actually started companies increases and the amount of unemployed people decreases.*

According to Strand (2013) the findings of outcomes in the form of increased intention seem to be contradictory. Strand also reminds the reader to bear in mind Thompson's (2009) conclusion that measurement instruments that have been used are not validated.

The Macroeconomic Effects of Entrepreneurship Education

Seikkula-Leino J. et al (2013) studying teachers' reflections on entrepreneurship education find that the evaluation of the results of entrepreneurship education is considered to be difficult by teachers mainly due to a short time span and the difficulty in estimating the number of prospective entrepreneurs.

Fayolle (2013) states that despite the importance of the evaluation from a policy-maker point of view, little research is available concerning the assessment and measurement of EE and courses. He points out entrepreneurial outcomes are the key issues for both policy-makers and educators.

The World Economic Forum report on entrepreneurship education (WEF 2009) states that they were not able to identify any studies linking entrepreneurship education to economic growth.

Strand (2013) states that a Swedish study (JA Sweden, 2011) followed the actual companies founded by the Student Micro Companies (SMC) participants between 1990-2007. The number of employees in companies started by Alumni is 3-7 % higher than the control group. According to Strand (2013) the Swedish study is convincing, demonstrating remarkably higher revenue from alumni companies (20%).

Strand (2013) reaches a conclusion that attempts to show the macroeconomic result of entrepreneurship program as well as long-term monitoring of the actual economic effect of entrepreneurship education show a fruitful way ahead for future research.

Background of Basic Training of Starting Entrepreneurs

The training is ordered and supported financially by Enterprise Estonia (EAS). At the end of every year a public procurement is conducted for carrying out the training and the winner will have the right to organize trainings in conformity with the regulations of the procurement. This means that the winner is not totally free in designing the training. There are some limitations such as the duration and main topics (themes) of the training. The purpose of the training is to support starting businesses with knowledge about entrepreneurship and to develop their business ideas. Another important task is to draft a business plan for a starting business. The training ends with the presentations of the completed business plans.

The duration of the training is 56 academic. hours and the whole period for the training is approximately. 1 month.

Since 2008 basic training for starting entrepreneurs has been carried out by the Estonian Entrepreneurship University of Applied Sciences (EUAS).

The main subjects dealt with during the training were entrepreneurship in general, legislation important for entrepreneurs, marketing, financial planning/accounting, and drafting a business plan.

The methods used in the trainings were lectures for introducing theoretical aspects combined with interactive study. Interactive study included different tasks for analyzing participants` business ideas and drafting their business plans. The training was supported by an online course in the Moodle learning environment.

As there was no feedback of the effect of the trainings over a longer period a survey was considered to be necessary.

THE AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The great majority of businesses in the European Union are smaller businesses. (Soriano, 2012) SMEs facilitate economic growth, employment and technological advancement, as well as innovative activities. The situation is the same in Estonia. As SMEs play an important role in a nations' economic prosperity, entrepreneurship education and training programs are mostly sponsored by the governments. But in spite of a considerable amount of money spent on these programs there is very little research of the impact of the programs on the macro level.

The main objective of this study is to assess the impact of the training program for business starters on the macro level in Estonia.

As the main purpose of the Basic Training is to support potential future entrepreneurs starting their own small enterprises and considering the diversity of instruments used for the measuring of outcomes of entrepreneurial education the authors of the study focused on the actual founding the enterprise to evaluate the impact of the Basic Training.

The other aims of the current survey were to discover:

- the major hindrances to starting a business;
- the level of contentment with the training after a length period of time (10-34 months) has passed after the training;
- what subjects dealt with in the training did the participants consider to be the most useful over a longer period.

As the participants with former entrepreneurship experience were included in the business starters training groups, a hypothesis was developed:

Hypothesis 1: There will be a negative correlation between having former entrepreneurship experience and being content with the training

SAMPLE

EUAS has been carrying out the Basic Trainings since 2008. In the current survey participants of the years 2011 and 2012 were studied. The earlier years were considered to be too far in the past to properly evaluate the training.

In the years 2011 and 2012 approximately 100 basic trainings with a total number of 1744 participants were carried out. The total number of people participating in the questioning was 160 (60 men and 100 women). In the sample (n=160) the confidence interval 7,4% is stated at a 95% confidence level. The basis of the telephone questioning was the division of people participated in the training according to their gender and the county they originated from. The majority of the respondents were of the age of 26-45 years (77,5%).

The sample was compiled according to division of the participants in 2011 and 2012. The total number of respondents participating in the study was 160, whereas 98 (61,25%) of the respondents participated in the training in 2011 and 62 (38,75%) in 2012. The gender division of the participants of the trainings was 4/6 i.e. 40% men and 60% women. The same gender division was followed in the sample – 60 men and 100 women. As the participants of the trainings were from the different counties of Estonia, the structure of division between counties was also followed in the sample. In sample (n=160) a confidence interval 7,4% is stated at the 95% confidence level. The majority of the respondents were at the age of 26-45 (77,5%).

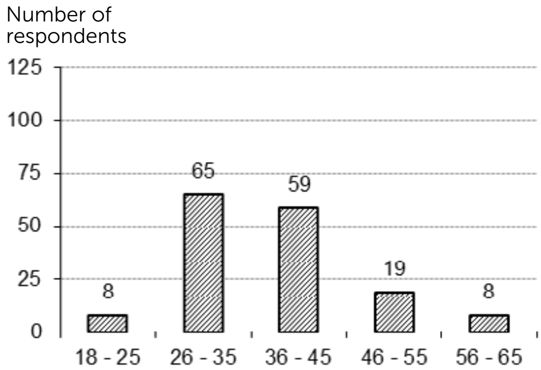

Figure 1. Age of the respondents

METHOD

For carrying out the survey a telephone interview with a structured questionnaire was used. Both multiple-choice and open questions were used.

As the term entrepreneurship is used in different meaning by different authors it is necessary to point out that in this paper the term entrepreneurship is used as an equivalent to self-employment and to owning and starting up your own business.

RESULTS

The purpose of the survey was to find out the percentage of the participants who really started their own business as well as major hindrances to starting a business.

It was revealed that 62 of the respondents (i.e. 38,8%), started a business after the training, 50 respondents (i.e. 31,3%) were entrepreneurs already before the training and 48 respondents (i.e. 30%) haven't started their own business yet.

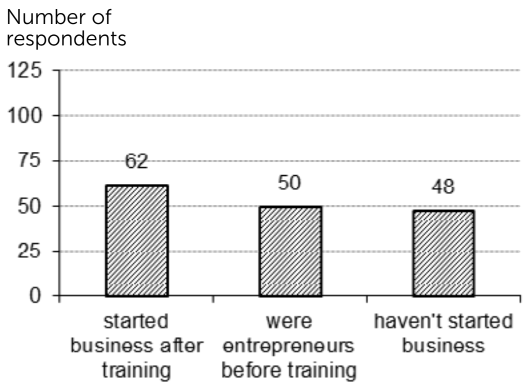

Figure 2. Situation of starting business during 10-34 months period after training

More than half of the business starters (62,9%) started their business within 6 months after the training was completed and for others the period lasted from 7 months to up to 2 years.

There were no unemployed people among the respondents during the survey. But during the training 19 of the respondents were unemployed, at this moment they are either entrepreneurs or employees.

The main reasons for not starting their own business was being employed (21 respondents had a job they were content with), in the second place was unsustainability of the business idea (7 respondents). 14 respondents (i.e. 8,8%) were still making preparations for starting a business.

The two main hindrances to starting business were considered: a lack of financial resources (65%) and bureaucracy (46,9%). A remarkable number of respondents (15%) considered lack of self-confidence as the main hindrance to starting a business.

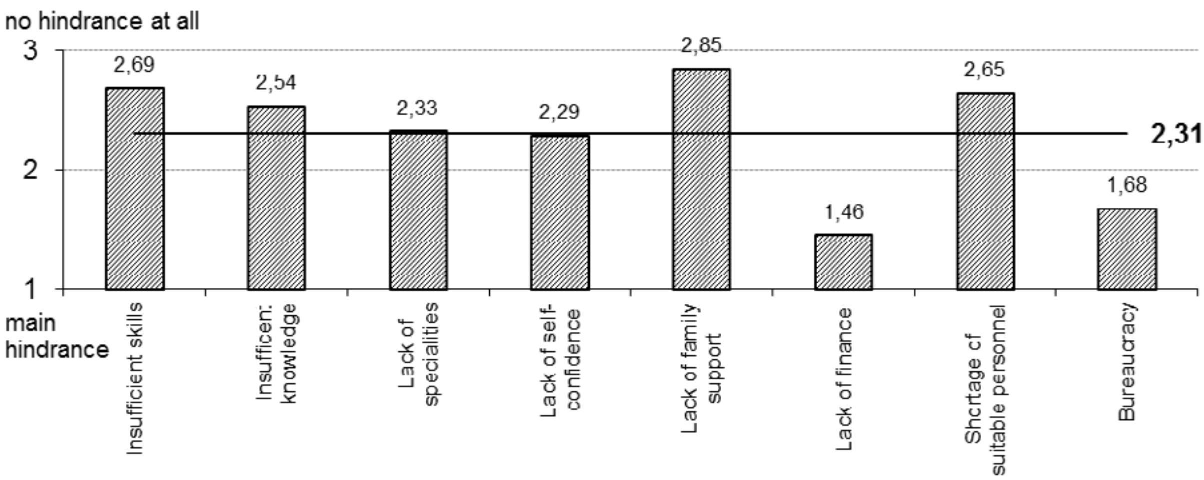

Figure 3. Respondents' average evaluations of hindrances to starting business, scale: 1-3

The next aim of the study was to find out the contentment of the participants with the Basic Training and what they considered should be changed in the future trainings.

The level of contentment with the training was high. The respondents were asked to indicate their content using a 5-point scale where 1 indicated the lowest scale ("not content at all") and 5 indicated the highest scale ("perfectly content"). 95 respondents (i.e. 59,4%) evaluated their contentment with 5 points, 61 respondents (i.e. 38,1%) gave evaluation of 4 points and only 4 respondents out of 160 gave evaluation of 3 points.

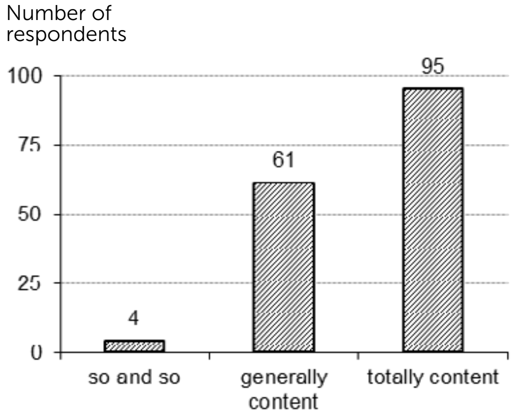

Figure 4. Contentment with training

Comparing the contentment of the respondents who were entrepreneurs already before the training and the ones who started their businesses after the training, it can be seen that active entrepreneurs gave lower evaluations than those who planned to start and/or actually did not start with business at all. Only 48% of active entrepreneurs (24 respondents) were totally content. This finding provides evidence to substantiate hypothesis 1.

The respondents' opinion of the utility of the knowledge of the different fields (finance, marketing, business planning, entrepreneurship, legislation) was also studied. The evaluation of the acquired knowledge was high, all mean values on a scale from 1 to 5 were more than 4. The highest mean value was given to knowledge of drafting a business plan (4,59), the lowest to the practical examples (4,01) and knowledge of entrepreneurship in general (4,02).

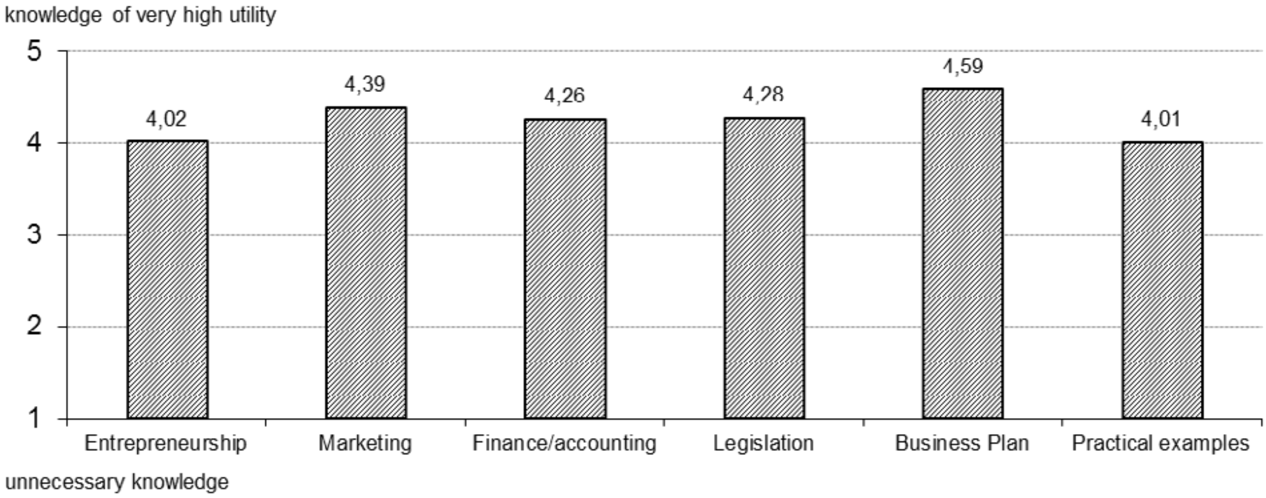

Figure 5. Average evaluations of the utility of knowledge, Likert: 1-5

In the study proposals for changes for future trainings were asked, but only 21% of respondents made some proposals. Nearly one third of the proposals did not involve actually a proposal to change anything but expressed the respondents` contentment with the training, saying that no changes were needed since the training was already very good. Six respondents out of 33 proposed to consider the former experiences of the participants and design different trainings accordingly, that is special trainings for the participants who had started their own business already before the training. Other proposals varied and were mainly based on the specific needs of the respondents.

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The impact of the Basic Training for Starting Entrepreneurs on increasing participants` activity in the labor market and in entrepreneurship can be considered to be positive.

- Approx. 39% of the participants have started their business after the training and only 30% of the participants haven't started their business yet.

One third of this 30% (i.e. 14 respondents) were still making preparations for starting a business. They have not given up the idea of starting their own enterprise which means that the final percentage of non-starters' business may still decrease. In this connection a longer period than 10 to 34 months (especially 10 months) as in this study is necessary for evaluation of the impact of the training. While the most direct measure of venture creation is the act itself, researchers have come to understand that there may be long time periods between the educational experience and subsequent behavior (Dickson et al, 2008).

- At the moment of the study none of the respondents had the status of being unemployed compared to the 19 unemployed (12%) respondents during the training.

According to Norheim and Strand (2013) through focused activities it is possible to build a culture that increases entrepreneurial attitudes. The involved individuals, who have an increased entrepreneurial attitude, will provide higher creative value to society, either through becoming entrepreneurs or offering new ideas and attitudes in already existing organizations.

There is a limitation to the study that should be taken into consideration. The change of the economic situation which might influence the status of respondents in the employment market during the period 10 to 34 months after training has not been considered in the paper.

- The main hindrances to starting business were considered: lack of financial resources (65%), bureaucracy (46,9%) and lack of self-confidence (15%).

As, to the authors' knowledge, no similar research has been carried out in Estonia, there is no possibility to compare results. According to the findings of different studies, the level of self-confidence can be raised.

This research points out a general high contentment with the training. The practical examples and general knowledge of entrepreneurship were considered to be with l lower utility.

The practical examples as well as meeting active entrepreneurs were aimed to connect the Basic Training with entrepreneurial practice. Connecting entrepreneurial education (EE) with entrepreneurial practice is considered to be a relevant point by different authors. Fayolle (2013) states that EE research and practice could address key problems experienced by entrepreneurs in a diversity of situations and contexts. This could be done by keeping close to the real life-world of entrepreneurs, by observing them, regularly meeting them and discussing their concerns (Fayolle 2013). The reason of the low evaluation of the participants for the practical examples in the training may need further studies.

The general knowledge of entrepreneurship included many discussions and arguments about the essence of entrepreneurship. According to Bjerke (2013) the essence of entrepreneurship cannot be taught. In this consideration the low evaluation to the utility of general knowledge is reasonable.

- This study provides evidence to substantiate that there is a negative connection between having former entrepreneurship experience and contentment with the training. (Hypothesis 1)

According to the findings the respondents who had already started their business before attending the training, were less content with the Basic Training. They had different expectations and actually they needed training for continuing their business not for starting it. This can be utilized in improving the trainings in the future. The authors have made a proposal to Enterprise Estonia to carry out specific courses for active, started entrepreneurs separately from those who have not started their business yet but are still considering to start.

The thesis is also supported by McStay (2008) who finds that students without previous entrepreneurial experience participating in an entrepreneurship education program will benefit more than students with such experience.

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IS AN EFFECTIVE AND ENTERPRISING STATE DEMOCRATIC? TOWN PLANNING AS AN INDICATOR OF SOCIAL EFFECTIVENESS

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INTRODUCTION

On the one hand town planning represents urbanism via its development, typology and perspectives, but on the other hand it could be quite philosophical, even reflecting the effectiveness of a society and its ability to be enterprising. However, city space as the quintessence of the town planning, especially concerning the representative city centre, carries on the idea of artefact (human product), but it represents both contemporaneous ideology and functional needs (or predicted needs).

Does town planning represent a spirit of the time? Town planning and city space within it may be taken somehow as information communication technology. There one can recognise information recording functions (materialised ideology), communicational functions (massive, seemingly for one purpose, a produced space) and procession functions (computing and again communicating ideology via material). The most ideological town planning seems to belong to the totalitarian political systems.

Paris World Fair 1937. German Pavilion and Soviet Union Pavilion (Wikimedia, 2013).

What is totalitarian town planning? Totalitarian town planning in Europe in general between the two World Wars and in Italy, Germany and the Soviet Union during World War II is mostly taken as something negative but still admirable. In these countries the middle class had been winners after the regimes based on monarchies were reversed by World War I. This caused overwhelming joy but also some anxiety due to the economic decline after the World War I threatening society. People risked losing everything that they had achieved during the previous decades even centuries. Renaissance park designs, baroque square arrangements, classicist axes for cities and monumental form models seemed to embody peace, harmony and effectiveness.

The Meaning of Town Planning

Although the new tradition-based town planning was quite similar everywhere - e.g. in the USA, the United Kingdom and France - , the new trend most strongly appeared in the state ideological countries where the material support was also the greatest – such as in Italy, Germany and the Soviet Union. In these countries, strong ideologies were crystallised into grandiose and ensemble-like memory carriers in architecture and town planning. Nevertheless the previously mentioned town planning was somehow common in authoritarian and even quite democratic countries. Even more, strictly organised, axial town planning, well known since Roman times via renaissance and classicism in the 20th century is rather functional in order to organise a town gridline, which is supposed to make state more effective and enterprising.

Lorenzo Bernini`s colonnade and Via Concillazione (Vatican, 17th cent - early 1930s) (Details of Italy, 2013)

The National Mall. James McMillan plan. (Washington D.C., 1902) (Wikipedia, 2013)

Similarly to totalitarian Italy and Germany, Soviet Stalinist town planning seems anachronistic but paradoxically embodies harmony, effectiveness, and functionality. Both Nazi German and Soviet Stalinist architecture and town planning are rather similar with the differences existing mostly in details and sources (Kruft 1994, p. 423).

An even stronger example can be found in Mussolini's Italy where a new stately ideological term novecento was derived from renaissance cultural terms quattrocento and cinquecento (Frampton 1989, p. 217). In Italy one may recognize building and planning patterns overtaken from the Roman Empire, renaissance, and classicism but in more flattered, distilled way, yet still containing the essence of the source and contemporaneous modernism (Kostof 1995, p. 718).

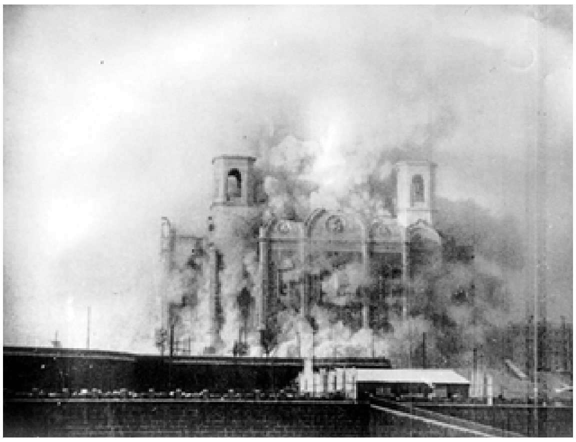
Giuseppe Terragni. Casa del Fascio. Como, 1932-36 (Internet Commentator. Observations from Ireland, 2013)

Albert Speer. Zeppelin field. Nuremburg, 1937, „cathedral of light" (Wikimedia, 2013)

For example in Nazi Germany architect Albert Speer designed the Nuremburg Zeppelin field to be as a play set for ideological films and to exist for a thousand years,. In order to reflect power of the ideology the complex was supposed to be seem bigger in darkness while its lights were directed into the sky to create a "cathedral of light" (Curtis 1996, p. 355) The recorded, crystallised information (materialised ideology) was communicated out of produced space, while computed and again communicated into ideology. The closed circle is reminiscence of Plato´s static state model.

On June 15th, 1931 the Communist Party of the Soviet Union's Central Committee's Plenum decided that town planning, including both reconstruction and construction, would be realised under the guidance of the state´s central plan for the national economy. (Bunin 1945, pp. 290, 291)

In January 1932 the Soviet People´s Commissar of Education, Anatoly Lunacharskiy, stated that a task of architecture is to integrate functionality and utility in a harmonized way into an ideological idea (Kossenkova 2009, pp. 19-20). In February 1932 the Soviet Communist Party found a new ideological method – socialist realism. Reflecting merely a bit Renee´ Descartes´s rationalist philosophy of method, the socialist realism was intended to collect the best both from history and contemporary time. The new method, one of the important cornerstones of Soviet ideology, was supposed to lead society into an ideal future. Socialist realism was not intended to give up the cultural heritage, but to recycle, to synthesize it on the behalf of a better tomorrow. Meanwhile socialist realism handled the cultural, architectural heritage as a storeroom where one may whenever take whatever one wants. This method was supposed to „embody an absolute apocalyptical future where the difference between past and future abolishes significance". (Groys 1994a, pp. 641-644, Groys 1994b, p. 859)



Explosion of Moscow Saviour Church, Dec 1931 (Wikipedia, 2013)

Boris Jofan, Boris Gelfreich, Vladimir Schuko. Palace of Soviets. Model. 1931 (Skyscrapercity, 2013)

An indication of the state´s increasing enterprising role was the decision of the Palace of the Soviets Construction Council, made under the guidance of Chairman of the Council of People´s Commissars Vyacheslav Molotov, on February 28th, 1932. According to the Palace of Soviets competition prescriptions all architects were compelled to follow requirements of simplicity, unity and elegance in architecture and to follow the best example of classicist architecture in their creation (Tsapenko 1952, p. 73). The palace was started to construct after the Moscow Saviour Church exploded in December 1931.

Meanwhile the state architect of Germany, Erster Baumeister Paul Ludwig Troost, redesigned Munich's central square Köningsplatz in the early 1930s according to Leo von Klenze´s propylea and Karl Friedrich Schinkel´s classicist principles. The newly designed place royale seemed to fit the Third Reich so that Adolf Hitler characterized the composition as an incarnation of Germanische Tektonik „expressing German nation´s mighty, uncompromising building heritage" that had „blood relationship with Hellenes.". (Troost 1938, pp. 15, 16)

Parallel with the redesigning of Moscow's centre structure the Stately Union Congress of Soviet Architects, held within the period of June 16th – June 26th, 1937, stated in the resolution that the Principle method of Soviet architecture was socialist realism. According to the new method soviet architect was supposed to be able to produce, in the utmost rapid and industrialized way, architecture that was highly qualified both aesthetically and economically. (Tsapenko 1952, pp. 74, 75)

As stated, by the famous Soviet architect Ivan Zholtovskiy, architecture in a city space was supposed to be ensemble-like, where every house had to be ruled by ensemble. That meant a certain hierarchy where every part had to obey the principle of unity. (Zholtovsky, 1940)

That was the way to create a method for creating an artistic image in order to educate and reeducate the masses. That was a synthesis of the arts – the bringing together of different forms of art under one architectural „roof". (Kodres 2008, p. 142)

Both in old Europe and the Soviet Union ordinary people were used to monuments related to fallen monarchies - Renaissance park designs, baroque square arrangements, classicist axes for cities and monumental form models which seemed to embody peace, harmony and well-being. These people, failed to understand modern construction-centred, bare and asymmetric modernist architecture, which inspired horror as to the cultural progress of the mankind, even when this kind of architecture was rapidly "softened", to become functionalism.

Though tradition based architecture, town planning at the beginning was not as industrialised as modernism. It was more understandable, a reminder of the „good old times", and gave an opportunity to pull people in. This interactivity, the method of recycling and synthetizing on the behalf of a better tomorrow, gave the Soviet ideology a possibility to embody itself as exampled in town planningwhich perhaps had the biggest impact on the citizens. (Åman 1992, pp. 53-55) The Soviet ideology used town planning as a recording technology that was supposed to communicate the ideology in order to be processed, computed and spread all over the Earth.

Strict Gridline – Anachronistic Crystallisation or Perspective Functional Need?

Is strictly organised public space as part of town planning merely ideological? Is axial and a strict gridline of town planning totalitarian or just functional? Why did totalitarian systems use strictly organised, axial town planning? Strictly organised, axial town planning seemed to embody peace, harmony and effectiveness as exampled in instance James McMillan plan in Washington D.C., in 1902.

At the same time it seemed to embody an enterprising state which intended to solve all social problems as effectively as possible. For instance in the Soviet Union the main principle of soviet town planning was the Stalinist care for people embodied in Moscow "that by its 800th anniversary got a new architectural appearance: axial town planning, well equipped living quarters, parks, bridges and grandiose administrative buildings completed in accordance with the city reconstruction general plan." (Sovetskaya architektura ...1950, pp. 8, 9). According to Aristotle the less democratic the state is the more effective, e.g. enterprising it seems to be.

Could town planning be a projection of the state? Plato´s pyramid-shaped state model was static depicting an eternally crystallised ideology that in its turn was intended to be circulated within the state. Could town planning be an indicator of social effectiveness? For example according to Aristotle´s dynamic state model the less democratic the state is the more effective, e.g. enterprising it seems to be.

While in Western countries, the replacement of modernism by a new classicist movement meant that democracy had been replaced by totalitarian systems, in the Soviet Union all architectural development took place against the background of a totalitarian system. In town planning totalitarian systems very much favoured stately urban ensembles that enabled the leadership to materialise the state ideology, to orient the crowds as much as possible towards squares that became like theatre stages, and to manipulate the crowds and convince them that the state really was powerful, as well as to let them believe that all this power belonged to the people. Similar to global trends, architecture in the independent Republic of Estonia in the 1930s started to focus on stately urban ensembles as an architectural element enabling the young country to develop its own stately façade. This tendency increased even as Estonia became more authoritarian.

Tallinn Freedom Square, Alar Kotli, Ernst Kesa, 1938 (Hot.ee, 2013)

The Republic of Estonia was interested in the state´s representative façade to be incarnated via town planning and city space. In order to tackle the dream the central city spaces of Tallinn, Tartu, Pärnu and other towns were intended to be redesigned. According to the president Konstantin Päts´s decree of May 27th, 1936 all façades in Tallinn's Freedom Square district could be designed or redesigned only with permission of the president. All buildings near the Freedom Square, on the behalf of its representative appearance, could be demolished on the government's order. (Vabadussõja üleriikliku mälestusmonumendi püstitamise seadus 1936, p. 1028)

Are the stately urban ensembles within town planning merely crystallisations of a ceased ideology? As benchmarking of independent Estonian 1930es town planning shows, with Soviet period Estonian 1940s-1950s practice, Stalinist principles brought by the Soviet occupation (since 1940) where rather similar to local ones differing mainly by quantity and methodology. Paradoxically regardless the war wreckages and terrorism of the occupying Soviet regime Stalinist town planning principles generally matched with Estonian architects´ city visions.

Estonian Soviet period town planning ideas are characterized as megalomaniac. For example during the Tallinn's Freedom Square city space architectural content one of the proposals (Harald Arman, Salme Vahter-Liiver) suggested in doubling the area of the square by demolishing St John´s church and a school building nearby. Though the contenders suggested to remove the church (Bölau 1937, pp. 86–87), the jury, regardless of characterizing the H. Arman´s and S. Vahter-Liiver´s proposal as too enormous, still decided to purchase the project. (ERA 2218.1.223, 34; Vabadusväljak arhitektide kujutuses 1937)

It is paradoxical that the Stalinist stately urban ensembles in Estonia provided an opportunity for architects to carry out some of their own architectural ideas from the period of independence that had remained on paper. \Compared to small independent Estonia, the Soviet Union, which encompassed one-sixth of the whole planet, was a much bigger subsidizer. In the 1940''s private property had been abolished, resulting in complete state ownership of the land. In addition, the war had left huge demolished areas that turned out to be practical playgrounds for architects in Tallinn, Pärnu, Narva and elsewhere in Estonia.

During World War II according to the plenary resolution of the Soviet Architect´s Union of the USSR the soviet architects were supposed to be ready for the gigantic restoration works after the war (Plenum ... 1943). The following instructions given by Council of People´s Commissars of the USSR and the Soviet Communist Party compelled architects to design and restore wrecked towns more grandiose and according to the state ideology (Iz istorii ... 1978, pp. 94–102, 109). The head of the Department of Architecture of the Estonian SSR H. Arman, who was residing in the USSR, started to organise the restoration of Estonian towns already by mid-1944 (Goritsch, 1946).

The head of the Stately Committee of Architecture of the USSR, Arkadi Mordvinov, formulated the principles of the Soviet post-war town planning that were compulsory for all architects (Kossenkova 2009, p. 42). On the one hand, Estonian mid 1940s town planning was quite similar to the pre-war independence period disregarding the rest of the Soviet Union architecture. For example architect Ernst Ederberg tried to restore the old baroque Narva and architect Endel Arman made a restoration project for Pärnu. (ERA R-1992.2.33, 88–92; Ederberg 1948; Volkov 1991: 192; Parek 1971, p. 72)

Both of the towns were in quite satisfied condition after World War II.

On the other hand some architects (Voldemar Meigas, Otto Keppe) proposed to restore Tallinn centre similarly to Stalinist practices such as in Leningrad (St. Petersburg). Architect H. Arman balanced between the two tendencies. Meanwhile the east Estonian industrial towns Sillamäe, Kohtla-Järve, Jõhvi and since late 1940s Narva, were designed under the guidance of Leningrad construction departments.

H. Arman gave local architects rather certain instructions for town planning in the Estonian SSR. The instructions followed the board resolution of the Soviet Architect´s Union of the USSR made on October 24th, 1946 and the plenary resolution of the Soviet Architect´s Union of the USSR made on August 2nd 1947. (Meigas 1948, pp. 5 – 7; Arman 1946, pp. 5,7; Tvorcheskye ... 1948, pp. 49–61; Arman 1948, pp. 10, 11).

St Nicholas Church (14th cent) and old town in Pärnu after WW II (Pärnu Eliisabeti Kogudus, 2013)

Pärnu Central Square with Endla Theatre (1967), Harald Arman, Mart Port, 1952-1954 (Siim Sultson)

Perhaps one of the most enterprising Estonian town planning treatments besides Narva took place in Pärnu during the Stalin era. In 1947 and 1948 E. Arman´s restoration project for Pärnu was accepted by the Department of Architecture of the Estonian SSR (ERA R-1992.2.1, 45-48; ERA R-1992.2.33, 74-84). At the same time the project passed by the suggestion made by the consultant for the Estonian SSR of Soviet Academy of Architecture Igor Fomin to change the project (ERA R-1992.2.33, 139-142). By the end of 1949 and the beginning of 1950 the Department of Architecture of the Estonian SSR merely accepted the consultant´s proposals (ERA R-1992.2.33, 104-126). According to the board resolution of the Soviet Architect´s Union of the USSR made on June 5th, 1952 certain instructions in the field of ensemble-like town planning such as for Moscow, Leningrad, Stalingrad (Volgograd), Kiev, and Minsk were model towns, e.g. set as an example to other towns all over the Soviet Union (Hronika ... 1952, pp. 31–33).

In the summer of1952 H. Arman proposed .with Grigory Schumovskiy and Mart Port, a project for Pärnu. The partly realised town planning project followed I. Fomin´s suggestions. According to the project many quarters of the burnt but still preserved old town were demolished, the St Nicholas Church (14th century)was demolished. The central square from 1930s was abandoned and the town got for its measures an enormous new axial centre instead of demolished quarters of the old town. Meanwhile the importance of Pärnu increased which was caused by replacing traditional counties with Soviet oblasts according to Moscow. (ERA R-1992.2.70, 47; ERA R-1992.2.33, 42–44; Parek 1971, pp. 42,43; Schumovsky, 1953; Härmson 1983, pp. 35–43)

CONCLUSIONS

The Stalinist architectural policy, town planning as doctrine and paradigm, were rather enterprising while framed by resolutions and instructions. Town planning gave to the totalitarian system an opportunity to „correct" the memory, to remove „the wrong" and to replace it with „the right". In order to control the memory anything reincarnating traditions is supposed to be replaced with something else which embodies the new ideology. City space as the quintessence of the town planning, especially concerning the representative city centre and representing architectural system, gives the state perhaps one of the best opportunities to "correct" the memory. At the same time the state seemingly should act in an utmost resolute and enterprising way.

Paradoxically – following the Stalinist architectural doctrine mentioned before ended after J. Stalin´s death (1953) and the November 1955 resolution of the Communist Party of Soviet Union Central Committee which concerned ending the exaggerations in architecture (Ob ustranenii … 1955, pp. 8, 11, 13, 15).

On the one hand after World War II some Estonian towns suffered irrational demolitions (as in Narva, and Pärnu), while on the other hand some got axially arranged representative sometimes enormous, but fairly perspective plans (such as in Tallinn, Pärnu, Sillamäe, and Kohtla-Järve). Even better examples can be found in the east Estonian industrial towns (Sillamäe, Kohtla-Järve, Jõhvi, Narva) which received axially arranged representative, sometimes enormous, but fairly perspective plans.

Stalinist centres of Kohtla-Järve and Sillamäe, early 1950s (Lengorstroyproyekt) (Siim Sultson)

Those town plans, stately urban ensembles, have got even today procession functions. Both the ideology of the ceased state and local visions of ideal cities are recorded in completed town plans which have become memory carriers. Those memory carriers, artefacts which radiate, communicate recorded and processed information, are still waiting to be used in the utmost amount.

What to do with those tradition-based, sometimes enormous, but even nowadays functional town plans? There seem to exist quite effective examples of town plans that are solved with rather enterprising methods in the world and in Estonia. Such town plans are a challenge to be handled by the local authorities, even by the states, today. Those axially arranged representative, sometimes enormous town plans are even today fairly representative of their functionality. Town planning as a memory support seems to be an indicator of social effectiveness. An effective and enterprising state does not tend to be democratic. On the other hand democratic states have always been interested in enterprising town planning.

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PROTOTYPES OF THE SUCCESSFUL ENTREPRENEUR IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

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INTRODUCTION

In recent decades there has been a marked increase in the interest in entrepreneurship as a change facilitator both in advanced and emerging market economies (Bosma et al., 2007). Imperative to the success of entrepreneurs are those characteristics and traits linked to entrepreneurial behaviour. While such characteristics have been identified (Rauch and Frese, 2007), the question remains as to how these characteristics may differ across countries due to such characteristics as population, economic development, economic freedom and cultural dimensions.

This study examines how perceptions of entrepreneurial attributes differ across 27 countries from all over the world. The paper reflects rthe esults of the second stage of the broader international research program "Entrepreneurship Work in Organizations Requiring Leadership Development" (E-WORLD) carried out by the authors. In the first stage, focus groups were used to explore characteristics of successful entrepreneurs in each of the countries in the current study. The results of focus groups were the basis for developing the methodology for the survey that was administered at the second stage of the research project.

The research questions are:

- Which entrepreneurial characteristics and factors are considered more contributing to a person being a successful entrepreneur or inhibiting a person from being a successful entrepreneur in countries of different sizes?
- How conditions for starting a business, economic freedom and intensity of reforms in different countries influence the perceptions of factors that contribute or inhibit successful entrepreneurship?
- Which cultural dimensions predict which factors are considered contributing to a person being a successful entrepreneur?

The paper starts with a theoretical background for this study, followed by the results of an empirical survey in 27 countries. The discussion and conclusions highlight the value of the research for understanding linkages between economic reforms and prototypes of the successful entrepreneur.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Economic Environment and Entrepreneurship

The freedom to act as an entrepreneur is influenced by economic freedom. The Heritage Foundation and the Wall Street Journal measure economic freedom of countries by features of the business environment such as clear property rights, freedom from corruption, limited government spending and intervention to business, business freedom, labour freedom, trade freedom, monetary freedom, investment and financial freedom. This information is compiled in the Economic Freedom Index available at the Heritage Foundation webpage http://www.heritage.org/index/.

Miller et al. (2012, 2) present a trend line which shows that countries with a higher GDP per capita also have higher sums of these economic freedom components. There are, however, some countries, like China, where GDP is above the trend line although the economic freedom rank of China is only 138th of 179 countries monitored by experts compiling the index. Aidis et al. (2012) have studied entrepreneurial initiatives in different countries from 1998 to 2005 and established a positive and significant impact of low corruption on entrepreneurial entry and an individual's decision to become an entrepreneur. It is however also important to understand which features of successful entrepreneurs are perceived to be important in such countries, where bureaucratic procedures complicate the process of starting a new business.

The World Bank annually compiles the Doing Business Index based on data from June of the previous year. This index measures the ease of founding a business and starting its operations. The World Bank also compares countries by the number of institutional and regulatory reforms implemented during the year for improving business environments. The number of reforms also indicates how stable or changed the business environment has been during the year. GEM surveys have during many years proved that the relationship between GDP per capita and intensity of early-stage entrepreneurship is not linear (Xavier et al. , 2013). In countries that have low per capita GDP people often start their own business as they cannot find jobs in established companies. Bosma (2009) points out that high involvement in such economies often reflects dominance of the necessity-driven entrepreneurship. In more advanced innovation-driven economies the share of new entrepreneurs in the population is lower but they are more often driven by new business opportunities that they have discovered or created. The individual-opportunity nexus (Shane, 2003) has been an important aspect of developing the theory of entrepreneurship. In this paper the authors study how perceptions of characteristics differ depending on the business environment and reforms that have changed business institutions.

The Cultural Context of Entrepreneurship

Huisman (1985) found a significant variation in entrepreneurial activity across cultures and noted that cultural values greatly influence entrepreneurial behaviour. Examples of personality dimensions believed to be culturally determined include innovativeness, locus of control, risk-taking and energy level (Thomas and Mueller, 2000).

Culture has been defined as a set of shared values and beliefs as well as expected behaviours (Hofstede, 1980). Hayton et al. (2002) posit that cultural values serve as a filter for the degree to which a society considers certain entrepreneurial behaviours as desirable. According to House and Javidan (2004), there are two distinct kinds of cultural manifestations – values and practices – and nine core cultural dimensions in the GLOBE project: uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, performance orientation and humane orientation.

Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) surveys have demonstrated that role models of successful entrepreneurs are an important driver of new entrepreneurial initiatives (Bosma et al., 2012). GEM (Xavier et al., 2013) analyses societal beliefs related to early-stage entrepreneurship such as whether starting a business is considered a good career choice and if entrepreneurship is associated with high status and positive media attention. There is however a need to study, in addition to general societal beliefs, specific features attributed to successful entrepreneurs in different cultures. Such beliefs can influence the nature of entrepreneurial initiatives but also show the support or rejection of entrepreneurs by other stakeholders in the society.

Western influences have significantly dictated the theoretical development over the last century (Sidani, 2008). The aim of the E-WORLD project is to broaden the existing cross-cultural research on entrepreneurship.

Implicit Leadership Theory and The Entrepreneurship Framework

The theory that guides the advancement of the entrepreneurship framework used in the current study is an assimilation of implicit leadership theory (Lord and Maher, 1991) and value-belief theory of culture (Hofstede, 1980; Triandis, 1995). Implicit leadership theory purports that individuals have implicit beliefs, convictions, and assumptions concerning attributes and behaviours that differentiate leaders from subordinates and effective leaders from non-effective ones. The authors take this same concept and apply it to the entrepreneurship area. In essence, the authors propose that individuals have implicit beliefs about successful entrepreneurs as well. That is, entrepreneurial qualities, characteristics and behaviours are attributed to entrepreneurial individuals and, hence, those same individuals are socially accepted as successful entrepreneurs. These qualities of implicit entrepreneurship theories influence the actions and effectiveness of entrepreneurs and people that can support or inhibit their entrepreneurial initiatives. The Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (Miller et al., 2012; Xavier et al., 2013) has demonstrated that new early-stage entrepreneurs are often inspired by role models represented by earlier entrepreneurs and perceptions concerning both entrepreneurial success factors and the business environment. In this chapter the framework of cultural dimensions in an entrepreneurial context has been applied and linked to the economic indexes, to economic freedom and to reforms that have changed the business environment.

In the entrepreneurial context it is important to understand differences between implicit beliefs of entrepreneurs-practitioners and potential entrepreneurs, including business students. Future development trends of entrepreneurship are influenced by features that are attributed to present successful entrepreneurs by young people that are considering an entrepreneurial career. Therefore, the implicit/attribution entrepreneurship theory is used as the basis for conducting comparative cross-cultural entrepreneurship research. Nations have developed different entrepreneurial prototypes based upon specific cultural factors and dynamics. It is important for entrepreneurs in a given culture to match the prototype of the successful entrepreneur for that culture. The degree to which an individual matches the cultural entrepreneurial prototype may affect the feedback received from others and their motivation to engage in entrepreneurial behaviour. It may also affect the willingness of others to follow or fund them in the new business activity.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology is based on combining qualitative and quantitative research stages. At the first stage of the research, focus groups were conducted in all participating countries. At the start of the focus groups, participants were informed that they were participating in a cross-cultural research project. Participants were also informed that the purpose of the focus group was to understand the characteristics of successful entrepreneurs in different countries. The focus groups consisted of entrepreneurs, employees of entrepreneurial ventures, entrepreneurship support organizations, and students that were involved in entrepreneurship and/or management studies.

Both focus group data and literature review information were subjected to taxonomic analysis (Krueger, 1998) to identify the attributions made about entrepreneurs in each country. Krueger defines taxonomy as a set of categories organized on the basis of relationships. A taxonomy shows the relationships between things that together comprise a cultural domain. This allowed for the identification of similarities and differences in entrepreneurial prototypes across the countries. The focus group results were used for compiling the survey questionnaire in order to use at the second stage a quantified and standardized research approach.

The survey tool included 115 characteristics and behaviours of successful entrepreneurs that were based on prototypes of successful entrepreneurs that reflected the focus group results. The questionnaire development process followed to some degree the procedure conducted by the Project GLOBE researchers (House et al., 2004) in the development of the GLOBE leadership questionnaire. Several characteristics of entrepreneurs that were pointed out in the focus groups were similar to characteristics of leaders used in the GLOBE questionnaire.

First, after studying the input from the focus groups, principal E-WORLD investigators met together to examine the taxonomic analyses and identify the major entrepreneurial characteristics, traits, and behaviours reported in these analyses. Investigators examined individual country taxonomies and listed those factors that appeared most important for comprising the entrepreneurial prototype. All investigators had to agree that the item was important enough to be included in the list based on frequency of usage and importance in the taxonomy. For countries in which language differences were an issue, the questionnaire was translated into the host country language by host country E-WORLD collaborators and back-translated into English by associates of the principal investigators who were fluent in the particular language.

In this current paper results from 6168 respondents from the 27 countries listed in Appendix 1 were analyzed.

The survey instruction gave a definition of each characteristic or behaviour. Respondents were asked to rate each characteristic, trait, and behaviour (questionnaire item) on a 7 point Likert type scale indicating the degree to which they felt the characteristic, trait, or behaviour either impeded or facilitated entrepreneurs in their country. The scale varied between 1 (this behaviour or characteristic greatly inhibits a person from being a successful entrepreneur) and 7 (this behaviour or characteristic contributes greatly to a person being a successful entrepreneur). Demographic data about age, gender, country of birth and residence, education, work and entrepreneurship experience of respondents was also collected.

RESULTS

A principal component analysis and factor analyses with varimax rotation was completed for the 115 items of the survey for all countries (Appendix 2). Items were selected with a factor load in this particular factor above [0.30] and the same load in other factors below [0.30]. The number of factors received was 3. Factors comprise together 38.9% of initial variability.

The first factor could be called ‘innovative opportunity seeker’. It indicates innovative people looking carefully at changes in the economic environment and markets, in order to find opportunities for doing business and unmet needs.

The second factor consists of characteristics inhibiting a person from being a successful entrepreneur and could be called ‘negative behavioural patterns’. This includes arrogance, dishonesty, being a non-delegator and other characteristics.

The third factor includes ‘positive behavioural patterns’ like being compassionate, loyal, self-sacrificial and others.

Comparison According to Size of Population

Based on population the countries were divided into four groups (Table 1). Results indicate that in smaller countries people find entrepreneurs more as innovative opportunity seekers having less negative and less positive behavioural patterns than people in countries with more than 20 million people. According to the Anova-test all three factors are statistically significantly different. The ten most positive and ten most negative features of successful entrepreneurs are in Table 2. People in smaller countries see successful entrepreneurs more as effective negotiators and more innovative people than in bigger countries, where administrative skills are in the third place.

Population in millions	Mean Factor 1	Mean Factor 2	Mean Factor 3	
Less than 5 millions	N = 1107	6.01	3.29	4.48
5-20 millions	N = 1471	6.03	3.17	4.42
20-90 Millions	N = 1940	5.98	3.36	4.68
More than 90 millions	N = 1558	5.73	3.40	4.70
Total		5.93	3.32	4.59

Table 1. The population size and success factors of entrepreneurs.

Less than 20 million (N = 2450)		More than 20 million (N = 3535)	
10 most positive			
Effective negotiator	6.51	Problem solving	6.21
Innovative	6.44	Opportunity awareness	6.19
Understand their business	6.43	Administrately skilled	6.19
Opportunity awareness	6.41	Driven	6.19
Intelligent	6.40	Good judgement	6.17
Adapt to new environments quickly	6.39	Open minded	6.17
Open minded	6.38	Innovative	6.16
Creative	6.35	Constantly learning	6.16
Team builder	6.34	Creative	6.15
Good judgement	6.32	Intelligent	6.14
10 most negative			
Dishonest	1.80	Dishonest	1.93
Subdued	2.27	Cynical	2.62
Cynical	2.27	Nondelegator	2.62
Avoids negatives	2.47	Arrogant	2.75
Arrogant	2.52	Subdued	2.82
Nondelegator	2.61	Avoids negatives	2.83
Loner	2.73	Loner	2.96
Ruthless	2.80	Ruthless	3.23
Indirect	3.09	Cautious	3.63
Domineering	3.37	Micromanager	3.74

Table 2. 10 most positive and 10 most negative features of successful entrepreneurs in countries with different population.

Comparison According to Economic Indicators

Connections with the economic freedom index from Heritage Foundation and the Wall Street Journal in Table 3 indicate that countries with lower economic freedom emphasized behavioural patterns more than countries with higher economic freedom. It was opposite from opportunity seeking. According to the T-test all 3 factors are statistically significantly different in both groups. The importance of administrative skills was higher in countries with lower economic freedom and effective negotiation skills were more important in countries with higher economic freedom (Table 4).

		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Lower Economic freedom	N = 2705	5.91	3.43	4.80
Higher Economic freedom	N = 3107	5.95	3.21	4.38
Total	N = 6076	5.93	3.32	4.59

Table 3. Groups of countries according to the Economic Freedom Index and success factors of entrepreneurs.

Lower Economic freedom (N = 3035)		Higher Economic freedom (N = 3127)	
10 most positive			
Administrately skilled	6.28	Effective negotiator	6.39
Opportunity awareness	6.24	Innovative	6.34
Creative	6.22	Problem solving	6.34
Open minded	6.21	Opportunity awareness	6.33
Innovative	6.21	Understand their business	6.31
Intelligent	6.20	Intelligent	6.30
Team builder	6.19	Open minded	6.30
Good judgement	6.18	Good judgement	6.29
Driven	6.17	Driven	6.27
Constantly learning	6.17	Positive	6.27
10 most negative			
Dishonest	1.91	Dishonest	1.84
Arrogant	2.67	Cynical	2.24
Nondelegator	2.71	Subdued	2.31
Cynical	2.71	Nondelegator	2.53
Avoids negatives	2.81	Avoids negatives	2.56
Subdued	2.87	Arrogant	2.63
Loner	2.89	Loner	2.83
Ruthless	3.07	Ruthless	3.03
Autocratic	3.71	Micromanager	3.10
Cautious	3.81	Domineering	3.35

Table 4. 10 most positive and 10 most negative features of successful entrepreneurs according to Economic freedom index. Note: The Economic Freedom Index from the Heritage Foundation and the Wall Street Journal is taken from https://thf_media.s3.amazonaws.com/index/pdf/2012/Index2012

The World Bank Doing Business 2013 index is calculated on the basis of June 2012 data. According to the index in easiness of founding a business and starting its operations, opportunity seeking and positive behavioural patterns are less important in countries where it is easier to start a business (Table 5). According to the T-test 2 factors, the first and the third, are statistically significantly different. There are no statistically significant differences in negative behavioural patterns. Effective negotiators are considered more successful in countries where it is easier to start a business. Administrative skills are more valuable in countries where it is not so easy to start a business (Table 6).

Rank according to Doing business index		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1	N = 2883	5.91	3.32	4.44
2	N = 3193	5.96	3.31	4.72
Total	N = 6076	5.93	3.32	4.58

Table 5. Groups of countries according to the Doing Business Index and success factors of entrepreneurs.

1 (N = 2896)		2 (N = 3267)	
10 most positive			
Effective negotiator	6.30	Administrately skilled	6.36
Driven	6.29	Opportunity awareness	6.32
Innovative	6.28	Intelligent	6.29
Open minded	6.27	Understand their business	6.28
Opportunity awareness	6.25	Creative	6.28
Problem solving	6.25	Team builder	6.28
Intelligent	6.21	Innovative	6.28
Positive	6.21	Good judgement	6.27
Constantly learning	6.21	Effective negotiator	6.25
Good judgement	6.20	Open minded	6.25
10 most negative			
Dishonest	1.96	Dishonest	1.79
Cynical	2.41	Arrogant	2.49
Nondelegator	2.47	Cynical	2.52
Subdued	2.56	Avoids negatives	2.60
Avoids negatives	2.77	Subdued	2.61
Arrogant	2.83	Nondelegator	2.75
Loner	2.92	Loner	2.81
Ruthless	3.12	Ruthless	2.98
Micromanager	3.32	Domineering	3.52
Cautious	3.35	Indirect	3.73

Tabel 6. 10 most positive and 10 most negative features of successful entrepreneurs according to the Doing Business Index.

The experts at the World Bank evaluated countries according to the number of reforms and divided countries into 4 groups. Countries in group '0' have had the lowest number of reforms and countries in group '3' the highest number of reforms. These groups are taken as the basis of analysis. Results of the analysis indicate that opportunity seeking is more important in countries with more reforms and behaviour gets least attention in countries with the highest number of reforms (Table 7). All 3 factors are statistically significantly different in the four groups according to the Anova-test. Administrative skills are more valuable and autocratic leadership style is considered more negative in countries with more reforms (Table 8). Effective negotiators are considered more successful in countries with no reforms. In countries with only a few reforms entrepreneurs who like stability are seen as less successful than the other groups of countries.

World Pank Doing business index - number of reforms		**Factor 1**	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**
0.00	N = 2010	5.89	3.35	4.66
1.00	N = 675	5.91	3.45	4.29
2.00	N = 2493	5.94	3.32	4.70
3.00	N = 596	6.07	3.00	4.27
Total	N = 5774	5.93	3.32	4.59

Table 7. Number of reforms in country according to the World Bank Doing Business index
http://www.doingbusiness.org/rankings

0 (N = 2136)		**1 (N = 848)**		**2 (N = 2567)**		**3 (N = 608)**	
10 most positive							
Effective negotiator	6.22	Innovative	6.42	Administrately skilled	6.40	Understand their business	6.69
Innovative	6.21	Open minded	6.38	Problem solving	6.30	Problem solving	6.61
Driven	6.21	Opportunity awareness	6.35	Opportunity awareness	6.29	Anticipatory	6.60
Open minded	6.20	Driven	6.35	Good judgement	6.28	Effective negotiator	6.58
Positive	6.20	Creative	6.35	Intelligent	6.26	Intelligent	6.57
Intelligent	6.19	Effective negotiator	6.34	Open minded	6.24	Administrately skilled	6.56
Understand their business	6.19	Adapt to new environments quickly	6.32	Driven	6.24	Opportunity awareness	6.55
Opportunity awareness	6.17	Understand their business	6.29	Constantly learning	6.24	Resistance to stress	6.52
Problem solving	6.17	Strong initiative	6.25	Effective negotiator	6.24	Good judgement	6.50
Adapt to new environments quickly	6.17	Resourceful	6.24	Innovative	6.24	Creative	6.48
10 most negative							
Dishonest	2.07	Dishonest	1.74	Dishonest	1.82	Dishonest	1.61
Cynical	2.59	Nondelegator	2.36	Cynical	2.48	Domineering	1.73
Nondelegator	2.68	Cynical	2.44	Nondelegator	2.52	Subdued	1.81
Subdued	2.75	Avoids negatives	2.46	Avoids negatives	2.54	Avoids negatives	1.83
Arrogant	2.82	Subdued	2.62	Arrogant	2.58	Cynical	2.05
Loner	2.96	Arrogant	2.80	Subdued	2.62	Arrogant	2.13
Ruthless	3.16	Cautious	2.86	Loner	2.82	Indirect	2.51
Avoids negatives	3.18	Ruthless	2.90	Ruthless	3.10	Spontaneous	2.55
Indirect	3.32	Loner	2.92	Cautious	3.65	Loner	2.59
Micromanager	3.50	Likes security/ stability	2.98	Autocratic	3.72	Ruthless	2.68

Table 8. 10 most positive and 10 most negative features of successful entrepreneurs according to the World Bank Doing Business index based on the number of reforms.

In countries with lower GDP per capita, behaviour received more attention and opportunity seeking was evaluated lower than in countries with a higher GDP per capita (Table 9). According to the T-test all 3 factors are statistically significantly different in both groups. Administrative skills are needed in countries with a higher GDP per capita and effective negotiation skills are considered to be a success factor of entrepreneurs in countries with a lower GDP per capita (Table 10).

GDP group		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Lower GDP per capita	N = 2717	5.90	3.42	4.86
Higher GDP per capita	N = 3057	5.97	3.22	4.32
Total	N = 5774	5.93	3.31	4.59

Table 9. GDP per capita and success factors of entrepreneurs.

Lower GDP per capita (N = 3039)		Higher GDP per capita (N = 3123)	
10 most positive			
Administrately skilled	6.29	Effective negotiator	6.41
Opportunity awareness	6.23	Innovative	6.36
Creative	6.20	Problem solving	6.35
Good judgement	6.20	Opportunity awareness	6.34
Innovative	6.20	Open minded	6.32
Open minded	6.19	Understand their business	6.32
Constantly learning	6.19	Intelligent	6.32
Intelligent	6.19	Positive	6.28
Driven	6.19	Good judgement	6.27
Team builder	6.18	Adapt to new environments quickly	6.26

Table 10. 10 most positive features of successful entrepreneurs according to GDP per capita.

Culture and Features of Successful Entrepreneurs

In order to find how culture predicts features of successful entrepreneurs a linear regression analysis stepwise method was used. In the analysis cultural practices and values from the GLOBE study were taken as independent variables and 3 factors from this current study as dependent variables. Appendix 3 indicates which cultural practices and values predict each of the three factors. Cultural values and practices together predict 5.8% from negative behavioural patterns, 7.4% from opportunity seeking and 20.3% from positive behavioural patterns.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

A comparison of the survey results from 27 countries indicates similarities and differences between countries according to characteristics of successful entrepreneurs. In the current study a factor analysis was run to group these characteristics and 3 factors were indicated, two connected with behavioural patterns and one with opportunity seeking skills. Also found were the 10 most positive and 10 most negative features of successful entrepreneurs according to the size of population and economic indicators.

According to the size of population in both groups of countries there are 6 common features among the first 10 success factors: opportunity awareness, innovativeness, open minded, intelligent, creative and good judgement. At the same time people from countries with a population less than 20 million see successful entrepreneurs more as effective negotiators and team builders, who quickly adapt to new environments than people in bigger countries, where administrative skills and constant learning are among the first 10. There is more agreement and only one difference in the list of the 10 most negative features: smaller countries find being indirect as having a negative impact on success and bigger countries find micromanagement negative. According to the results of the factor analysis, in countries with a population less than 20 million, people turn more attention to the activities than the behaviour of entrepreneurs. They see successful entrepreneurs more as innovative opportunity seekers and turn less attention to their behaviour than do people in more populated countries.

Connections with the Economic FreedomIndex of the Heritage Foundation and the Wall Street Journal indicate that countries ranked higher are more focused on opportunity seeking skills and less on behavioural patterns than countries with lower economic freedom. The importance of administrative skills was higher in countries with lower economic freedom and effective negotiation skills were more important in countries with higher economic freedom. The Doing Business 2013 index is calculated on the basis of June 2012 data. According to the World Bank index of easiness of founding a business and starting its operations opportunity seeking and positive behavioural patterns are less important in countries where it is easier to start business. There are no differences in negative behavioural patterns. Effective negotiators are considered more successful in countries where it is easier to start a business. Administrative skills are more valuable in countries where it is not as easy to start business.

According to the intensity of reforms indicated in the World Bank Doing Business index, opportunity seeking is more important in countries with more reforms and behaviour gets at least attention in countries with the highest number of reforms Administrative skills are more valuable and an autocratic leadership style is considered more negative in countries with more reforms. Effective negotiators are considered more successful in countries with no reforms. In countries with only a few reforms entrepreneurs who like stability are seen as less successful than in the other groups of countries.

In countries with a higher GDP per capita opportunity seeking is evaluated higher and behaviour get less attention than in countries with a lower GDP per capita. Administrative skills are needed in countries with higher GDP per capita and effective negotiation skills are considered to be a success factor of entrepreneurs in countries with a lower GDP per capita.

Concerning culture, cultural practices and values according to the Globe study explained a variety of positive behavioural patterns better than negative behavioural patterns and opportunity seeking skills. Cultural practices had a higher predicting power than cultural values. Future orientation practices predicted all three factors, and future orientation values predicted two factors. Assertiveness, performance orientation and institutional collectivism practices predicted two factors and values one factor. It was opposite with uncertainty avoidance, which had also three connections like the previous three dimensions. In-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism and power distance had all two connections. Human orientation practices predicted only opportunity seeking skills.

Limitations of the study are related to some differences in sample sizes. These differences however also reflect the size of population. In surveys, such as E-World, respondents can follow different implicit interpretations of the key terms used. The survey questionnaire included definitions of characteristics that respondents had to assess in order to align their interpretations of the content of these characteristics.

To conclude, the results indicate that there are more similarities in negative features between countries. From positive features the main difference was in evaluating administrative skills and negotiation skills.

These results are important for customizing the process of entrepreneurship education to the perceived training needs in small and large countries and in countries where institutional environment is more or less entrepreneurship-friendly. Entrepreneurship education can indeed change perceptions of participants about success factors but it should not ignore them.

Research on interpretations of success factors of entrepreneurs is important for entrepreneurship education in that it that takes into consideration cultural differences as well as cross-cultural training of entrepreneurial teams. Empirical findings would enable institutions of higher education to develop specific entrepreneurial skills in students desiring to operate business ventures in various countries around the world. Future research will need to investigate how the various entrepreneurial characteristics and traits affect the success of the entrepreneur as measured by defined results criteria.

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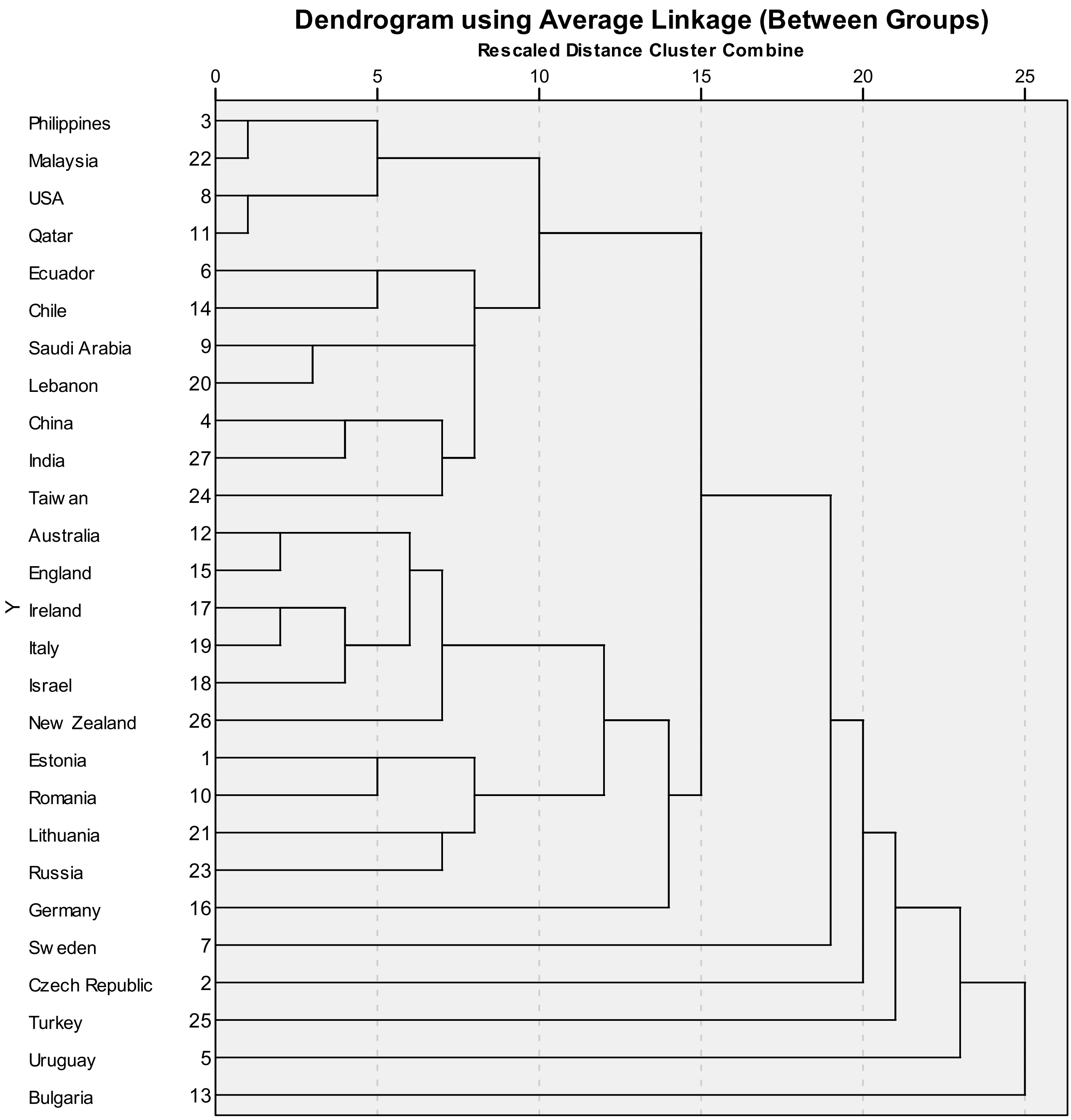

Appendix 1. Countries in the current study

	Component		
	1	2	3
Opportunity awareness	**.772**	-.053	.034
Innovative	**.761**	-.051	.030
Adapt to new environments quickly	**.756**	-.013	.108
Open minded	**.756**	-.083	.076
Good judgement	**.739**	-.123	.119
Effective negotiator	**.736**	-.098	.019
Resourceful	**.730**	-.020	.092
Driven	**.723**	.068	.069
Dynamic	**.723**	-.010	.068
Creative	**.721**	-.078	.080
Constantly learning	**.711**	-.097	.190
Understand their business	**.709**	-.060	.126
Motivator	**.697**	-.057	.098
Can judge and make decisions from the perspective of an opponent	**.685**	.022	.136
Improvement oriented	**.680**	-.116	.174
Problem solving	**.679**	-.057	.139
Personal strength	**.676**	.077	.105
Investigation skills	**.675**	-.028	.197
Strong initiative	**.671**	.037	.011
Intelligent	**.671**	-.087	.122
Team builder	**.668**	-.174	.181
Resistance to stress	**.667**	-.011	.008
Perseverance	**.664**	.051	.157
Flexible	**.648**	-.074	.113
Intuitive	**.646**	.043	.060
Brave in the face of difficulties	**.640**	.063	.168
Prepared	**.639**	-.061	.173
Self-confident	**.639**	.139	.116
Coordinator	**.630**	-.029	.208
Networking	**.628**	-.031	.188
Ability to start with few resources	**.623**	.025	.043
Diplomatic	**.606**	-.162	.201
Enthusiastic	**.591**	-.062	.139
Convincing	**.590**	.111	.056
Positive	**.582**	-.083	.121
Business experience	**.580**	.063	.167
Anticipatory	**.580**	-.063	-.012
Competitive	**.573**	.275	.022
Decisive	**.568**	.069	-.024
Entrepreneurial links	**.565**	.162	.161
Desire to change things	**.563**	.168	.080
Ambitious	**.559**	.147	-.052
Defines clear, concrete, and measurable goals	**.558**	-.047	.200
Informed	**.534**	-.036	.136

Having a different view of the market	**.529**	.129	.173
Dependable	**.508**	-.188	.233
Well connected	**.495**	.210	.096
Never yielding in the face of failure	**.487**	.108	.115
Courageous	**.486**	.146	.228
Political links	**.425**	.267	.070
Tolerance for ambiguity	**.403**	.122	.100
Lucky	**.364**	.268	.089
Independent	**.361**	.195	.036
Willful	**.354**	.274	.020
Unique	**.349**	.193	.220
Arrogant	-.159	**.606**	-.017
Dishonest	-.269	**.601**	-.055
Domineering	.064	**.596**	.019
Ruthless	-.046	**.575**	-.126
Cynical	-.228	**.561**	.118
Stubborn	.138	**.529**	.006
Loner	-.164	**.495**	.201
Autocratic	.042	**.483**	.035
Non-delegator	-.206	**.480**	.232
Wary of people who will copy their idea	.173	**.470**	.195
Dissatisfied with former employment	.098	**.399**	-.019
Masculine characteristics	.287	**.348**	.049
Compassionate	.153	-.074	**.622**
Procedural	.177	.015	**.582**
Indifferent to personal gains	.074	.046	**.573**
Cautious	-.045	.150	**.573**
Loyal	.292	-.119	**.550**
Likes security/stability	.047	.211	**.549**
Sincere	.294	-.146	**.540**
Not profit oriented	.029	.002	**.539**
Class conscious	.124	.266	**.514**
Self-sacrificial	.255	.144	**.401**
Tactful	.275	.053	**.324**

Appendix 2. Rotated Component Matrix

Factor 1	Beta	Factor 2	Beta	Factor 3	Beta
Cultural values - Assertiveness	-.107	Cultural values - Future Orientation	.119	Cultural practices - Gender egalitarianism	-.417
Cultural practices - Performance Orientation	-.210	Cultural practices - Assertiveness	-.136	Cultural practices - Uncertainty Avoidance	-.488
Cultural practices - Institutional collectivism	-.103	Cultural values - Institutional collectivism	-.095	Cultural practices - Future Orientation	.395
Cultural values - Future Orientation	-.156	Cultural values - Performance Orientation	-.162	Cultural practices - Institutional collectivism	.069
Cultural practices - Future Orientation	-.099	Cultural values - In-Group Collectivism	.196	Cultural practices - Assertiveness	.182
Cultural values - Uncertainty Avoidance	-.169	Cultural practices - Future Orientation	.117	Cultural values - Uncertainty Avoidance	.405
Cultural practices - Gender egalitarianism	-.068			Cultural practices - Power Distance	.202
Cultural practices - Humane Orientation	.128			Cultural values - Power Distance	.183
				Cultural practices - Performance Orientation	.072

Appendix 3. Cultural practices and values predicting success factors of entrepreneurs.

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