

EXPLORING THE MULTI-FOCUS INFLUENCE OF
IDENTITY ON STUDENTS' ENTREPRENEURIAL
INTENT

By

MICHELLE BLACK

Bachelor of Science/Hotel, Restaurant and Tourism
Management
University of Technology, Jamaica
St. Andrew, Jamaica
1998

Master of Arts/Hospitality and Tourism Management
University of the West Indies, Mona
St. Andrew, Jamaica
2003

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Dissertation Approved:

Dr. Craig Watters

Dissertation Adviser

Dr. Hailin Qu

Dissertation Chair

Dr. Jerrold Leong

Dr. Lisa Slevitch

Dr. Melanie Page

Outside Committee Member

Dr. Sheryl Tucker

Dean of the Graduate College

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The role of identity in explaining entrepreneurial outcomes is underdeveloped (Sarasvathy, 2008). According to self-categorization theory, self-categories exist at multiple levels of inclusiveness (Brown & Turner, 1981). This is a long standing precept, as researchers have made it clear that identity is multidimensional in nature (Cooley, 1902; James, 1890; Loevinger, 1976; Mead, 1934). According to Mead (1934), each person has “a parliament of selves”(Weick, 1995, p. 18). In spite of its multidimensionality, most entrepreneurial studies have used a singular lens to examine this complex and dynamic construct. Most studies have emphasized a general, global or total identity. The traditional equation being person/self = one identity = one story (Blumenthal, 1999).

However, the notion that identity is unitary is no longer viable. Identity theory (Burke, 1980; McCall & Simmons, 1978; Stryker, 1968) suggests that multiple identities are the natural result of individual’s multiple roles in society. Few theoretical studies have simultaneously considered the tripartite concept of person, role, and social identity. Research in organizational behavior and psychology are just beginning to approach to the notion of multiple identities theoretically (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001; Pratt & Foreman, 2000) and empirically (Johnson, Morgeson, Ilgen, Meyer, & Lloyd, 2006; Moskalenko, McCauley, & Rozin, 2006).

The purpose of this dissertation is to determine whether multiple identities are related to entrepreneurial intentions.

Consistent with identity and intention theory, behavior is viewed as the result of pragmatic and intentional decisions. One of the key functions of identity is to guide individuals' thoughts and behaviors (Goffman, 1959; Mead, 1934; Thoits, 1986). "Who I think I am, shapes what I think; what I think, shapes what I do, and what I do, shapes who I am" (Abrams, Wetherell, Cochrane, Hogg, & Turner, 1990; Oakes, Haslam, & Turner, 1994; Reicher & Hopkins, 2001; Somers, 1994). According to Ramarajan (2009) inherent to the consideration of multiple identities is managing or juggling several identities that influence our thoughts and behaviors.

Individuals can define themselves in three ways by : (a) being a unique person (person identity), (b) their position in a group which has prescribed expectations of appropriate behavior (role identity), or (c) self-meanings attached to a particular group to which an individual belongs (social identity) (Burke & Stets, 2009). According to Ashforth, Harrison, and Corley (2008), individuals define themselves using these three identity categories. Each identity represent a distinct but linked way of thinking and acting, that is an integral part of an individual (Barvosa, 2008). Each identity shapes behavior (Hillman, Nicholson, & Shropshire, 2008). According to (Smith-Lovin, 2003), person, role, and social identities should be studied together as their interplay collectively determines how people think about themselves in situational contexts. There has been theorizing on person and social identities in social psychological literature, but less work has been done on other types of identities (Deaux, Reid, Kim, & Ethier, 1995). Little is known, for example, about how person identity (also called self-identity) relates to role and social identities (Burke & Stets,

2009). Research by Deaux et al. (1995) suggests additional distinctions between identities may be required. Although multiple identities has received little attention in entrepreneurial literature the topic of multi-foci identities has become a hot topic of discussion in other disciplines including sociology and psychology. According to Ashforth, Rogers, and Corley (2011), few empirical studies have used a multifocal lens to study entrepreneurial identity. Our understanding of multiple identities is incomplete and would profit from additional attention. In this study, I attempt to address this shortcoming.

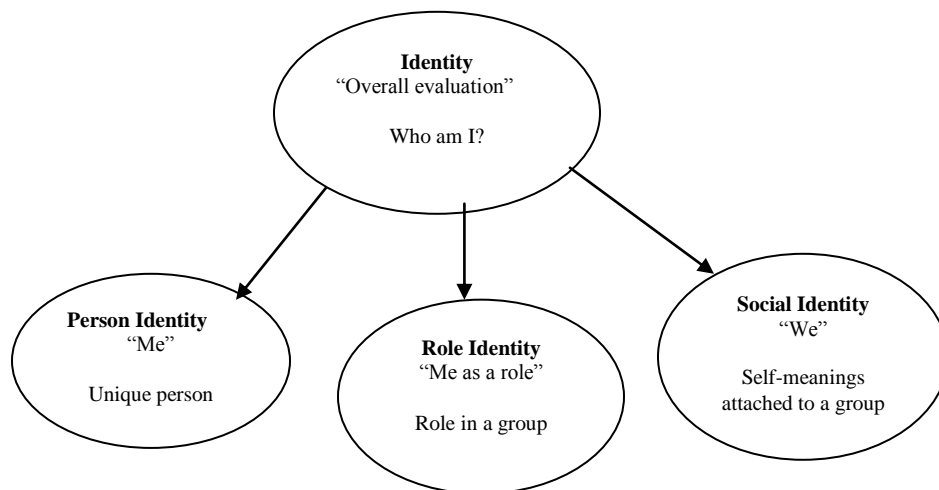


Figure 1. Visual representation of the tripartite model.

This study is rooted in a cross theoretic perspective and uses a symbolic interaction (Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1934) frame of reference. This is an interdisciplinary study combining different fields: entrepreneurship, social psychology and psychology. The study draws upon the multifaceted theoretical lens of identity, self-categorization, social identity and role identity theories to provide a framework to tie these individual concepts together and make richer sense of the identity construct. Further, the study seeks to extend Shapero’s model by incorporating three identity constructs as predictors of entrepreneurial intentions. The study seeks to explore how person, role and social identities are interwoven. The present study uses

the social psychology tripartite model of identity (see Figure 1) proposed by Stets and Burke (2009) to examine entrepreneurial intentions.

Although a tripartite approach to identity has been examined theoretically within the field of social psychology, little empirical work has been undertaken using multiple identity models. Most empirical studies have focuses on the effect of a single identity has on intentions. Past studies have used perceived control, subjective norms and attitudes to mediate the effect of identities on intentions. What is still unknown is; (1) the direct effects these three identities have on entrepreneurial intentions; (2) which identity is a better predictor of entrepreneurial intention and; (3) the nature of the interrelations between these identities. Little is known for example about person identity (also called self-identity) and how it relates to role and social identities (Stets & Burke, 2003; 2009). This study explores three types entrepreneurial identities individuals may possess prior to undertaking entrepreneurship. To bridge the gap in current identity literature this study seeks to directly integrate the three identity constructs in an effort to understand the relationships among the three constructs. This study allows for the advancement of identity theory beyond its current boundaries and establishes richer insights into the interplay among varying dimensions of identity in an entrepreneurial context.

The study seeks to develop theoretical explanations for the entrepreneurial self and the intention to act. The study seeks to explore the various meanings associated with the entrepreneurial self at different levels: person, in a role, and as a group member. Multifocal lens should be applied to identity research since, varied identity constructs are influential and can affect how individuals think, act, and behave. This study highlights the need to further investigate relationships between identity and other important entrepreneurial outcomes.

Purpose of the Study

The intent of the study is to develop and empirically test an expanded entrepreneurial intentions model. The study investigates the relationship between three identity constructs (person, role and social) to determine whether students will become entrepreneurs in the future. The study determines the mediating effect of perceived desirability and feasibility on the influence of three identities on entrepreneurial intentions.

The specific objectives of this study are to:

1. measure the direct effect person, role and social identity constructs have on entrepreneurial intention;
2. determine the direct effect person, role and social identity constructs have on the perceived feasibility of being an entrepreneur;
3. measure the direct effect person, role and social identity constructs have on perceived desirability of being an entrepreneur;
4. to determine whether person, role and social identity are correlated;
5. make recommendations to both entrepreneurship and hospitality educators for entrepreneurship program development.

Significance of the Study

Theoretical Contributions

This research seeks to make five contributions. First, the study deals with an important issue that has been overlooked in entrepreneurship. According to Sarasvathy (2008) the entrepreneurship process starts with identity. There is a paucity of empirical work examining multiple entrepreneurial identities. As Schwartz (2005) suggests, we need to use a multidimensional model of identity, one that incorporates personal and social aspects of the

self. Most theorizing on identities have been done separately, except for person and social identity (social identity theory, self-categorization theory, social identity model of deindividuation effects and optimal distinctiveness theory). Using three identity constructs the study allows for the examination of identity at the group level (intergroup and intragroup relations) and interpersonal level (Burke & Stets, 2009). Burke and Stets (2009) have called for researchers to examine the conditions under which different components of identities are interrelated. Burke and Stets (2009) posit most research has focused on role identity and researchers need to pay more attention to social and person identities.

Second, this study takes a unique approach, it expands the scope in which multiple identities have been examined using three future multiple identities instead of current ones, extending the theory of possible selves. A primary problem with existing literature is that identity lacks adequate theoretical development (M. Rosenberg, 1981). This study combines identity theory, social identity theory, self-categorization theory and possible selves theory which are often thought to as Hogg, Terry, and White (1995) suggest “occupy parallel but separate universes” (p. 255).

Third, the study adds to the literature by examining antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions by developing and testing a more complete model of entrepreneurial intentions. Research indicates there is a relationship between identity and intentions (Biddle, Bank, & Slavings, 1987; Charng, Piliavin, & Callero, 1988; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Sparks & Guthrie, 1998), however, the relationship between multiple identities and intentions has not been examined. The study proposes that perceived desirability and feasibility mediates the effect of entrepreneurial identities on entrepreneurial intentions. Furthermore, it is unclear what mediating effect perceived desirability and perceived feasibility may play on these

relationships. Although not empirically tested, past literature proposes there is a relationship between entrepreneurial identities and entrepreneurial intentions. However, instead of merely investigating direct effects, the study goes further to examine the influence multiple entrepreneurial identities have on entrepreneurial intentions mediated by perceived desirability and feasibility.

Fourth, this study examines multiple identities in the entrepreneurial context contributing to our overall understanding of entrepreneurial identity. Understanding self-definitions is important to our understanding of the entrepreneurial activity (Shaver & Scott, 1991). According to Hytti (2003) in order to become an entrepreneur an individual needs to see that possibility of being an entrepreneurs exists and they have to identify him or herself as a certain type of entrepreneur. Entrepreneurship occurs because of human agency. Without the action of entrepreneurs no new business would ever be founded (Baron, 2007). Entrepreneurship involves a perceptual process that occurs at the individual level. Ultimately studying individuals self-views about entrepreneurship may disclose greater insights on the commencement of the entrepreneurial process.

Fifth, methodologically, this study uses a quantitative approach to test the relationship between the constructs. There has been a lack of empirical testing to validate and strengthen the entrepreneurial identity constructs (Boyle-Heimann, 2002). Krueger (2007) suggests that identity studies use quantitative techniques to predict entrepreneurial intentions. Empirical testing is needed to validate and refine identity constructs (Whetten & Godfrey, 1998). This study provides a unique perspective that has the potential to enrich and extend current theories on entrepreneurial identity and inform educational practices.

Practical Contributions

The practical goal of this exploratory study is to provide entrepreneurship educators, curriculum developers and students with a deeper understanding of students' entrepreneurial identity. These insights on identity provide deeper knowledge of the best way to reach prospective entrepreneurs at the group, and/or interpersonal level. Programs can be designed to modify individual's self-views. Additionally, these findings seek to help entrepreneurial educators craft strategies and learning environments that validate and stimulate students' entrepreneurial identity.

Studies that explore student's identities are significant to educational research and practice since identity development is a fundamental mission for students. Educators will have a better understanding of students' entrepreneurial intentions, as well as a specific understanding of how students' identities influence their intent to start a business. Students will gain a better understanding of their entrepreneurial identities.

Educators and advisors should gain a better general understanding of how students' entrepreneurial intentions are formed, as well as a specific understanding of how students' identities, perceptions of desirability and feasibility merge into the intent to start a business. Results of the study provide practical implications for educators or program administrators to focus their instruction, courses and curriculum in ways that will nurture and encourage students to become entrepreneurs and highlight entrepreneurship as a career option. Findings of the study provide insight into student's entrepreneurial self-definitions, which may present a significant opportunity to expand entrepreneurship-related education beyond business schools. The information derived from this study will be useful to directors of entrepreneurial programs so they can develop approaches that will attract non-business students.

Background of the Study

In the United States, entrepreneurship plays a significant role in the hospitality and tourism industries. Customer oriented firms dominate the global economy. In the United States, the service sector is responsible for 92% of all jobs and 85% of the GDP (Zimmerman, Scarborough, & Wilson, 2005, p. 12). Famous hospitality entrepreneurs like Richard Branson, Charles Forte, Conrad Hilton, Debbie Fields, Walt Disney, Dave Thomas, Howard Shultz, Milton Hershey, Ray Kroc, Ben Cohen and Jerry Greenfield serve as role models and have increased hospitality entrepreneurship awareness in the public mainstream. Small businesses are the core of the hospitality and tourism businesses, representing between 75-95% of all firms globally in this sector (Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009). The number of new hospitality businesses in this industry is on the rise as shown in table 1. According to Leslie Bailey (2005), Division Manager at Concepts Hong Kong, “Entrepreneurs are the life blood of hospitality and leisure industries.” It is important to note that hospitality is perceived as attractive due to: the nature of hospitality businesses, low barriers to entry and exit, low capital investment, small economies of scale, and the perceived opportunity to develop a lifestyle business (Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009).

Table 1 US Accommodation and Food Service Industry Entrepreneurial Performance

| Industry Entrepreneurship Performance | 2010 | 2011 |
|--|-------------|-------------|
| Q2 Startup Firms | 39, 024 | 46, 201 |
| Year-end 2011q2 Startup Firms | | 39,054 |
| Year-end 2011q2 Startup Survivors | | 27,536 |
| Startup Firm failure rate | | 29.49% |
| Industry Start-up Activity | | |
| Industry Startup Firms | | 46, 201 |
| Industry New Branches | | 11, 057 |
| Industry Start-up rate | | 8.34% |
| US all industry start-up rate | | 7.97% |
| Industry start-up index | | 1.05 |

Source: BizMiner, (2011)

Note.

Establishments: Firms plus Branch operations.

Firms: Independent companies.

Small Businesses: In order to focus the analysis on the small businesses of greatest interest to our users, the analysis defines small businesses as single site firms with fewer than 25 employees. All small businesses are also “firms”.

Branches: Subsidiary facilities of firms; non-headquarters operation

Hospitality and tourism entrepreneurship persists as an underdeveloped area for research (Ioannides & Petersen, 2003; L. Li, 2008; Page & Ateljevic, 2009), which is surprising given the economic and social benefits of these businesses to the American economy. Hospitality and entrepreneurship, with a few exemptions remain distinct subjects that have not been addressed in ways that allow for exploration of the synergies between both areas. Hospitality businesses are complex and multifaceted. These businesses differ from other industries based on (a) the individual involved (complex combination of goals, desires for business start-up and the diversity of the owners); (b) the organizations they operate (lifestyle, small business and family business); (c) contextual issues (political, social, economic and technological); (d) the industry issues (knowledge conditions, demand conditions, industry life cycle, appropriability conditions and industry structure) (Shane, 2003). Entrepreneurial activity is conditioned based on the characteristics of the industry and the personal characteristics of the individuals operating these businesses. Therefore, greater understanding is needed on these distinct entrepreneurs.

Limited hospitality entrepreneurship research has focused on the role of the individual in the entrepreneurial process. This is significant since the entrepreneurial process begins with the entrepreneur who perceives an opportunity and then creates a business to pursue it. Recently, hospitality researchers have become more interested in investigating questions relating to entrepreneurial behavior and activities (Bussell & Faulkner, 1999; Chell, 1985; Glancey & Pettigrew, 1997; Jogaratnam, Tse, & Olsen, 1999; C. Williams & Eliza, 1995). Most hospitality entrepreneurial studies have been limited to small and

individual businesses. Whereas studies related to hospitality entrepreneurial identity among hospitality students remain rare.

Organization of the Study

This dissertation proceeds as follows. Chapter one provides an overview of the study, purpose of the study, research objectives, theoretical, practical contributions and the definition of key terms. Chapter two reviews research on identity and the tripartite identity constructs person, role and social identity are explored. Additionally, a general overview of the entrepreneurial identity and entrepreneurial intentions is provided. Chapter two concludes with the development of hypotheses to test the set of relationships. Chapter three outlines the methodological approach to test the hypotheses. Results follow in the methodology section. Finally, a discussion of the results in terms of overall summary, implications, limitations and future research is provided.

Definition of Terms

Definitions used to describe constructs may vary within different disciplines. This study defines the following terms and constructs as follows:

Effectuation. Effectuation processes take a set of means as a given and focus on selecting between possible effects that can be created with that set of means (Sarasvathy, 2001).

Entrepreneurial intentions. Entrepreneurial intentions are an individual's judgment about the likelihood of owning their own business (Crant, 1996).

Entrepreneurship. Entrepreneurship is the process of creating value by bringing together a unique combination of resources to exploit an opportunity (Stevenson & Jarrillo-Mossi, 1993).

Identity. Identity is the subjective concept of oneself as a person (Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Gollidge, & Scabini, 2006, p. 309).

Identity motives. Identity motives are pressures toward certain identity states and away from others (Vignoles et al., 2006, p. 309).

Introspection. The process whereby people look inward and examine their own thoughts, feelings and motives (Kassin, Fein, & Markus, 2010).

Optimal distinctiveness theory. Optimal distinctiveness theory posits that human beings are categorized by two opposing needs that govern the relationship between self-concept and memberships in social groups (Zanna & Olson, 2010).

Perceived feasibility. Perceived feasibility is the degree to which one feels personally capable of starting a business (Shapero, 1975; Shapero & Sokol, 1982).

Person identity. Person identity is defined as an integrated image one has of himself or herself as a unique person (Bernstein, Roy, Srull, & Wikens, 1994).

Prototypes. A fuzzy set of attributes (attitudes, feelings and behaviors) that capture the similarities among group members and differences between members of one group and members of another group (K. Williams, Forgas, Von Hippel, & Zadro, 2005).

Role. A position in a social structure (Ashforth, 2001).

Role identity. Role identity is the self-view or meaning attributed to oneself in relation to a specific role (Burke & Tully, 1977).

Saliency. The readiness to act out an identity (Stryker & Serpe, 1994).

Self. Self is a process by means of which the organism derives and constructs self-products which taken together, represent the organisms interpretation and meaning of itself (Horrocks & Jackson, 1971).

Self-awareness. Self-awareness refers to the act of thinking about ourselves (Reed, Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 2010).

Self-categorization theory. Self-categorization theory proposes there is not just one self or self-concept, but many different groups, and personal selves corresponding to different comparative contexts. The theory conceptualizes the self at different levels of abstraction (human, social, person etc.) (J. Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987).

Self-concept. Self-concept is the sum total of an individual's beliefs about his or her own personal attributes (Kassin et al., 2010).

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is an individual's belief regarding their personal capabilities, and how these beliefs affect what individuals are seeking to undertake, how they undertake it and how they respond to impediments and successes along the way (Maddux & Gosselin, 2003, p. 218).

Self-monitoring. The tendency to monitor and regulate behavior to meet the demands in social situations (Kassin et al., 2010).

Self-regulation. Self-regulation refers to the self's capacity to alter its behaviors (Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007).

Self-representation. Self-representation is defined as the individual's mental representation of his own person (Spiro, 1993).

Self-schemas. Cognitive generalizations about the self, derived from past experience that organize and guide of new self-relevant information (Markus, 1977).

Self-verification. The process of seeking out and interpreting situations so as to confirm one's self-concept (Franzoi, 2002).

Self-worth. Self-worth may be defined as how we feel or value ourselves (Huitt, 2009).

Sense making. Sense making is the mental process of making meaning by turning circumstances into a situation that is comprehended explicitly in words and that serves as a springboard into action (Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005).

Social identity theory. A social identity is a part of the self-concept corresponding to the knowledge of the group membership together with the value and the emotional significance of that membership (Tajfel, 1978). The theory posits an inter-personal-intergroup continuum to address the salience of social identity (Schwartz, 2011).

Social identity model of deindividuation effects (SIDE). A model of group behavior that explains deindividuation effects as the result of a shift from person identity to social identity (Kassin et al., 2010).

Uniqueness theory. Uniqueness theory proposes that the degree of an individuals' similarity to others is encoded at different levels of acceptability with moderate similarity being the

most acceptable and very high or very low the least acceptable outcomes (C. Snyder & Fromkin, 1977).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

“An identity has the properties of an onion; it is multilayered representing layers of ourselves. It is central to an organization and if removed can bring one to tears”

Whetten, 1997 Talk Academy of Management meeting (Weick, 1995, p. 11)

Today entrepreneurship is growing and is viewed as being a viable employment option in a time of economic instability. Entrepreneurship is deemed as being desirable since it creates jobs, drives innovation, aids new industries and stimulates economic growth. Despite the numerous advantages associated with engaging in entrepreneurship, little is known about whether the average person sees themselves as an entrepreneur in the future. In the past, few researchers have examined the influence identity has on the intent to start a new business. More research emphasis needs to be placed on prospective entrepreneurs.

Gaining a deeper understanding of human perceptions is significant in understanding entrepreneurial activity (Shaver & Scott, 1991). There may be great value in understanding how novices think (Krueger, 2007). This allows for deeper comprehension of how prospective entrepreneurs think in the process of venture creation. Morris, Kuratko, Schindehutte, and Spivack (2012) argue that “the mind analyzes the gap between what is, what was and what could be” (p. 29).

An individual does not start the entrepreneurial process as an entrepreneur but rather becomes one during the process. Further theorizing needs to be conducted on the experience of becoming an entrepreneur (Hoang & Gimeno, 2005). Entrepreneurial identities are structures of meanings relating to the self. When entrepreneurial identities are being developed an entrepreneurial mindset emerges. This entrepreneurial mindset is a way of thinking and acting about a business that captures the benefits of uncertainty (McGrath & MacMillan, 2000). As Shaver and Scott (1991) assert, if we wish to understand entrepreneurs we need to carefully examine how they see themselves. Understanding the perceptions underlying entrepreneurial activity provides deeper perspectives on ways entrepreneurship can be nurtured (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994; Norris, 2000; Shepherd & Krueger, 2002).

Entrepreneurial Intentions

According to Thompson (2009) intent may be defined as “a conscious and planned determination that drives actions necessary to launch a business” (p. 671). It is the cognitive state immediately preceding action (Krueger, 2005). Intent is often considered the best single predictor of behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Intentionality is an important variable in understanding the formation of new business ventures (Bird, 1988). To study new ventures we need to understand the process that leads to their initiation (Krueger & Day, 2009). Studying entrepreneurial intentions is important in understanding the entrepreneurial process since intentions may be considered the first step in the long-term process of business founding (Lee & Wong, 2004).

Intentions depend on perceptions. Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) assert that these perceptions are learned. Research has revealed that these perceptions can explain up to

50% of the variance in intentions (M. Kim & Hunter, 1993). Past studies have found that personal and situational factors indirectly affect perceptions. Several intention models have been developed, as shown in table 2. These competing intention models have used different types of perceptions to predict intentions. The development of these models linking intentions and future behavior has been a process of refining variables by adding or deleting a few constructs. These models have several comparable or identical variables. Dominant models of intentions include: Fishbein's behavioral-intention model (Fishbein, 1967) , The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) and Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behavior (Ajzen, 1985, 1991). Research has offered strong statistical support for these models (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Conner & Armitage, 1998; Hagger, Chatzisarantis, & Biddle, 2002; Sheeran, 2002).

Over the years entrepreneurship scholars have become more interested in studying entrepreneurial intentions and several models of entrepreneurial intent have been developed (Ajzen, 1991; Autio, Keeley, Klofsten, & Ulfstedt, 1997; Bird, 1988; Shapero, 1975). Shapero and Sokol (1982), model of entrepreneurial events is an extension of the TPB model. Shapero's model (1975; 1982) unlike the theory of planned behavior, takes into consideration precipitating factors that can moderate intent and behavior. Previous research suggests that certain exogenous variables can serve to trigger or precipitate the realization of intentions into action (Baden-Fuller & Stopford, 1994; Kruegel & Brazeal, 1994; Shapero, 1975; Shapero & Sokol, 1982). Bird (1988) proposed that an individual's entrepreneurial intent is derived from a combination of personal and contextual factors. These personal factors include prior experience as an entrepreneur, personality

characteristics and abilities. Contextual factors include social, political and economic factors. Table 2 provides a comparison of the dominant intention models. Table 2 reveals there are similarities among the various intention models. All of the models are comparable in that they all focus on the pre-entrepreneurial event and include an attitude and control component. Several models incorporate exogenous factors, environmental factors and volitional elements indicating that these factors are important and should be considered in examining entrepreneurial attitudes and intentions (Peterman & Kennedy, 2003).

Table 2 Comparison of dominant entrepreneurial intention models

| Name of intention model | Comparison of the three main mediating variables found in intention models | | | Other variables included in model |
|--|--|------------------|------------------------------|--|
| | Desirability | Social norms | Feasibility | |
| Fishbein's Behavioral Intention Model (Fishbein, 1967) | Attitude | n/a | n/a | |
| Theory of Reasoned Action (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) | Attitude | Social norms | n/a | |
| Entrepreneurial Event Model (Shapero, 1975; Shapero & Sokol, 1982) | Perceived Desirability | | Perceived Feasibility | Propensity to Act Precipitating factors Social Support Breadth and Positiveness of Past Entrepreneurial Experience |
| Contexts of Intentionality (Bird, 1988) | | | | Social, Political & Economic Context Personal History, Current Personality & Abilities Rational analytical cause-effect and Intuitive holistic contextual thinking styles |
| Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1985, 1991) | Attitude towards the act | Subjective norms | Perceived Behavioral Control | |

Table 2 Comparison of dominant entrepreneurial intention models (continued)

| Name of intention model | Comparison of the three main mediating variables found in intention models | | | Other variables included in model |
|--|--|------------------------|--|--|
| | Desirability | Social norms | Feasibility | |
| Revised Contexts of Intentionality (N. Boyd & Vozikis, 1994) | | | Self-Efficacy | Rational Analytical thinking Intuitive holistic thinking Social, Political & Economic Context Personal history, Personality & Abilities |
| Entrepreneurial Potential Model (EMP) (Krueger & Brazeal, 1994) | Perceived Desirability (including social norms) | | Perceived Feasibility/ Self-Efficacy | Credibility Potential Propensity to Act Precipitating Event |
| Davidsson's Model of Determinants of Entrepreneurial Intentions (Davidsson, 1995) | General Attitudes Entrepreneurial Domain Attitude | n/a | Entrepreneurial Convictions | Personal Background Situational Factors |
| Revised Davidsson's Model of Derminants of Entrepreneurial Intentions (Autio et al., 1997) | General Attitude | | Entrepreneurial Convictions | Personal Background Social Context Image of Entrepreneurship |
| Cognitive Model of Entrepreneurial Intentions Model (Krueger, 2009) | Personal Desirability Perceived Desirability | Perceived Social Norms | Perceived Feasibility Perceived Self-efficacy Perceived Collective Self-Efficacy | Propensity to act Exogenous factors (personal and situational) Perception of Opportunity |
| Context-Specific Entrepreneurial Intentions mode (Elfving, Brännback, & Carsrud, 2009) | Perceived entrepreneurial desirability | | Perceived entrepreneurial feasibility Self-Efficacy | Motivation Superordinate goal Triggering event Entrepreneurial goal Opportunity evaluation |

Source: (Guerrero, Rialp, & Urbano, 2008; Krueger, 2009; Meeks, 2004)

Shapero's Model of Entrepreneurial Event

Shapero and Sokol (1982) developed an intention model designed specifically for the entrepreneurship domain as shown in figure 2. The model proposes that an entrepreneurial event takes place causing a disruption, circumstances or initiating events that get the entrepreneurial process underway. These forces may be social, cultural or individual and are based on an individual's perception. The disruption may be positive (financial support) or negative (lay-off, death of a family member, job loss, job dissatisfaction, etc.). According to motivation theory, negative displacements push an individual to self-employment, whereas positive displacement pulls someone into entrepreneurship (Gartner, Bird, & Starr, 1992).

Entrepreneurial intent depends on perceptions that an opportunity is desirable and feasible and having the propensity to take action. The decision to become an entrepreneur will depend on whether the activity is viewed as being credible. Credibility requires the activity to be viewed as being both feasible and desirable and the individual having some propensity to act. Shapero and Sokol (1982) suggest that past exposure to entrepreneurship and past positive experiences influence desirability and feasibility.

According to Gannon (2011), entrepreneurial push and pull factors depend on the individual's self-definitions. Gannon (2011) believes that unmet identity needs elicit entrepreneurial activity. However, past studies that used Shapero's event model have not used identity as a trigger of entrepreneurial desirability and feasibility. According to Gannon (2011), when one evaluates desirability and feasibility, what they are really doing is answering identity questions. These two constructs seek to answer: Is this really

something I want to do? (Does it fit who I am?) and can I do it? (Do I have the knowledge and skills?).

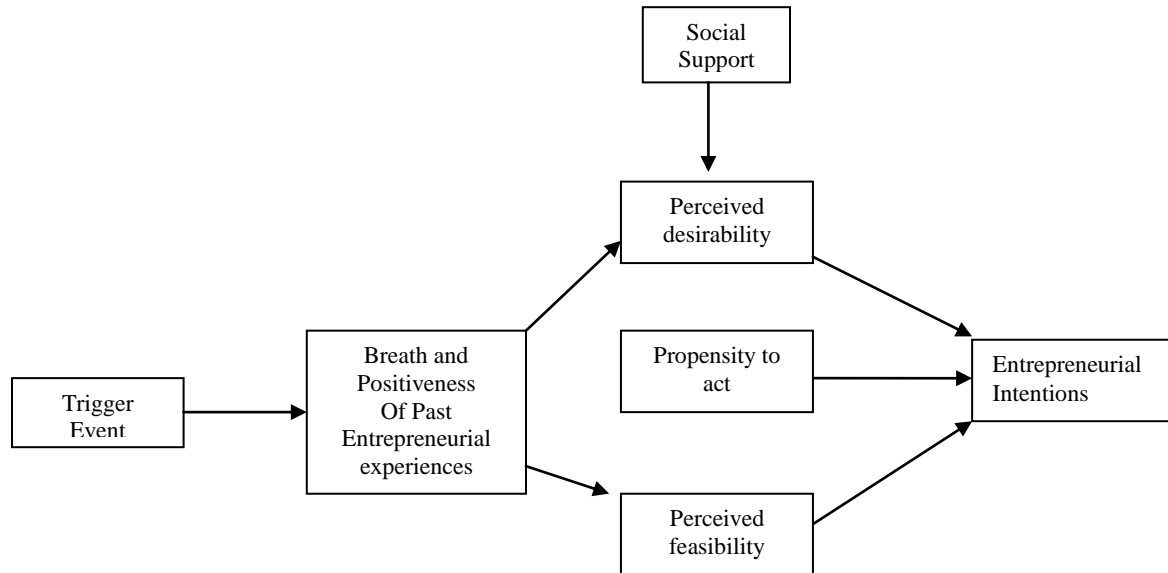


Figure 2 Shapero's model of entrepreneurial event (SEE).

Breadth and Positiveness of Past Entrepreneurial Experiences

The breadth and positiveness of past experiences indirectly influences entrepreneurial intent. Breadth relates to the amount of past entrepreneurial experience which a person has been exposed to. Positiveness relates to whether the experience was positive or negative.

Social Support

Social support relates to the perception of support available from people (family and friends) who are important to the person forming the intention. These people can influence the individual's intent and motivation to start a business. This is a similar construct to subjective norm in the TPB model (Ajzen, 1991).

Triggering Event

Entrepreneurial activity is often triggered by an event. Important life events such as job loss and migration, can trigger increases in entrepreneurial activity (Krueger, Reilly, & Carsrud, 2000). This can be positive or negative and can influence entrepreneurial intent.

Perceived Desirability

Shapero (1975; 1982) defined perceived desirability as the extent to which one finds the prospect of founding a business attractive. This is based on two factors the perception that entrepreneurship is personally and socially desirable. The more desirable entrepreneurship appears, the stronger and more likely the intention to engage in entrepreneurship (Meeks, 2004). Shapero (1975; 1982) proposes that social influence from family, peers, colleagues and mentors influence new venture formation (Bird & Jelinek, 1988; Shapero & Sokol, 1982).

Perceived Feasibility

Perceived feasibility is the extent to which one believes that he or she is capable of performing entrepreneurial tasks (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993). Perceived feasibility corresponds to behavioral control in the TPB model (Krueger, 1993). This is closely related to the self-efficacy construct (Ajzen, 1991). In some studies self-efficacy has been used as a proxy for perceived feasibility.

Propensity to Act

The propensity to act is an individual's ability and readiness to take action. Propensity to act is believed to have a moderating effect on intention. The higher one's propensity to act, the more apt the individual is to act on an intention. The propensity to

act is what differentiates the Shapero Events Model from the Theory of Planned Behavior model.

Identity

An identity is a cognitive schema (Stryker, Owens, & White, 2000) and is a subjective claim about who one is (Ashmore, Deaux, & McLaughlin-Volpe, 2004). It relates to meanings one attaches to the self (Burke, 1980). We all identify as (Pratt, 1998) states “identification is a process inherent to social animals” (p.171). The term identity refers to an individual’s self-views and the thoughts and feelings they have about the self, (Swann & Bosson, 2008). Identities should not be confused or used interchangeably with self-concept. Identities emerge from the dynamic cognitive process of choosing meaning components of various self-concepts from several self-meanings (Horrocks & Jackson, 1971). Several terms have been used synonymously with identity including self-representation, and self.

An individual is always in the process of becoming because there is no final identity. Identities are continuously developing and changing. There is always an element of incompleteness and artificiality, unlike Erikson (1994) belief that identity is fixed at the end of adolescence. Identity is a fundamental root construct (Albert, Ashforth, & Dutton, 2000) of growing importance; everyone has a sense of who they are. Gioia (1998) stated: “It should come as no surprise to find that the concept of identity, which is so germane to conceiving what it means to be human, also is central to the conceptualization of one of the most complex and fascinating human creations the work organization” (p. 17). Individuals seek to gain a sense of who they as a means to survive in a social world. Identity is a core sense of who we are and individuals

cannot proceed without that kind of fundamental understanding (Ashforth, 1998).

Identities allow for greater understanding of social perceptions, cultural interpretations and personal behaviors. Basically our identities allow us to see the world and explore the myriad of ways we define ourselves in everyday life.

Identities are not created in isolation but are continuously impacted by the interaction with others. Identities are also molded by one's other identities. Identity involves a continuous process of interaction and reflections (Foss, 2004). Therefore, identities serve as a form of self-regulation. Individuals are continuously regulating their behavior to ensure it accurately reflects "Who am I?" As McCall and Simmons (1978) state, "as a creature of ideals, man's main concern is to maintain a tentative hold on these idealized conceptions of himself to legitimate his role identities" (p. 69). This is supported by Murnieks (2007) study which found that many entrepreneurs behave the way they do because they feel the need to confirm a sense of self. Individuals want to align themselves with how they perceive themselves and based on feedback they receive. These individuals will continuously regulate their behavior until their behavior matches what they perceive to be their desired identity standard or the group (significant others, peers and mentors etc.) identity standard. Identities are also important in sense making. The establishment and maintenance of identity is a core preoccupation in sense making. This can yield new insights into how entrepreneurs view their world and translate this into successful or unsuccessful new ventures. Identities may assist researchers in gaining a deeper understanding of how entrepreneurs think and reason. Earlier entrepreneurial research focused on trait-research and now the focus is shifting to identities.

Studying various identities is essential because different identities work together in different ways; identities depend on the context and relationships with other identities. One of the major problems in understanding identities relates to the failure to adequately specify its complex meaning. In some cases, self and identity have been used synonymously and similar identity constructs have been used to mean different things. There has also been a failure to acknowledge overlaps in various conceptualizations of identity (Owens, 2003). Identification is a complex and dynamic process (Ashforth, 1998). Identity describes both a state and a process that is continuously building, it does not terminate when the individual identifies with an entity. Neither is identity static; it changes in different situations and across time. Our identities change and are dynamic because individuals are constantly seeking ways of belonging and discovering who they are.

Identities are formed through a number of processes that take place internally and externally (Jarvis & Parker, 2005). Identities are socially constructed (Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2009) and are influenced by social institutions, family and the media (Browne, 2008). An individual's identity is largely influenced by how individuals see themselves based on others perception. An individual's identity is influenced by how others define and categorize them (Josselson & Harway, 2012). One's identity is also influenced by the way others treat them (Cook, 2001). Identities may be influenced by changing times, social relations or social structures. Societal norms and historical moments are known to influence how individuals view their identity (Phinney, 2000). Individuals tend to identify with identities which carry certain social meanings and expectations (Jacobson, 1979).

Most studies on identity have focused on current identities and not how individuals think about themselves in the future or “who I will be.” This underexplored area is called possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and relates to representations of the self in the future. This examines our ideal self - the person we hope to become, fantasize to become and the selves we are afraid to become. Identities are symbolic exemplifications selected by individuals to express who the person is and who they want to become. Individuals can have many possible selves at the individual, role and social level. Possible identities are derived from the social, cultural, historical context, models, images, symbols in the media and the individual’s social experiences. Past selves from childhood may also define an individual in the future. These possible selves represent aspired selves (Cross & Markus, 1994). According to Farmer, Yao, and Kung-Mcintyre (2011), individuals begin to envision themselves as being an entrepreneur by asking themselves “do I want to be an entrepreneur?”. Then they start to examine individuals who are labeled as entrepreneurship exemplars who serve as role models of the behavior. The individual then experiments by comparing and contrasting themselves with these exemplars to see if this persona would be feasible. This study examines student’s person role and social possible selves. It is important to study possible selves because they serve as incentives of future behavior (Markus & Nurius, 1986).

Entrepreneurial Identity

Entrepreneurial identities are cognitive schemas of interpretations and behavioral descriptions that allow individuals to understand what it means to be an entrepreneur (Hoang & Gimeno, 2010; Patzelt & Shepherd, 2009). Entrepreneurial identities are related to the meanings associated starting a new businesses (Cardon, Sudek, &

Mittiness, 2009). These identities are tied directly to the experiences of venture creation. Individuals may ascribe a specific behavioral expectations related to identifying, exploiting and evaluating opportunities (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000, p. 218). An entrepreneurial identity is formed when an individual internalizes the external meanings connected with being an entrepreneur and uses these meanings to define themselves. The individual then proceeds to call themselves an entrepreneur (Murnieks, Mosakowski, & Cardon, 2012). This is a continuous process of reconstruction through interaction. These identities arise from society. People learn what it means to be an entrepreneur by seeing how society construes the meanings associated with this identity. (Hoang & Gimeno, 2005) conceptualize identity as a structure of meanings related to the self that changes over time and over successive roles. A business may be viewed as tangible representation of an entrepreneur's identity – a shrine to their enterprising nature. According to Wansell (1988), these businesses are shaped in the image of the founder.

Vesalainen and Pihkala (1999) view entrepreneurial identity as a person's proclivity to adopt a certain occupational entrepreneurial character, which is latent and becomes more transparent as the person becomes older and more experienced in different occupational circumstances. Down and Reveley (2004) studied how entrepreneurial identity is shaped by generational encounters in a two year ethnographic study. The study revealed that entrepreneurial identities were established through face to face interaction on the job. The entrepreneurs used the encounters with older managers to define themselves as being entrepreneurs by setting themselves against the older generation and developing a sense of affiliation with the younger generation.

Identities are tied directly to experiences of venture creation (Morris & Morris, 2012). According to Gannon (2011), entrepreneurial identities are embedded in the venture creation process. People engage in entrepreneurship to fulfill needs beyond financial needs; they do so to fulfill identity needs. Cardon, Sudek, et al. (2009) suggest that an entrepreneur is a person that assumes an entrepreneurial persona because it is meaningful to their overall identity. Entrepreneurship involves the incessant process of thoughts and feelings molded into reality conception, action and value creation. Sarasvathy (2008) views entrepreneurship as an important instrument in creating human meaning. According to Sarasvathy (2008) “entrepreneurship occurs in the ongoing theater of ordinary life... in the course of being born growing through childhood to adulthood, and seeking to construct ones identity meaning and purpose in the world, some human beings become entrepreneurs” (p. 143).

Sarasvathy (2008) experimental study of 27 expert entrepreneurs revealed that entrepreneurs decision making uses an effectual approach which starts with identity and the individual questioning themselves - who am I? (Sarasvathy, 2008). This is based on the bird in hand principle and starts with means rather than ends as shown in figure 3. Entrepreneurs do not wait for the perfect opportunity but start taking action based on three means they have readily available: (a) Who they are (identity), (b) What they know (education, skills, competencies, experiences and expertise), and (c) Whom they know (social networks) (Read, Sarasvathy, Dew, Wiltbank, & Ohlsson, 2011; Sarasvathy, 2008). All three form a pool of resources that are available to all human beings. Prospective entrepreneurs begin the process by envisioning several courses of action and their consequences (Read et al., 2011).

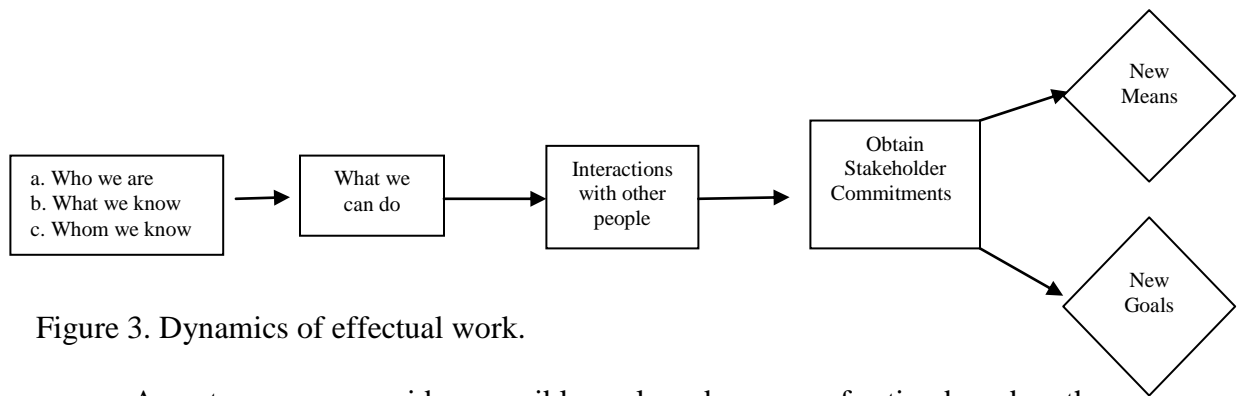


Figure 3. Dynamics of effectual work.

An entrepreneur considers possible goals and courses of action based on these means even though their consequences may be uncertain. Sarasvathy (2008) found that identity to be an important concept. Sarasvathy (2008) states “entrepreneurs often explain their actions in terms of something fundamental about who they are...sometimes identities have to do with being an entrepreneur” (p. 78). As the entrepreneur starts a business and gains experience their means will change and grow. The skills, entrepreneurial competencies, experiences and identities develop through business nascence. During this process the entrepreneur gathers new knowledge producing a deeper understanding of both their entrepreneurial self and the venture. This is an incessant process in which entrepreneur is incessantly reconstructed through venture an entrepreneurship-venture interaction. This is in keeping with structuration theory (Sarason, Dean, & Dillard, 2006). Morris and Morris (2012) assert that an individual often does not start as an entrepreneur but becomes one. An individual is engaged in a continuous process of transferring meaning to events and experiences that happen as a business idea is being conceptualized and implemented. New meanings are often derived

about the value that can be created, what a product can represent, company values (Morris et al., 2012) my self- views as an entrepreneur, seeing myself as part of the entrepreneurial group or community. When an entrepreneurial identity is being formed and unconsciously modified an entrepreneurial mindset develops.

Within the venture context business skills, entrepreneurial competencies, entrepreneurial mindset and entrepreneurial identity are continuously being developed based on the individual, environment and the activities they are involved in the venture development (Morris & Morris, 2012). Entrepreneurs work hard to build a strong identity and entrench it in assortment of routines, decision processes, recruitment procedures and strategic choices that pervade the business they create (Sarasvathy, 2008, p. 80). Identity questions need answers (Sarasvathy, 2008). Salient questions include: given who I am, whom I know want to be, what kind of entrepreneur can I become (Sarasvathy, 2008, p. 61) and what types of effects can I create? (Sarasvathy, 2003).

There are many common stereotypical images of entrepreneurs in the media which influence public perceptions of entrepreneurs. American film, literature and advertisements say it's acceptable to be different (H. Kim & Markus, 1999). Images are also related to masculinity, power, status and wealth. Quite often the hero portrayed is eccentric, maverick, nonconformist or outsider. In western societies members strive to free themselves from groups and actively pursue individual goals and careers. They create a world that reflects their personal self. An entrepreneur is typically viewed as being white, male hero, self-made, lone crusader; under 40, graduates or postgraduates with family business experience, who is a rule breaker, daring, decisive, ambitious and has the will to conquer" (Ahl, 2006; Jayawarna, Rouse, & Kitching, 2011). These

identities are often reinforced by the iconologies of entrepreneurship (R. Smith, 2006)..

Identities are related to images as shown in table 3. Images and stereotypes are social constructions and represent reality (R. Smith, 2006). R. Smith and Anderson (2003) propose that entrepreneurs have a range of identities than conform to social expectations and that entrepreneurs are conforming non-conformists. R. Smith and Anderson (2003) suggest these images serve as visual metaphors as shown in Table. 3.

Table 3 Image of Entrepreneurs - Conformists, Non Conformists and Criminal Identities

| Types | Sub-types | Stereotypical Elements |
|---|---|--|
| Conformist Look Conservative cloned look | Corporate Executive Corporate Tycoon Stockbroker Business Look | Expensive suits conservative colors, overcoats, monogrammed silk shirts, matching ties, cigars, gold pens, one ring, mobile phones, attaché cases, laptop computers, top of the line cars cultured and accents Similar but with more initiative, independence, eccentricity, marques cars, country style looks like a country squire and mixed accents More regimented look, pin stripes, white shirts and red braces. Imitation of above but on a budget. |
| Non-conformist Individualism, casual and non-flamboyant | Maverick Tycoon Flash entrepreneur Eccentric Look Yuppie Look Barrow Boy Look Sloane Ranger The “Bad Boy Look” Punk Entrepreneur | Opposite of the corporate tycoon looks varying from eccentric to a weaker version of the executive look, Expensive blazers with jeans, casual open necked shirts, expensive shoes , no socks, facial fair, goatees, ponytails and long hair, lots of jewelry and marque cars. Open necked shirts worn with designer suits and jewelry on display. Lower range BMW or Mercedes The eccentric entrepreneur does not conform to expected imagery Khakis and polo shirts. expensive watches, outfits in neutral colors like grey, beige and olive, neat straight hair, sweater. Middle class slant Posh sweaters, ballet slippers, designer denim, pearl studs, pashmina, mulberry purse, designer boots, le scarf, baggy cardigan, penny loafers Mildly non-conformist -the “del boy”, the working class, floral dress, entrepreneur with flash and is crude. Flat caps, sheepskin jackets, rings and jewelry. On the edge of criminality Deliberate constructed hedonistic “play boy artifices” Sharp clothes and artifacts. Behaves with grandeur, panache and individuality, flashes the cash , beer bellies, working class banter, Armani suits, drinking Bollinger, out with mistresses, drinking Bollinger champagne, Rolex watches, Saville row suits, Radical entrepreneurship, different, challenging elitists representing the working class, graffiti, artworks, tattoos, skulls, boots and guns |
| Criminal Look Flamboyant and stereotypical | The Spiv Mafioso-entrepreneur Business gangster look Ordinary Criminal look | Entrepreneurs as shady characters. Arthur Daley-businessman looks associated with criminality. Petty criminal, deals in stolen or black market goods, especially a slickly-dressed man offering goods at bargain prices Open necked shirts, expensive shirts, leather jackets, cigars and sunglasses with an entourage Project the image of a business man with subtle signs of criminal tendencies mannerisms, flash jewelry entourage Jeans, boots, black leather jackets, jewelry. Silent and non-smiling |

Source: Dodd (2012); R. Smith and Anderson (2003); (R. Smith, 2010)

Entrepreneurship is ideologically skewed towards a masculine ideology (R. Smith, 2010). Female entrepreneurs are often characterized as being maternal, caregiving, nurturing, struggling to balance work and family responsibilities. They are often considered to be less successful and innovative than men (DeTienne & Chandler, 2007). R. Smith (2009) proposes that a diva identity is more suitable to depict female entrepreneurs. Orser, Elliott, and Leck (2011) study on feminist entrepreneurial identity found that women respondents do not use the above mentioned stereotypical gender attributes to describe themselves. Women were more likely to use narratives that relate to an action-orientation, creative thinking, problem solving and social contribution. Women entrepreneurs are independent, autonomous, self-confident and comfortable with risk. Essers and Benschop (2007) biographical narrative study on identity construction of female minority entrepreneurs of Moroccan or Turkish origin in Netherlands revealed the complexity of professional women's identities with the combination of ethnicity, gender and entrepreneurship. Being female, Turkish or Moroccan, and entrepreneur at the same time made these women develop approaches to negotiate identities with different groups in order to be accepted as an entrepreneur.

Identity is an emerging research topic in entrepreneurship. There are four dimensions of entrepreneurial identity (Hoang & Gimeno, 2005) as shown in table 4. A multi-focus approach to identity posits that potential interrelationships between these four dimensions exist and that these four dimensions interact as individuals experience the venture and engage in social interactions enhancing their overall entrepreneurial identity.

Table 4 Four dimensions of entrepreneurship identity

| Identity Dimension | | Definition |
|--------------------|---------------------|--|
| 1. | Identity Attributes | Personal characteristics and traits – perseverance, autonomy, innovation, autonomy and risk-taking |
| 2 | Identity Content | Set of activities or tasks associated with an entrepreneurship– opportunity identification, opportunity exploitation, venture creation, organization building, business and founding |
| 3 | Role Regard | Positive or negative assessments about entrepreneurship– public (perception of others regard) and private (self-regard) regard of entrepreneurship |
| 4 | Identity Centrality | The importance of an entrepreneurial identity on an individuals an individual’s self-concept |

An entrepreneurial self can be built around a number of elements as shown in table 5. A person has a number of identities; an entrepreneurial identity may just be a component of an overall identity. As table 5 highlights, entrepreneurial identities are complex and may take more than one theoretical approach to fully understand an individual (Rautio & Saastamoinen, 2006). People have self-identities, social identities, organizational identities, corporate identities and national identities. Several identities have been broken down into smaller dimensions. Most researchers have examined gender and ethnicity/race. Several studies have examined a combination of several identity issues. Most of the identity concepts that have been combined relate to institutionalized identities. Institutionalized identities are identities which are stable and not subject to constant change such as gender, ethnicity and religion. Few studies have been conducted on the multiple levels relevant for viewing the self (Burke & Stets, 2009).

Few studies have empirically tested multiple identities at the individual and organizational level simultaneously. Most identity studies have been qualitative or theoretical. Few entrepreneurial identity scales exist and most scales have been borrowed from other disciplines. Limited research has been conducted on entrepreneurial identity and political affiliation, class, culture, sexual orientation and culture.

Table 5 Review of Past Studies relating to Entrepreneurial Identity

| Identity group | Authors |
|----------------|--|
| Gender | <p>Women – (Morris, Miyasaki, Watters, & Coombes, 2006);(Bjursell & Bäckvall, 2011); (Essers & Benschop, 2007); (Nadin, 2007); (Eddleston & Powell, 2008); (Hanson & Blake, 2009); (Machado, 2002); (Lewis, 2009); (MacNabb, McCoy, Weinreich, & Northover, 1993); (Ahl, 2002); (Orser et al., 2011); (Leung, 2011); (García & Welter, 2011); (Humbert, Drew, & Kelan, 2010); (Orser & Leck, 2010); (Kanitkar & Contractor, 1992); (Kinyanjui, 2008); (R. Smith, 2009); (Gill & Ganesh, 2007);</p> <p>Men – (R. Smith, 2010); (Whitehead, Peterson, & Kaljee, 1994); (Martin, Schofield, Millman, & Valassis, 2011); (Takeyama, 2010)</p> |
| Multiple | <p>Ethnic White Women (Gill & Gandris, 2007); Classical, Farmer, Intrapreneur and Custopreneur (Visala & Pikala, 2007); Micro Identities (Shepherd & Haynie, 2007); Identity and Discourse Identity (Wilson, Marlino & Kickul , 2004); Self, Organizational, and Enterprising Selves (Bourguignon, Saulpic & Zarlowski, 2009); Ethnic and Clan Identity (Heberer, 2008); Ethnic and National Identity (Pecound, 2004) Collective Self Definitions, Ethnic Identity, liner, Expressive and Criminal entrepreneurs (Fernandez-Kelly & Konczal , 2011) Organizational Identity, Utilitarian and Normative identity (Moss Short & Lumpkin, 2010) Ethnicity, Gender, and Religion (Essers & Benschop, 2009) Religion, Gender and Place (Gill, 2011); Social, Organizational and Corporate Identity (Cornelissen, Haslam & Balmer, (2007)</p> |
| Identity Bases | <p>Self-Identity (Mills & Pawson, 2011); (Down, 2006); (Down & Warren, 2008);(Shepherd & Haynie, 2009a); (Storey, Salaman, & Platman, 2005); (Mills & Pawson, 2011); (O’Neil & Ucbasaran); (Munari, Oriani, & Sobrero, 2010); (Dudley, 2009); (Giacomin, Guyot, Janssen, & Lohest, 2007); (Cardon, 2008)</p> <p>Role Identity (Jain, George, & Maltarich, 2009); (Krueger, 2007); (Barnett, Eddleston, & Kellermanns, 2009); (Cardon, Sudek, et al., 2009);(Cardon, Wincent, SINGH, & Drnovsek, 2009); (Hoang & Gimeno, 2010); (Farmer et al., 2011); (Yao, Farmer, & Kung-McIntyre, 2007); (Murnieks, 2007); (Murnieks et al., 2012)</p> <p>Social Identity (Reicher, Hopkins, Levine, & Rath, 2005); (D. Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2011); (Iyer, 1993); (Hewapathirana, 2011); (Hewapathirana & Fernando); (Fauchart & Gruber, 2011); (Franke, Gruber, Harhoff, & Henkel, 2005); (Stanworth & Curran, 1976); (Ruef, 2010); (Yao et al., 2007); (Obschonka, Goethner, Silbereisen, & Cantner, 2012); (Salk & Shenkar, 2001)</p> |

Table 4 Review of Past Studies relating to Entrepreneurial Identity (continued)

| Identity group | Authors |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Artistic | (Fachin, 2009); |
| Ethnicity/race identity | (Morris & Schindehutte, 2005); (Morris & Schindehutte, 2005); (Gannon, 2011); (Essed, 1994) |
| Potter Identity | (Popp, 2003) |
| General Entrepreneurial Identity | (Klein, 2012); (Navis & Glynn, 2011); (Croidieu & Monin, 2010); (Drori, Honig, & Sheaffer, 2009); (Firth, 2004); (Moore & Robinson, 2006); (Karp, 2006);(Watson, 2008); (H. Vesala & Vesala, 2010); (K. Vesala, Peura, & McElwee, 2007); (Rovinello, 2008); |
| Age Identity | (Down & Reveley, 2004); (Ainsworth & Hardy, 2008); (Kelly, 2006); (F. Wilson, Marlino, & Kickul, 2004); (Wainwright, Kibler, Blackburn, & Kautonen, 2011) |
| Students Identity | (Falck, Heblich, & Luedemann, 2010); (McLeod, 2004); (Spartz, 2010) |
| Class Identity | (Bank, 1991) |
| National Identity | (Reichhard, 2008); (Ozkazanc-Pan, 2009) |
| Ecopreneur Identity | (Schauch, 2009) |
| Sexual Orientation | (Schindehutte, Morris, & Allen, 2005); (Galloway, 2011) |
| Disabled Identity | (Kasperova, 2011) |
| Cultural Identity | (Chan, 1997); (Martinez & Dorfman, 1998) |
| Migrant Identity | (Harney, 2006); (Harney, 2012); (Ndofor & Priem, 2011); (Fernández-Kelly & Konczal, 2005); (Kupferberg, 2003); (Lazaridis, 2003) |
| Sociocultural Identity | (Rangel-Ortiz, 2008) |
| Diasporic Identity | (Schulte, 2008) |
| Place Identity | (Hallak, Brown, & Lindsay, 2011);(Larson & Pearson, 2012) |
| Occupational Identity | (Cohen & Musson, 2000); (Haugen & Vik, 2008); (Larson & Pearson, 2012) |
| Professional Identity | Hytti ,(2005); (Doolin, 2002) |
| Social Entrepreneur Identity | Jones, (2006); (Simms & Robinson, 2005); (T. Miller & Wesley II, 2010); (B. Smith, Knapp, Barr, Stevens, & Cannatelli, 2010); (Parkinson & Howorth, 2008); (Parkinson, 2005) |
| Informal Sector Entrepreneur | (K. Snyder, 2004); (Vijverberg, 1990); (Webb, Tihanyi, Ireland, & Sirmon, 2009) |
| Bohemian Entrepreneur | (Eikhof & Haunschild, 2006) |
| Visual Identity | (Veltsos, 2009) |
| Corporate Identity | Steiner, (2003); (Abimbola & Vallaster, 2007); (Balmer & Greyser, 2002) |
| Hybrid Identity | (Boers & Nordqvist, 2011) |
| Dual Identity | (Moss, Short, Payne, & Lumpkin, 2011) |

Table 4 Review of Past Studies relating to Entrepreneurial Identity (Continued)

| Identity group | Authors |
|-------------------------------|---|
| Organizational Identity | (Abimbola & Vallaster, 2007); (Audretsch & Monsen, 2008); (Zellweger, Nason, Nordqvist, & Brush, 2010); (T. Miller & Wesley II, 2010); (Brickson, 2007); (Grimes, 2010); (Pitt, 2004); (Zachary, McKenny, Short, Davis, & Wu, 2011); (Kjærsgaard, Morsing, & Ravasi, 2011); (Lok, 2010) |
| Collective Identity | (Misangyi, Weaver, & Elms, 2008); (Webb et al., 2009); (Wry, Lounsbury, & Glynn, 2011); (Lounsbury, 1998); (Lezama & Del Valle, 2007); (Hjorth & Johannisson, 2003) |
| Clan identity | (Leong, 2011; Peng, 2004) |
| Family identity | (D. Miller & Le Breton-Miller, 2011); (Zellweger, Eddleston, & Kellermanns, 2010); (Sundaramurthy & Kreiner, 2008; Zellweger, Nason, et al., 2010); (Shepherd & Haynie, 2009b); (Reay, 2009); (Nikodemaska-Wolowik, 2006); |
| Tourism Entrepreneur Identity | (Roessingh & Duijnhoven, 2005); (Y. Li & Xu, 2009) |
| Board of Directors Identities | (Hillman et al., 2008) |

Multiple Levels of Identity

The call for a multiple focus approach to identities has been made by numerous researchers in sociology, cultural anthropology, psychology and philosophy (Deaux, 1996; Feldman, 1979; Gergen, 1991; Hermans & Kempen, 1993; S. Rosenberg, 1997; Thoits, 1983). The idea that identity is multi-faceted has appeared in the writings of many leading thinkers, including: William James, Sigmund Freud, Friedrich Nietzsche, Max Horkheimer, Immanuel Kant and Theodor Adorno (Barvosa, 2008). The idea that the identity is stable, fixed, unitary has been replaced by the idea that identity is multiple, decentered, fluid and fragmented as shown in table 6.

Table 6 Review of multiple identities in past literature

| Identity Concept | Author |
|-------------------------|--|
| Intersectionality | Crenshaw (1989) |
| Identity Fusion | (Zaal, Salah, & Fine, 2007) |
| Dueling identities | (Zhang, George, & Chan, 2006) |
| Identity interference | (Settles, 2004; Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981) |
| Nested identities | (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001; Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dukerich, Golden, & Jacobson, 1996; Feldman, 1979) |
| Faceted identities | (D. Boyd, 2002; Farnham & Churchill, 2010) |
| Protean self | (Lifton, 1999) |
| Fragmented self | (Emmons, 1992) |
| Multiphrenic self | (Firat & Shultz II, 1997; Gergen, 1992) |
| Malleable self | (Aaker, 1991; Heine et al., 2001; Markus & Kunda, 1986) |
| Hybrid identity | (Albert & Adams, 2002; Foreman & Whetten, 2002) |
| Compartmentalized self | (Downie, Mageau, Koestner, & Liodden, 2006) |
| Distributed self | (L. Turner, 2008) |
| Divided self | (Bigler, Neimeyer, & Brown, 2001; Blumenthal, 1999; Donahue, Robins, Roberts, & John, 1993) |
| Shifting self | (Mandel, 2003) |
| Plural self | (Rowan & Cooper, 1999; L. Turner, 2008) |
| Competing identities | (Oommen, 1997) |
| Bicultural identity | (Chen, Benet-Martínez, & Harris Bond, 2008; Mok & Morris, 2010) |
| Dual identity | (Bosniak, 1988; González & Brown, 2006; Moss et al., 2011) |
| Saturated self | (Gergen, 1992, p. 69) |

A mosaic of identities constitutes our sense of self (Stryker, 1980). Empirical research suggests that an individual holds about five to seven important identities (Roccas & Brewer, 2002). Organizational identity research has revealed that more than one identity can be simultaneously activated (Ashforth et al., 2008; Blader, 2007; Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martinez, 2000; Roccas & Brewer, 2002). Nielsen and Lassen (2011) found in their narrative identity study that identities are multiple and not coherent; when individuals are faced with creating something new with old practices multiple identities may be generated. The tendency to study an overall identity has left important questions unanswered. As we interact with others we collect identities (Blumenthal, 1999). Multiple identities are derived from multiple group membership (Barvosa, 2008) Multiple identities may coexist and may be triggered at different times and in different

contexts (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Multiple identities are often created through reflection, communication, negotiation and intersubjective interaction (Laakkonen, 2012).

Studying multiple identities provides understanding of the complex and unique nature of each level of analysis. This study examines three different levels of the self. Levels of the self that relate to how the individual conceives his or her identity (Ashforth et al., 2011) from individual to group. Numerous identity typologies have evolved in literature over the years as shown in table 7. Each typology reflects unique criteria that have been used to differentiate between groups of identities.

Table 7 Review of identity typologies

| Identity typology | Author |
|--|--|
| Material, social and spiritual self | (James, 1890) |
| Social and cultural self | (Baldwin, 1897, 1973) |
| Extended Self- individual, family, community group | (Solomon, 2006) |
| Ego, personal and social identity | (Goffman, 1963) |
| Ego, personal and social/cultural identity | (Erikson, 1980) |
| Social, personal and individual organisms | (Berger & Luckmann, 1966) |
| Private and public self | (Carver & Scheier, 1981) |
| Individual, group & organizational identities | (Klein, Dansereau, & Hall, 1994; Rousseau, 1985) |
| Public, private and collective self | (Breckler & Greenwald, 1986) |
| Collective self and personal self | (Luhtanen & Crocker, 1992; Trafimow, Triandis, & Goto, 1991) |
| Personal, social and symbolic | (Kashima, Foddy, & Platow, 2002) |
| Organizational, professional, social and individual | (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003) |
| Personal, relational and collective identity | (Bagozzi, Bergami, Marzocchi, & Morandin, 2012; Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Brickson, 2000; Cooper & Thatcher, 2010; Gannon, 2011) |
| Person based identity, relational social identity, group based social identity and collective identity | (Brewer & Roccas, 2001) |
| Human and social identities | (Sarbin, 2000) |

Although there is recent and mounting evidence that a multidimensional measurement of identity is appropriate and useful there has not been any consensus on the nature and preferred number of dimensions.

This dissertation uses person, role and social identity (Burke & Stets, 2009). Previous researchers have examined person, role and social identities based on their differentiation (Brewer & Gardner, 1996) being complementary (2003) and their similarities. According to Markus and Kunda (1986), multiple selves are the basis of an individual's identity and act as incentives for behavior. The potential exists to combine the three components (person, role and social), since all three have been linked intentions in the past (Biddle et al., 1987; Charng et al., 1988; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Sparks & Guthrie, 1998). Numerous researchers in the field of social psychology have called for multiple identity investigations to be conducted (Stets & Burke, 2003; 2009; Sedikes & Brewer, 2001). This research seeks to empirically test the influence these three identity constructs have on entrepreneurial intentions.

Identity is a dynamic construct; people develop multiple entrepreneurial identities as part of the venture experience. An entrepreneur may be viewed as having a fragmented self with overlapping, nested identities rather than an integrated one (Flax, 1990). An entrepreneurial self-concept is comprised of several different types of identities, one of which is an entrepreneurial identity (Sommer & Haug, 2008). According to Down and Warren (2008) entrepreneurial identity is multilayered and relational. They suggest that an entrepreneurial identity is developed in an effort to create self and organizational legitimacy in the initial stages of the business start-up. For many different entrepreneurial opportunities people can draw from many different identities giving individuals multiple

evolving means at their disposal. According to Shepherd and Haynie (2009a), entrepreneurs have a superordinate identity which represents the multiple identities an entrepreneur possesses. Some of these identities are based on the need for distinctiveness, and others are based on a need for belonging. Prospective entrepreneurs seek to manage and manipulate perceptions to realize anticipated results. Hytti (2003) suggests that entrepreneurs make sense of entrepreneurship by incorporating it in their lives and with other identities.

Person Identity

Person identity is the set of meanings that define a person as being a distinct and unique from other persons (Stets & Burke, 1994). Person identity burgeoned in philosophy based on the work of John Locke and David Hume (Perry, 1975), in psychology by William James (James, 1890) and 1940's in sociology. Person identity relates to the qualities and characteristics individuals internalize as their own that are not shared with others. This includes qualities of the physical self, psychological attributes, traits, talents, dispositions, abilities, and interests (Stroh, Northcraft, & Neale, 2002). These characteristics may include how creative, persistent, resourceful, optimistic or versatile an individual is or what an individual values. Person identities operate across various roles and situations and are always on display (Stets & Biga, 2003); people do not "put off or take on" these characteristics like role identities (Burke & Stets, 2009). Unlike social identity which categorizes, an individual in terms of broad social categories, person identity is a set of categories that define the individual in a unique way.

This need for uniqueness is grounded in Fromkin (1970, p. 521) uniqueness theory which maintains that everyone has the fundamental need for a separate personal

identity within the interpersonal domain. Choi (1999, p. 20) suggests entrepreneurs have different perspectives; they “may see something of significance where conventionalists see none, or recognize the possibility of new combinations that the majority with their conventional blinders neglect.” According to uniqueness theory Choi (1999) individuals have a need to be moderately dissimilar to others (C. Snyder & Fromkin, 1980) in an effort to individuate themselves. This creates the most acceptable state and intrinsic satisfaction when people consider themselves as different from others.

Person identity relates to differentiation and unique identifiers. Based on McCall and Simmons (1978) definition, person identity refers to an individual being unique. Person identities are the personality characteristics and behaviors that differentiate one individual from another within a particular context (Brewer, 1991). According to Tian, Bearden, and Hunter (2001, p. 50) “being outside of the norm may serve as recognizable symbols of uniqueness and specialness” According to Lynn and Snyder (2002) an individual’s need for uniqueness stems from three issues: (a) People are different from each other and tend to see themselves as such. Individuals vary and have characteristics that are very different others, (b) some environments encourage uniqueness and place strong emphasis on freedom and independence, and (c) Individuals need for moderate levels of self-distinctiveness to balance the need for social approval and uniqueness. This is reinforced by values of the Western societies that encourage people to “think differently.” Entrepreneurial activity is irretrievably embedded in social and cultural norms and values. In America, there are often messages that people should not conform to but chart their own course and march to the beat of a different drummer (H. Kim & Markus, 1999).

There is a notion that entrepreneurs are distinct and possess a unique orientation. An individual's identity reflects difference, this is in keeping with the idea of entrepreneur as a unique individual (Anderson & Warren, 2011). Identifying as an entrepreneur may satisfy an individual's belief that they are distinct (Patzelt & Shepherd, 2009). Thus an identity may be viewed as a process of distinguishing oneself from others (Kepner, 1991). An entrepreneur strives to be distinct in their thoughts and actions because ventures need to be unique and distinct from competitors (Shepherd & Haynie, 2009a). Some individuals may become entrepreneurs to verify that they are a unique entity in their community, industry and society. Patzelt and Shepherd (2009) found there is a dark-side to entrepreneurship and that in satisfying the need for distinctiveness is done at the expense of the entrepreneurs sense belonging and their psychological wellbeing. There are important entrepreneurial characteristics these include being an innovator, risk bearer, and action oriented. Peripheral qualities would include being organizing, facilitating and communicating (Shepherd & Haynie, 2009a).

Role Identity

Role identity is the meaning of the self-in-role (Burke, 1980). It is the imaginative view one has of being and acting in a position. It is idealized. A role relates to the selection of patterns of behavior which constitute a meaningful unit. A role is considered appropriate to an individual: occupying a particular status in society (entrepreneur), holding an informal position in interpersonal relations (leader), or who identifies with a certain value in society (an honest man) (Gordon, 1976). The role relates to the behavior, rather than the actual position. Role identity is developed by the individual when occupying a specific position (McCall & Simmons, 1978). Role

enactment allows for the fulfillment several human needs, including belonging, meaning and control (Hall, 2010). Roles can have important influence on our daily life. Role identity is based on the different social structural positions a person holds (Burke & Stets, 2009) such as entrepreneur, spouse or parent. For each role a person assumes there is an identity connected with it.

In taking on a role identity one adopts self-meanings and expectations as they relate to other roles in the group. It also involves behaving in a way that represents and preserves these meanings and expectations (Thoits & Virshup, 1997). The meanings one attaches to a role should be similar to one's behavior. Role identities may have multiple meanings. These meanings are derived from culture, as individuals are socialized into what it means to assume a certain role (Stets, 2006). Roles are enforced through cognitive dissonance in the minds of people around the individual and also in the individual's mind.

Role identities are situation specific and over time are organized into a hierarchy of identities with the most important and prominent role identities, being positioned at the top of the hierarchy (McCall & Simmons, 1966; Stryker, 1968). Lobel (1991) suggests that the more one identifies with a role, the more involved they will become. This was a finding in Nielsen and Lassen (2011) narrative study on student identity construction. One student Mads, stated, "It's like when you are walking around thinking about becoming an entrepreneur and also trying to become one, it gets harder to think of becoming something else. It's like entrepreneurship becomes you" (p. 385)

Individuals can have more than one role identity as shown in table 8. Individuals play many different roles in different contexts. Roles may vary and compete, so it is

important to know which role identities people value most and which they are more likely to perform. Murnieks (2007) study on the entrepreneurial role identity revealed that non entrepreneurs tend to differentiate entrepreneurial managerial roles related to risk taking, innovation and unpredictability. The entrepreneurial role was viewed as being one in which an unpredictable innovative individual charges forward and is undaunted by risk and uncertainty. All of the entrepreneurs indicated that they possessed an entrepreneurial identity distinct and separate from all other identities. Most of these entrepreneurs indicated that they possessed on average eight identities. Eighty percent of the sample of entrepreneurs ranked an entrepreneurial identity in the top three most important identities

Table 8 Types of entrepreneurial roles

| | Types of Roles | Definition |
|------------------------|-----------------------|--|
| Economic | Founder | Establishing a venture for commercialization and exploiting opportunities |
| | Inventor | Identifying and exploiting new opportunities |
| | Developer | Nurturing, growing and expanding the venture |
| Growth oriented | Familial | Family nurturer. Creating entrepreneurial ventures that provide family members with a stable income, long term security, and control of the firm. A 'conservation' strategy that may limit performance. |
| | Hobbyist/Lifestyle | Establishing a venture founded on a hobby or passion, may not be a full time role, a conservative approach with less commitment and risk |
| Social | Missionary | Establishing firms that are agents of change new forms help in political pursuits |
| | Communitarian | Engaging in entrepreneurship which serves as a catalyst for contributing to their community. Contributing to society through innovative products and value the support gained from fellow community members. |
| | Environmentalist | Business created to radically transform the economic sector in which he or she operates |

Source: (Cardon, Wincent, et al., 2009);(Fauchart & Gruber, 2011); (Schaper, 2010); (D. Miller, Le Breton-Miller, & Lester, 2011)

Cardon, Wincent, et al. (2009) propose three types of role identities that are relevant for entrepreneurship: inventor, founder and developer identity. These three

identities are based on a set of entrepreneurial activities developed by Gartner, Starr, and Bhat (1999). The three role identities relate to opportunity recognition (inventor role); venture creation (founder role) and venture growth (developer role). (Cardon, Sudek, et al., 2009) propose that the entrepreneurial role identity endorsed will depend on whether individuals hold these roles as being meaningful and salient. During an entrepreneur's lifetime this salience may change and other entrepreneurial identities may become more salient. Whereas, some entrepreneurs may be passionate about all three of these identities others may endorse only one as being important.

Fauchart and Gruber (2011) identified three social identities exhibited by entrepreneurs- darwanian, communitarian and missionary. An entrepreneur with a Darwanian identity focuses on making profits and accumulating wealth. Whereas, an entrepreneur with a Communitarian identity seeks to contribute to society through their innovative products. Communitarians entrepreneurs value the support gained from fellow community members. An entrepreneur with a missionary identity views the business as a powerful agent of change and this firm is used to pursue a political vision or advance a cause. Fauchart and Gruber (2011) believe these three identities explain why founders with varied identities make different decisions in their firm creation. In the study, these entrepreneurs acted in ways consistent with their proposed identities and this was imprinted in their business decisions.

Family business owners have familial identities and family nurturing roles derived from interactions with their family (D. Miller et al., 2011). This is based on the familial logic of nurturing, generativity and loyalty to the family (Friedland & Alford, 1991). These entrepreneurs' family priorities influence business strategy. Some individuals view

their role as entrepreneur as a sideline, auxiliary activity or avocation (Koster, Markantoni, & Strijker, 2010). These entrepreneurs are often described as hobbyist entrepreneurs who tend to start a venture based on a hobby or passion.

Hoang and Gimeno (2010) stated that founder role identity was an important yet under examined source of dynamism during the firm founding process. Their study revealed that different identity configurations may explain an organizations performance during the early years of a venture's life cycle suggesting that founders with a central entrepreneurial identity may be more committed to their role and are more persistent. Committed founders with high identity centrality with more diverse and distinct representations of the entrepreneurial roles may be better able to develop an understanding of the context in which the business operates and are able to structure supporting roles as the venture grows. Jain et al. (2009) investigated identity modification in university scientists involved in commercialized activity by interviewing 20 scientists at a Midwest research university. The study found that scientists usually adopt a hybrid role identity that includes a central academic self and a commercial persona. Self-assessment plays an important in early business founding (Hoang & Gimeno, 2010). Founding requires individuals to transition to the new role of founder and abandon their old roles. Role identity helps explain successful transitions in the founder role. The study also found that identity gives meaning to the founding experience and influences behavior even before the individual occupies the role. Farmer et al. (2011) study on the behavioral impact of entrepreneurial identity aspiration and prior entrepreneurial experience of nascent entrepreneurs in the USA, China and Taiwan found that the strength of an entrepreneur's identity aspiration was significantly related with the extent

to which the individual self-description fit perceptions of their entrepreneurial role. Prior start-up experience moderated the relationship between identity aspiration and exploitation behaviors in all three samples. Patzelt and Shepherd (2009) suggest that, more studies are needed to examine existing identities and how they are influenced by additional roles.

Social Identity

Tajfel (1972) developed the concept of social identity and theorized people view themselves in intergroup contexts based on shared social category membership (Tajfel, 1972).. Social identity relates to an individual’s self-views that he or she belongs to certain social groups (Tajfel, 1972). People categorize themselves along many social groups. Some are ascribed (gender) and others are achieved (organizational membership) (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). There are a variety of human forms of aggregation (Postmes & Jetten, 2006). Deaux and Perkins (2001) developed five types of social identities as shown in table 9.

Table 9 Types of Social Identity

| Type of Social Identity | Groups associated with these categories |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Ethnicity and Religion | African American Muslim |
| Political Affiliation | Feminist Socialist |
| Professions, Vocations and Avocations | Entrepreneur Student |
| Relationship | Mother Parent |
| Stigmatized Person | Homeless Person |

Source: (Deaux & Perkins, 2001)

Lickel et al. (2000) distinguished between intimacy groups (family and friends), task groups (teams at work), social categories (race and gender) and loose associations

(neighborhoods and people with similar interests). These groupings reflect the myriad of ways in which individuals are grouped (Deaux & Perkins, 2001). According to (Erikson, 1964), social identity is

‘the identity of something in the individual’s core...an essential aspect of a group’s inner coherence...a persistent sameness with oneself (self-sameness) and a persistent sharing of some kind of essential character with others’.

Individuals may be a member of a group on one dimension but not belong to another in another dimension. Self-meanings are interpreted in terms of the group to which they belong. Social identity is a group level identity and all individuals in the group strive to be the same as everyone else. This type of categorization assists individuals in locating and defining themselves within the social environment (Stroh et al., 2002). The social environment can have understated, yet deep effect on individuals who might seem well protected against it.

Social identity theory is derived primarily from group membership and involves a shift towards the perception of self as a member of a social category and away from the self as being a unique person (J. Turner et al., 1987). Social identity theory is an expansion of identity theory. According to optimal distinctiveness theory (Brewer, 1991), having a social identity satisfies humans need for two competing needs - assimilation and differentiation. The desire for belonging acts as a motive for membership in social groups.

Since groups only exist in relation to other groups, they derive their descriptive and evaluative properties and social meanings in relation to other groups. To identify with a group one does not necessarily need to expend energy towards group goals but can

perceive themselves as being psychologically intertwined with the fate of the group. Additionally, identification does not stem from interpersonal relationships among group members (Scott, 1997). Identification is seen through the success and failures of the group (Tolman, 1943).

Research conducted by Deaux et al. (1995) identified five parameters of social identities: ethnicity/religion, political affiliation, relationships, stigma and vocation/avocations. Social identities can manifest themselves as jobs, professions, vocations and occupations (Barley, 1989; Pavalko, 1988; Trice, 1993). An entrepreneur may be viewed as having an occupational identity that goes beyond traditional workplace identities and is formed around their profession. A profession is associated largely with occupations, and prestigious or learned occupations. This profession personifies a particular class or group of workers (Cheney & Lee Ashcraft, 2007; Lammers & Garcia, 2009). Professions are considered important sources of identity to their members. They are important as they powerful, salient and enduring type of identity (García & Welter, 2011).

Individuals may share this social identity with others they know nothing about. This is may be considered an achieved status identity. This identity is chosen by the individual (rather than being given at birth). Entrepreneurs are likely to identify with both their professions and their business. An individual may choose to become a member of the profession long before starting a business. This professional identity would develop before there is an organizational identity associated with their new business. The greater degree people identify with entrepreneurs the more they will seek out entrepreneurs. They will also seek social networks to support their social identity. An individual views

membership in this profession as a way to express their group identity. This will also influence their perceptions and behaviors. Professionals and prospective professionals strive to display this professional self in an effort to attain and sustain the status associated with this identity (García & Welter, 2011).

Summary of the three identity bases

According to Smith-Lovin (2003), person, role and social identity should be studied together since all three represent the various ways people think about themselves in situations. The interplay of these three identities constitutes an individual's identity as a whole. According to (J. Turner et al., 1987) all three categorizations are self-categorizations that vary based on their level of abstraction or inclusiveness. J. Turner and Onorato (1999) suggest that the self-categorization one chooses varies based on the relative accessibility of a particular self-category, perceiver readiness, the match between the categories and reality. Relative accessibility relates to an individual's past experience, present expectations, current motives, values, goals and needs. Readiness to use a social category will depend on their degree of identification with the group, the extent to which it is central, valued, and ego-involving. Categorization is dynamic and context dependent.

Table 10 provides a comparison of the three identities. All three are constrained and informed by each other. Social identity signifies a more comprehensive, higher-up construct than person identity (J. Turner & Oakes, 1989). Social identity is based on mutual consent, shared by group members and not unique. Person identity is a characteristic peculiar to an individual (Pratt, 1998). Both person identity and social identity are important for human interaction. Deaux (1992) suggests that social identity is incorporated in personal identity. However, Abrams and Hogg (1988) posits there are

differences between the two self-representations. Past studies indicate that individuals characterize themselves differently based on these identities (Hogg & Turner, 1987; Trafimow et al., 1991). Individuals tend to categorize themselves depending on the categories elicited by the social environment (Pratt, 1998). The choice of personal or social categorization depends on how individuals define themselves.

Based on the work of Asch (1952), Lewin (1952) and Sherif (1936), many researchers have argued that human beings have both individual and group aspects. Based on Social Identity Theory (SIT), Tajfel (1978) proposed that human behavior takes place on a continuum based on definitions of the self in terms of social and personal identity. He coined these types of behavior as ‘acting in terms of the self’ and ‘acting in terms of the group.’ Tajfel (1978) proposed the depersonalization underpins movement along this continuum. It is the redefining of the self from being unique to a shared category membership. The more one sees themselves as similar to in-group members the harder it will be to be aware of personal idiosyncratic differences. The level and kind of identity used will vary depending on the motives, values, expectations, background knowledge and the social context within which the comparison takes place. Individuals vary in how much they identify with the person and social identity. J. Turner (1982) suggests role identities fall somewhere in the middle on this continuum. Social identity theory does not focus on roles, but roles have been viewed as a type of social category (Ashforth, 2001). Role identities provide meaningful distinctions between people and subgroups of people. These categories are relational and comparative relative to members of other categories. When a role is salient unique characteristics are downplayed and

people come to see themselves more with the category or role. When this role is salient individual acts like the category or role (Ashforth, 2001).

Self-categorization theory (SCT) J. Turner (1982) is similar theory that supports the personal-social identity distinction (J. Turner, 1982). According to SCT individuals have varying levels of self-categorizations. Individuals can define or categorize themselves at different levels of abstraction based on these self-categorizations, for example: at the interpersonal level (personal identity in comparison to others available for comparison), intergroup level (group member in comparison to other out-groups) and the superordinate (human in comparison with other life forms) (J. Turner & Reynolds, 2011).

The need for distinctiveness serves as a motive for differentiation and has been associated with person identity. Achieving the optimal level of distinctiveness is balancing the disparate needs of distinctiveness and belongingness. The two opposing motives produce the capacity for social identification with distinctive groups that satisfy both needs simultaneously. Social identities are often selected if they help maintain this balance between the needs in a social context. Optimal distinctiveness theory evaluates balance at the group level (Leonardelli, Pickett, & Brewer, 2010). Both motives are fundamental to personal and social identities. The idea that one has to balance these two identity motives is also grounded in uniqueness theory (C. Snyder & Fromkin, 1980) and individuation theories (Codol, 1975; Lemaine, 1974; Maslach, 1974; Ziller, 1964).

According to social identity model of deindividuation effects (SIDE), the in-group process crowds consists of two groups “them” and “us” instead of a collection of individuals. Deindividuation crowd behavior is triggered by a shift in the focus of identity from person identity to social identity. This shift occurs when individuals become less

self-aware or accountable of the needs of others. The shift in concern from person identity to social identity means group norms are more important than personal values (Shaw, Gorely, & Corban, 2005). Based on a continuity motive, a group identity continually predicts group identification and individual being in an effort to maintain stability over time and to form narrative linkages (Schwartz, 2011).

In some scenarios, person self-categories are based on contrast between people in terms of some shared social identity. Personal uniqueness is often sought and measured based on shared values that define social group membership (J. Turner & Oakes, 1989). A role may be performed which represents or does not represent an individual's identity but meets the perceptions of social or cultural demands. Roles may be taken, played or figmented (Horrocks & Jackson, 1971). Individuals often become members of a social group by assuming or performing a socially or ascribed role (Horrocks & Jackson, 1971). With role identity one develops self-meanings derived from gradually taking on a role in a social environment. Role identities may be considered distinct from these two identities based on the way the self is perceived. Role identities may be characterized by the actions that enable individuals to enact their social or relational identities (Jones, 2010).

Table 10 Comparison of Person, Role and Social Identities

| Features | Person Identity | Role Identity | Social Identity |
|----------------------------------|--|---|---|
| Bases | Individual self-concept | Fulfilling expectations tied to social positions | Social Group |
| Definition | Meanings that define person as a unique individual | Meanings tied to a role | Meanings tied to a social group |
| Cognitive Representations | Identity standard | Identity Standard | Group Prototype |
| Activation Identity | Saliency | Saliency Focus on social structural arrangements and links between individuals | Accessibility and Fit Focus on the characteristics of the situation |
| Behavior | Independent of others | Complementary to others Acting in relation and negotiating to others Interaction with others required Reciprocal Relations | Similar to others Acting in unison No interaction with others required Parallel Relations |
| Self-Reference | Me | Me as a Role | We |
| Verification Outcome | Authenticity | Self-Efficacy | Self-Worth |
| Social motivation | Self- Interest | Others Benefit | Collective Welfare |
| Underlying Theories | Social Identity Theory Self-Categorization Theory Uniqueness Theory | Identity Theory Role Identity Theory | Social Identity Theory Self-Categorization Theory Social Identity Model of Deindividuation Effects (SIDE) Optimal Distinctiveness Theory |
| Identity Motives | Autonomy Uniqueness Self-Enhancement Self-Consistency Self-Expansion | Uncertainty reduction Self-expansion Personalized belongingness Depersonalized belongingness Prestige Meaning Control | Depersonalized belongingness Uncertainty Reduction Personalized Belongingness |

Table 10 Comparison of Person, Role and Social Identities (Continued)

| Features | Person Identity | Role Identity | Social Identity |
|---|--|--|--|
| Self-evaluation Frame of reference | Interpersonal comparison | Comparison to Role Standard | Intergroup Comparison |
| Antecedents | Social Norms Culture Membership in some groups Childhood experiences Prior experiences in social roles Personal importance Negative valence of a self-aspect Past relationships and situations Early life history events High self-complexity High number of self- aspects Need for individuality Individual's motivation to retain a sense of individuality or individuality identity based on ideological cultural ideas Fit of an identity Identity salience High social contextual meaningfulness of a self-aspect Independence and differentiation form other people | Observing role models Experimenting with provisional selves Positive experiences & feedback from identity performance Tacit cultural knowledge Media Exposure Interaction with members of the role related group Development of social ties related to role identity Procedural Experience Role Efficacy Mastery Experiences Vicarious Experiences Verbal Persuasion Psychological States Importance of role in society Role and the autonomy in performing the tasks Degree to which relevant and existing abilities are utilized | Social Context Group Norms Behavior of individual group members Intergroup communication and comparison Personal identity Need for Assimilation or Differentiation Identity Salience Subjective or personal importance of a Self-Aspect High Personal Importance of a Self-Aspect Positive valence of a self-aspect Low Self- Complexity Frequency and meaningfulness of a Self-Aspect |

Source: Breakwell, (1988, pg. 24); Brewer, (1981); Brewer & Gardener, (1996); Cooper & Thatcher (2010);Donnelly and Young (1988); Ibarra, 1999); Kelly & Dassoff (1989);Kleine, Kleine, and Laverie (2006); Piliavin and Callero (1991); Postmes and Jetten (2006); Postmes, Haslam, and Swaab (2005); Stets & Burke, (2009); Ute, (2009); Synder & Fromkin, (1980); Vignoles, Golllege, Manzi & Scabini (2006); Wicklund and Gollwitzer (1982)

Entrepreneur Identity as an antecedent of Entrepreneurial Intentions

Entrepreneurs define situations and act based on their identities Individuals plan based on available means. Human beings are planners, thinkers and schemers. Planning is carried out at all levels of awareness and not always verbally, but conceptually (McCall & Simmons, 1966). According to Karp (2006) in order to understand the complexities of entrepreneurs we need to further examine aspects of human consciousness and reality construction. We need to study entrepreneurs “inner realities from which their actions initiate.” (p. 294). This goes beyond looking at who entrepreneurial traits. Karp (2006) suggests that “entrepreneurs construct their identities through applying their motivations, intentions, past, present and future perspectives as resources in their entrepreneurial thinking process” (p. 96).

According to Sarasvathy (2001), individuals have a clear sense of who they are and act on this basis. Sarasvathy (2001) suggests that identity-based decisions allow individuals to take decisive action even when facing Knightian uncertainty. According to Gabrielsson and Politis (2011), an entrepreneur’s identity defines what is desirable and possible in uncertain situations, which can influence how make sense of their career. Gannon (2011) proposes that theories about intentions could be re-conceptualized to include identity.

Entrepreneurs develop an intentional posture based on the process of alignment and attunement (Bird, 1988). A lack of alignment can impede and divert action. This Alignment is referred to our many “inner voices” (p.442). These inner voices reflect different and conflicting needs, values, and wishes need to be in agreement. Gannon

(2011) suggests that these inner voices may relate to the alignment of different aspects of the self and that alignment energies could be related to identity construction.

Studies involving both identity and intentions are important in entrepreneurship. Since entrepreneurial activity is intentionally planned behavior (Krueger, 2002). Krueger (2003) posits that research studies related to entrepreneurial thinking should explore the antecedents of intentions. Identifying as an entrepreneur may facilitate certain types of actions. It may be empowering and cause individuals to act based on role expectations, serve as a permit to defy the status quo and create change (Anderson & Warren, 2011).

Additional insight may lie in examining multiple identity constructs.

Entrepreneurial identity influences the intention of doing business which may lead to entrepreneurial behavior. Identities are very likely to exert influence on entrepreneurial intentions. Krueger (2007) posits that cognitive structures in the form of deep beliefs (identities) influence entrepreneurial attitudes and ultimately influence entrepreneurial intentions and actions. However a few questions remain unanswered, how will different identities influence intentions? Which identity will be a better predictor of intentions? Because identity theory views behavior as being the result of pragmatic and intentional decisions there is strong support for using identity constructs as antecedents of intentions. Previous studies have found support linking identity to behavior (Armitage & Conner, 2001; Dennison & Shepherd, 1995; Sparks & Guthrie, 1998). Identity addresses both questions of “who am I?” and “how should I act?” (Alvesson, Lee Ashcraft, & Thomas, 2008). According to Conner and Armitage (1998), identity and intention theories both view behavior as an outcome of rational decision-making. Both theories assume that behaviors are performed as a result of intention formation. Vesalainen and Pihkala (1999)

study on entrepreneurial identity and intentions findings indicate that several entrepreneurial identities do exist. Entrepreneurial identity was found to be a good determinant of intentionality. Falck et al. (2010) conducted a study on identity and entrepreneurship in 30 Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries using the 2006 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) dataset. The study revealed students with parents who are entrepreneurs has a positive impact on their intention to become an entrepreneur. Having entrepreneurially disposed peers was found to increase the probability of the student becoming an entrepreneur.

Person Identity as an Antecedent of Entrepreneurial Intentions

Several researchers have suggested that person identity may be a useful addition to intention models (Biddle et al., 1987; Charng et al., 1988; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Sparks & Guthrie, 1998). Person identity has been found to independently influence behavior (Biddle et al., 1987; Charng et al., 1988; Granberg & Holmberg, 1991; Sparks & Shepherd, 1992; Terry, Hogg, & White, 1999) and attitude (DeBono & Snyder, 1995). A meta-analysis of intentions indicated that person-identity has a significant relationship with intentions (Conner & Armitage, 1998; Sparks & Guthrie, 1998). Down and Warren (2008) two and a half year ethnographic study on a small UK industrial firm found clichés used by aspirant entrepreneurs are significant in creating entrepreneurial personal identity. The study provided evidence that entrepreneurs purposefully generate a sense of their entrepreneurial self and that entrepreneur used clichés in their everyday activities to make sense of who they are and what they do. Growing empirical evidence supports the addition of identity constructs in intention models to improve our understanding of the

processes by which identity constructs are related to attitudes, intentions, and behavior (Conner & Armitage, 1998). This study posits that person identity will be positively associated with entrepreneurial intentions.

Role Identity as an Antecedent of Entrepreneurial Intentions

Identity theories predict that cognition, affect and behavior will be based on one's motivation to create and carry out the role enactments that validate the identity to which the individual has committed to (Jackson, 1981). Role identities serve as a primary source of one's action plans (McCall & Simmons, 1966, p. 69). Role identities reflect priorities. Positions serve as symbols for the kind of person it is possible to be society. These positions cue behavior and serve as predictors of behavior of persons placed in a particular category. Attaching a positional label to a person leads to expected behavior from that person and others behavior toward that person which is based on expectations. Each role identity may require an alternative behavior, based on the type of person one think of themselves as being.

According to Callero (1985), "role-identities, by definition, imply action, it is through action that role-identities are realized and validated." (p. 205). Role identities are positions in groups that have prescribed expectations for appropriate behavior. Role identity has been found to influence both intentions and behavior (Charng et al., 1988; Theodorakis, 1994). Role cues direct individuals to behave in a certain way. Even subtle cues can have large effects and cause an individual to take on a given role fluently. Individual thought tends to follow the behavior. Eventually an individual tends to become what they believe. Roles can affect the way an individual behaves as evidenced in the seminal Stanford Study (Zimbardo & Cross, 1971). Zimbardo and Cross (1971)

discovered that, “there were dramatic changes in practically every facet of the participants: their behavior, thinking, and feeling” (McIntyre, 1999, p. 114). Role identities present a context for assessing ones thoughts and feelings regarding role performance (McCall & Simmons, 1966). Each role has associated set of characteristic behaviors and as an individual sees themselves in a particular role and start to pursue it they form behavioral, psychological and social commitments to this role identity as the person merges into the role (R. Turner, 1978). Hence, this study proposes that person identity will be positively associated with entrepreneurial intentions.

Social Identity as an Antecedent of Entrepreneurial Intentions

Social identity has been found to have a strong effect on human behavior. Despite its significance in adding a layer of complexity to one’s overall identity, very little work has been done to explore how social identities influence entrepreneurial intentions. According to Whetten and Mackey (2002), social identity is important because organizations are social constructions and are social tools created by its founders for specific purposes. Entrepreneurship is a social undertaking, it must be carried out in a context of social systems (Sarason et al., 2006). Entrepreneurship is a social role embedded in a social context...investigators cannot treat entrepreneurs in isolation as autonomous decision-makers (Aldrich & Zimmer, 2009). According to Granovetter (1985) “social actors do not behave or act as atoms ...their attempts at purposive actions are instead embedded in concrete, ongoing systems of social relations” (p. 485) Social identity allows us to make predictions about behavioral choices and human actions (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). It represents the “we”, that is, who we are as an organization. Individual’s social identity is influenced by the inherent need for belonging. According to

(Fauchart & Gruber, 2011), social identity may provide answers to why differences exist in firm creation. According to social categorization theory, social identity may influence an individual's thoughts and actions. Researchers have suggested that social identity theory may provide insights into one's intention (Terry & Hogg, 1996; Terry et al., 1999). Therefore, this study posits that social identity will be positively associated with entrepreneurial intentions.

Perceived Desirability as a Mediator of the Effects of Entrepreneurial Identity on Entrepreneurial Intentions

The study suggests that perceived desirability mediates the relationship between the three entrepreneurial identities and intentions. To the researcher's knowledge, there have been no studies that have tested the model proposed in this study. This study suggests if an individual perception that entrepreneurship is desirable is built on the multiple entrepreneurial identities the individual possesses. One study provides some evidence that there is a link between identity and perceived desirability. Shook and Bratianu (2010) suggested that self-identity is a predictor of entrepreneurial intent and should be included in the entrepreneurial intentions model. They posit that students who view venture creation as desirable are more likely to self-identify as an entrepreneur and the more these student's identify as an entrepreneur, the more likely they will be to create their own business. In this study it is expected that multiple entrepreneurial identities will positively affect the degree of relationship perceived desirability. Therefore, in this study it is expected that perceived desirability mediates the relationship between multiple entrepreneurial identities and entrepreneurial intentions.

Perceived Feasibility as a Mediator of the Effects of Entrepreneurial Identity on Entrepreneurial Intentions

Thus study proposes that an individual that has increased entrepreneurial identities sees greater perceived feasibility in starting a business, which positively influences their entrepreneurial intentions. To the researcher's knowledge, there have been no studies that have tested the model proposed in this study. According to identity control theory (Burke, 1991), varying identities influence an individual's sense they can complete a task. An individual perception of themselves that entrepreneurship is feasible may be influenced by their varied entrepreneurial identities. This perception of feasibility may be influenced if an individual believes about themselves. If an individual sees themselves as having characteristics associated with entrepreneurship, performing entrepreneurial tasks in the future and belonging to an entrepreneurial group they may perceive entrepreneurship as being feasible and this may increase their intention to start a business in the future. Thus, in this study it is expected that perceived feasibility mediates the relationship between multiple entrepreneurial identities and entrepreneurial intentions.

Theoretical Model and Hypotheses

Previous studies have revealed that identity leads to intention. There is a gap in testing the utility of the Shapero model (1982) in predicting entrepreneurial intentions from multiple entrepreneurial identities. In this study, identity is comprised of three components: person, role and social identity (Burke & Stets, 2009). Shapero (1982) hypothesized that the intention to start a business is influenced by an individual's perception of desirability and feasibility of starting a business. In this study the proposed

model theorizes that three entrepreneurial identities be incorporated in Shapero's (1982) model as determinants of entrepreneurial intentions and the effect will be mediated by perceived desirability and feasibility. The study seeks to examine not only the direct effect these three identities have on entrepreneurial intentions, but the mediating role of perceived desirability and feasibility. The model proposed in this study examines the relationships among person, role and social identity, self-efficacy, perceived desirability and intentions. Hypothetically, identity influences perceived desirability and feasibility which then influences entrepreneurial intention. The model hypothesizes six mediation pathways: the first from person identity to entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility (Figure 4). The second from role identity to entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility (Figure 5). Third, through social identity to entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility (Figure 6).

Figures 4, 5 and 6 illustrate the mediation models analyzed in the study. The model predicts that entrepreneurial intentions are a function of identity, perceived feasibility and perceived desirability. The literature suggests that identity leads to entrepreneurial intentions. But it is even more informative to determine whether they exert their effects on entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility. According to Preacher and Hayes (2008) such mediation hypotheses go beyond description to help explain process and causality. Mediation is the classic the standard for testing theories regarding process (it answers the why questions) (Barron & Kenny, 1986; Mackinnon, 2008; Preacher & Hayes, 2004). The proposed model presents entrepreneurial intentions working through perceived desirability and feasibility based on

Shapero's Events model. Using multiple mediation models the effects of the three varied identity constructs on entrepreneurial intentions can be accounted for by two entrepreneurial mediating variables (perceived desirability and perceived feasibility) as proposed in Shapero's Events model.

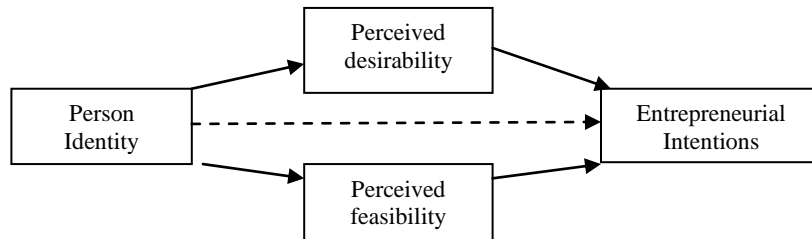


Figure 4. Hypothesized model illustrating the mediation path from person identity to entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility.

H1. Person Identity will be positively associated with intentions controlling for perceived feasibility and desirability

H1a. Person Identity is positively related to perceived desirability

H1b. Person Identity is positively related to perceived feasibility

H1c. Perceived desirability mediates the relationship between person identity and entrepreneurial intentions

H1d. Perceived feasibility mediates the relationship between person identity and entrepreneurial intentions

H1e. Perceived desirability is positively related to entrepreneurial intentions

H1f. Perceived feasibility is positively related to entrepreneurial intentions

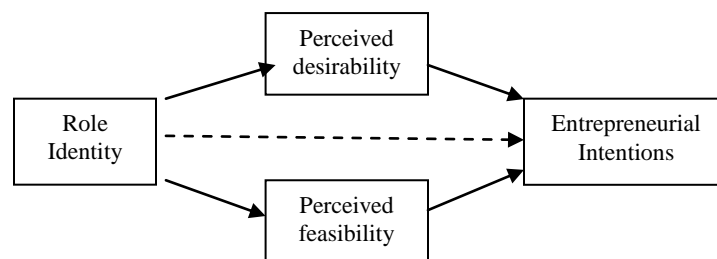


Figure 5. Hypothesized model illustrating the mediation path from role identity to entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility.

H2. Role Identity will be positively associated with intentions controlling for perceived feasibility and desirability

H2a. Role Identity is positively related to perceived desirability

H2b. Role Identity is positively related to perceived feasibility

H2c. Perceived desirability mediates the relationship between role identity and entrepreneurial intentions

H2d. Perceived feasibility mediates the relationship between role identity and entrepreneurial intentions

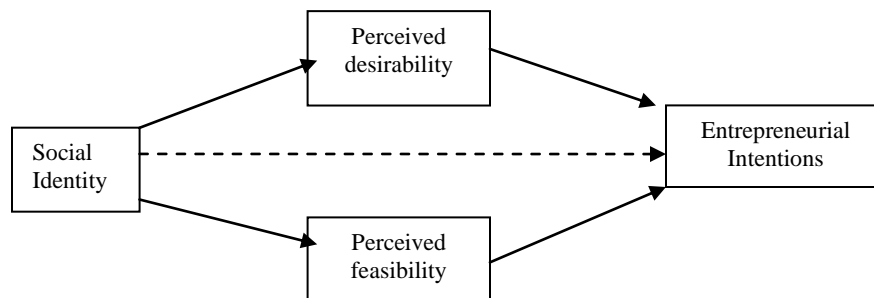


Figure 6. Hypothesized model illustrating the mediation path from social identity to entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility.

H3. Social Identity will be positively associated with intentions controlling for perceived feasibility and desirability

H3a. Social Identity is positively related to perceived desirability

H3b. Social Identity is positively related to perceived feasibility

H3c. Perceived desirability mediates the relationship between social identity and entrepreneurial intentions

H3d. Perceived feasibility mediates the relationship between role identity and entrepreneurial intentions

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study empirically tests a model that examines student's entrepreneurial intentions using identity as antecedents. The study seeks to determine the mediating effect of perceived desirability and perceived feasibility on the influence of person, role and social identity on entrepreneurial intentions. This exploratory study used a cross-sectional survey design since samples was collected at a specific point in time. It is a quantitative method requiring standardized information to define or describe variables or to study the relationship between variables (Grover, 1997). Survey is one of the most widely used techniques to measure identity (Abdelal, Herrera, Johnston, & McDermott, 2009). According to Abdelal et al. (2009) surveys allow individuals to examine their self-definitions and are relatively direct in tapping the content of identities.

Instruments

Based on a review of literature, a self-administered questionnaire was developed. Questions were designed based on factors considered important in the entrepreneurial and social psychology literature. The questionnaire was developed based on previously existing published scales adapted for the study shown in table 11. Some scale items were reworded slightly to reflect the research context. Scales employed in this study have revealed adequate psychometric properties in the past and have been used in published research in the past as shown in table 11.

The questionnaire was designed to measure the following constructs: person, role and social identity, perceived feasibility, perceived desirability, entrepreneurial intentions. The scales and their reliabilities are shown in Table 11. Several other variables were added to gain information on the respondent's background. These scales include entrepreneurial exposure, demographic characteristics, subjective norm and social value. The scales used semantic differential and likert-type scales.

Person Identity

Person identity was measured using items from the Entrepreneurial Scale Identity developed by Murnieks (2007). Murnieks (2007) developed this scale by reviewing a list of words and phrases used to identify entrepreneurs. These words and phrases have been deemed representative in past literature. Higher scores signify higher levels of importance on a given facet of identity. The scale measures an individual's personal idea of their entrepreneurial self. The semantic differential scale has two bi-polar adjectives at each end.

Role Identity

This scale was developed based on three role identities (founder, inventor and developer) considered salient to the core task of entrepreneurship (Cardon, Wincent, et al., 2009). Items were then created that related to these three economic related roles. Under each role items were taken from Hmieleski & Corbett, (2008) and Morris & Fu (2012) that the researcher believed matched each of the three roles. The Morris & Fu (2012) scale measures tasks and activities associated with eleven entrepreneurial competencies: opportunity recognition, opportunity assessment, resource leveraging, guerrilla skills, mitigating risk, planning when nothing exists, innovation, networking,

adapting while focusing, implementing something novel and creativity. The likert-type scale ranges from 1 “not important to my sense of who I am” to 5 “extremely important to my sense of who I am.” Scales indicated how much respondents perceived themselves performing these roles now or in the future.

Social Identity

Social identity was measured using 5 items the collective identity scale from Doosje, Ellemers, and Spears (1995) and 2 items from Ashforth & Mael, (1989). The scale measures feelings individual’s perceptions of belonging to an entrepreneurial group or a community. The likert-type scale ranges from 1 “not important to my sense of who I am” to 5 “extremely important to my sense of who I am.” Larger numbers indicate greater importance of this group membership.

Perceived Desirability

Perceived desirability was measured using items from Shook and Bratianu (2010) and are based on a 5-point likert-type scale. The scale ranges from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

Perceived Feasibility

Perceived feasibility was measured using items from Shook and Bratianu (2010) 5-point likert-type scale. The scale ranges from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1). Both perceived desirability and feasibility were combined under the term attitude in the survey.

Entrepreneurial Intentions

Entrepreneurial intention was measured using 5 items from a scale adapted from Mhango, (2006) and 3 items from Kolvereid (1996). Mhango, (2006) scale had intentions

items relating to university students entrepreneurial intentions (I intend to do an internship) and Kolvereid's (1996) scale measured more general entrepreneurial intentions (I intend to start a business). The scale ranges from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

Business Characteristics

Business related characteristics include: whether students have started a business, and knowing someone who started a business. Family shapes and balances the iceberg of the mind (Wetherell, 1997). Family guides the process of sense making process. According to E. Stone (1988) family tells us our first syntax, and act as the foundation to which we add our own perceptions. They help us establish our sense of identity as an individual. Children raised in an entrepreneurial family are more likely to display entrepreneurial propensity than those who are not (Aldrich & Cliff, 2003). Entrepreneurship is rooted at a tacit level and children learn from the experience of other family members. Katz (2004, p. 233) grew up around parents who were entrepreneurs and grew up with a world of stories. He compared his life with entrepreneurs to a world filled with compelling narratives that resonated with his emotions. If a parent or close relative is engaged in a certain occupation the more likely a sibling will do the same (Wetherell, 1996, p. 259).

Subjective Norm

Subjective norm was measured using 3 items using a scale adapted from Walter, Parbotech & Walter, (2011). The scale ranges from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

Social Value

Social value was measured using 8 items using a scale adapted (Liñán, 2008). The scale ranges from strongly agree (5) to strongly disagree (1).

Entrepreneurial Exposure

These items include: watching entrepreneurial related TV shows, reading entrepreneurial related magazines, membership in entrepreneurship professional groups, and the number of entrepreneurship courses taken. The scales used were adapted from (Levie & Hart, 2003). Multiple examples of entrepreneurship are open to university students via multiple modes - TV shows, magazines, professional organizations and public media. Exposure to entrepreneurship creates a better understanding of the entrepreneurial concept and nurture interest and awareness in venture creation. These images refracted by the media present cues that individuals draw upon as they construct or reconstruct an understanding of what it means to be an entrepreneur (Kjærgaard et al., 2011). The media acts as a mirror allowing individuals to reflect upon and revise how they make sense of their varied identities: Do I have the entrepreneurial characteristics (person)? Can I do the tasks associated with entrepreneurship (role)? and, Do I feel like I belong to the entrepreneurial group or community (social)? These can help to shape people's opinions, values and attitudes. Considering the amount of contact individuals have with entrepreneurship can have an influence on the construction of their identity. It is said that "the media and cultural insights provide insights of who individuals might be" (Markus & Nurius, 1986). By simply skimming through TV channels, radio stations, or shifting through magazines, individuals have at their disposal a wide range of possible identity models (Grodin & Lindlof, 1996). Knowledge gained from mass media theory suggests that mass media communications affect culture and social behavior

(Macnamara, 2003) and thus may influence entrepreneurial desirability and feasibility. Additionally, enterprise campaigns and TV programs have been found to help create an entrepreneur friendly culture. It is has been suggested that the knowledge gained from exposure can become their prior experience which can help students embark into business or explore business opportunities sometime in the future (Mansor & Othman, 2011).

Demographic Characteristics

Student’s age, gender, education, nationality, marital status, ethnicity, academic status was measured. These demographic characteristics have been associated with entrepreneurship in the past literature (Fried, Bruton, & Hisrich, 1998; Gasse, 1985). These demographic characteristics are also considered important identity dimensions (Frable 1997; Howard, 2000).

Table 11 Summary of instruments used in the study

| Dimension | Adapted from | Cronbach’s alpha |
|----------------------------|--|-------------------------|
| Person Identity | Murnieks (2007) | |
| Role Identity | Hmieleski and Corbett (2008) and Morris and Fu (2012) | .92 |
| Social Identity | Doosje et al. (1995) and two items from Mael and Ashforth (1992) | .83/.80 |
| Perceived Desirability | Shook and Bratianu (2010) | .84 |
| Perceived Feasibility | Shook and Bratianu (2010) | 0.69 |
| Entrepreneurial Intentions | Mhango (2006) and Kolvereid (1996) | 0.81/.81 |
| Subjective Norms | Liñán (2008) | 0.89 |
| Social Value | Liñán (2008) | 0.85 |

Pilot Testing

Following IRB approval, the instrument was pilot tested prior to the full administration of the study. Pilot testing allowed the researcher to gain feedback on whether the questions were easy to read, understandable, relevant and if respondents had

enough time to complete the survey. The pre-test surveys were distributed to fifteen students and three entrepreneurship faculty. Participants were randomly selected.

Population

The population were students enrolled (diploma, certificate, baccalaureate, undergraduate and graduate) in four colleges at Oklahoma State University. These four colleges were Human Sciences, Spears Business School, College of Agriculture and the College of Engineering. The sample size at each college depended on their enrollments for spring 2012 semester. The surveys were conducted in May, 2012.

Oklahoma State University was deemed appropriate since the university is well known for developing the entrepreneurial spirit among every student on its university campus. The School of Entrepreneurship at Oklahoma State University is focused on a campus wide, cross disciplinary approach to entrepreneurship and strives to improve entrepreneurship education across campus, outside of the business schools.

Thirty five courses are taught through the School of Entrepreneurship that are open to students across campus. The Entrepreneurship Program serves students from every discipline on campus and at every level, from freshmen to graduate students. Undergraduate students can major or minor in entrepreneurship. Through the Center for Entrepreneurship, students can get involved in experiential learning from their first semester through the end of their graduate program. Diverse opportunities range from living in the Entrepreneurship dormitory, to creating a venture in the Student Incubator, participating South Africa Consulting Study Abroad Program with historically disadvantaged entrepreneurs creativity festivals and competitions etc. Students can be part of the women's initiative (Women Igniting the Spirit of Entrepreneurship), Disabled

Veterans Entrepreneurship program, community entrepreneurship boot camps and technology commercialization program as well as many other opportunities.

A university student sample was deemed most appropriate due to ease, participant availability and the ability to maintain control over the testing environment through (Meuller, 2004). University provides some of the most important moments in the life for students to question and re-examine their core sense of who they are (Colby & Sullivan, 2009). Identity development is a central mission for students. Exploring who one is, is a part of the college journey and it continues throughout life (Boyle-Heimann, 2002). Based on identity theory, identity contemplation and the quest for “who am I?” is most important among young people preparing for adulthood (Erickson, 1968).

The areas thriving with entrepreneurial activity today tend to spring up around universities. Universities are where one can find the high impact entrepreneurs of tomorrow (Cone, 2012). According to a 2010 report from the Ewing Kauffman Foundation, “universities themselves are agents of entrepreneurship.” Offices of technology transfer encourage faculty to transform their research into products for the market. Research conducted at universities often becomes the foundation for new firms and products (Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation, 2010).

According to McGee, Peterson, Mueller and Sequira (2009), university students who have enrolled in entrepreneurship courses typically display characteristics associated with nascent entrepreneurial behavior and are taking coursework to prepare themselves for a career as an entrepreneur. Thomas and Meuller (1998) suggest that a large portion of potential entrepreneurs in developed and developing countries stem from university students. University student samples have been found to be very similar to actual

entrepreneurs (Fayolle, Gailly, Kickul, Lassas-Clerc, & Whitcanack, 2005; Hemmasi & Hoelscher, 2005) and university graduates tend to start more ventures, grow bigger ventures and accumulate more assets (Charney & Libecap, 2004; Peterman & Kennedy, 2003).

Sample Size

A sample size of 200 is recommended for models with moderate complexity (Boomsma, 1983). Based on the model predicted for this study with a 0.05 probability level, 3 predictors, an anticipated effect size of $r^2 = 0.15$ and a desired statistical power level of 0.5. The minimum required sample size is 42 (Soper, 2012; Abramowitz & Stegun, 1965; Cohen, 1988; Cohen, Cohen & Aiken, 2003). The sample size used in this study was 234.

Data Collection

Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained to conduct the study at both Universities. All participants were treated according to American Psychological Association ethical standards. The survey was administered using online survey via survey monkey, one of the many commonly accepted online survey instruments (Greenberg, Kit, & Mahoney, 2005). Survey Monkey uses multiple layers of security to ensure each account and its data is private and secure. A third party firm conducts daily audits of security to ensure the data is secure and has the most up to date firewall and intrusion protection technology. The survey contained four separate web pages: (1) informed consent, (2-3) identity, and (4) background information.

Permission to collect data from students to participate in the study was first obtained Oklahoma State University. The University sent out e-mails to their students with an

introduction to the study and a link to the survey. Participants gave their consent by clicking continue after reading the introductory statement and then completed the survey. The introductory letter provided a brief overview of the study, general procedures, potential risks and benefits to the participants. The survey was sent out to 5000 students from the four Colleges, based on OSU's e-mail list stipulations. Respondents totaling 324 accessed the web survey, 234 surveys were used representing a response rate of 21.36%.

Data Analysis

According to Hair (1999) once data has been coded and collected it should be scanned for errors. Data collected was screened for outliers, missing values, trends, non-normal distributions and other anomalies in the data. Among the 324 questionnaires completed several contained incomplete answers (missing data) outliers or had violations to the normality assumptions. These responses were deleted from further analysis. Descriptive analyses (frequency, range, standard deviation and mean) were conducted on the demographic, entrepreneurial exposure and business related characteristics providing a profile of the sample.

When a hypothesis of mediation by multiple potential mediators is contemplated, multiple mediation is an appropriate analytical strategy (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Conditions for mediation were tested using multiple mediator models, since two mediational processes are hypothesized between the independent variable and the dependent variable (MacKinnon, 2008). Mediators are interesting because they address the mechanisms by which an effect occurs (MacKinnon, 2008). As stated by C. Stone and Sobel (1990, p. 14) "perhaps it is in some senses flashier to focus solely on mediators because they address more central hypothesized linkages." Multiple mediation models

test “simultaneous mediation by multiple variables” (Preacher & Hayes, 2008, p. 880). Multiple mediator models are often of theoretical interest but not usually tested. Multiple mediation models analyses are often deemed a more reasonable approach to explore the complex relationships between variables and is a simple extension of a single mediator model (MacKinnon, 2008). These additional mediators assist giving the entire picture of what does and what doesn’t carry mediational effects (Mathieu, DeShon, & Bergh, 2008).

Correlation was used to ascertain relations that may exist between person identity, role identity, social identity, perceived desirability, perceived feasibility and entrepreneurial intentions. Simple linear regression and multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate the mediating effect perceived desirability and feasibility have on the influence of each identity and entrepreneurial intentions. In each model, the measure of identity was used as the predictor variable of entrepreneurial intentions. Then, simultaneous multiple regressions including the mediator variables (perceived desirability and feasibility) were conducted providing an assessment of the direct effect after the addition of both mediating variables.

To test for mediation, a series of regression analyses were used to test relations among the variables based on Baron and Kenny (1986) established guidelines to assess mediation. First, the independent variable and dependent variable was examined ($X \rightarrow Y$), to determine if there is an effect to mediate. This effect should be statistically significant. Second, the association of the independent variable and the first mediator ($X \rightarrow M_1$), and second mediator ($X \rightarrow M_2$) was analyzed. The independent variable should be significantly related to the mediators. This tests the action theory of manipulation. Third, the relation between the mediator and dependent variable when the independent variable

is controlled was investigated ($M \rightarrow Y$), with the mediators (M_1 and M_2) entered simultaneously. The test requires a significant relationship between mediating variables and the dependent variable. This step tests the conceptual theory of how the mediator is related to the dependent variable. Finally, the direct effect between the dependent and the independent variable was assessed ($X \rightarrow Y$). This must be non-significant.

To confirm perceived desirability and feasibility significantly mediated the effect of identity on intentions bootstrapping was conducted (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Bootstrapping has been recommended for testing the significance of indirect effects (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Bootstrap confidence intervals are often preferred over other tests that assume symmetry or normality of the sampling distribution of the indirect effect (Hayes, 2009; Ro, 2011). In the multiple mediator context, bootstrapping has been found superior to multivariate product of coefficients strategy in small to moderate samples (Briggs, 2006; J. Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). Bias recommended (BC) bootstrapping is recommended whenever possible (Briggs, 2006; J. Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). Therefore, bootstrapping procedures were used in this study to obtain estimates of the indirect effect and to test their significance using confidence levels. Bootstrap estimates used the recommended 5000 bootstrap samples and 95% confidence intervals (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). If the 95% bias corrected confidence interval for the parameter estimate did not contain zero, the indirect effect was considered statistically significant and mediation was demonstrated (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Additionally, Sobel's test (Sobel, 1982) is included in the SPSS macro and is presented in the findings (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Sobel's test (Sobel, 1982) compares the strength of the indirect effect of the predictor variable on the dependent variable to the

null hypothesis that the product equals to zero (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). Bootstrapping techniques combined with Sobel's test provide improved estimates of significance (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

Unstandardized coefficients are reported in figures 7, 8 and 9 as recommended by Hayes (2005). According to (Hayes, 2005), "unstandardized coefficients are the favored metric in causal modeling." According to Hayes (2005), as long as satisfactory information is available in the research methodology, unstandardized coefficients facilitate explanations of variation in the outcome variable due to each predictor in a way that can be compared across studies using the same measurement techniques in the and across subsamples in the same dataset. Pairwise contrasts between the specific indirect effects were also assessed.

This complete mediation analysis process was conducted separately for the three proposed models. Three separate multiple mediational analyses were conducted to determine if perceived desirability and feasibility mediated the relationship between person, role and social identity and entrepreneurial intention. This study seeks to determine if there is evidence for each mediational pathway. The data was analyzed using SPSS 18.0. The SPSS macro for multiple mediators was used to calculate the coefficients for the direct and indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). These macros are considered flexible in testing indirect effects and permits the analysis of complex mediation pathways (Mallinckrodt, Abraham, Wei, & Russell, 2006).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The first section presents the results of the descriptive analyses and the second the preliminary analyses. The third highlights the primary data analyses and the hypotheses testing are discussed. The chapter closes with a discussion of the research objectives.

Demographic and background profile of the respondents

Table 12 summarizes the demographic and background information on the respondents. Table 12 shows more than half of the respondents were female (58.6%). The average age of the respondents was 25.95 with a range of 18 - 56. A preponderance of the respondents were single (74.2%). In terms of ethnicity, most of the respondents were Caucasian (73.8%) and Asian American (7.2%). Most of the respondents were seniors (25.8%) and Masters (25.3%). The bulk of the respondents did not start a business (83%). Majority of the respondents who started a business had positive experiences with starting a business. Many knew someone - a friend (44.8%), or parent (43.4%) who started a business. On average, most respondents believed that their family (4.10) friends (3.98) and acquaintances (3.94) would approve of their decision to start a business. Most respondent's believed that their culture supported entrepreneurial activity (3.78). Majority of the respondents who started a business had positive experiences with operating a business.

Table 12 Demographic and background Profile of the Respondents

| Demographic Characteristics | Percentage | Business Related Characteristics and Attitudes | Range | Mean (SD) |
|-----------------------------|------------|---|---------|-----------------|
| Gender | | Age in years | (18-56) | 25.95 (7.99) |
| Male | 41.4 | How would you rate the experience of starting a business | (1-5) | 3.59 (.909) |
| Female | 58.6 | | | |
| Marital Status | | My acquaintances would approve my decision to start a business | (1-5) | 3.94 (.961) |
| Single | 74.2 | My family would approve my decision to start a business | (1-5) | 4.10 (.799) |
| Married | 24.0 | | | |
| Other | 1.8 | | | |
| Student started a business | | My friends would approve my decision to start a business | (1-5) | 3.98 (.834) |
| Yes | 17 | My immediate family values entrepreneurial activity above other activities and careers | (1-5) | 2.89 (1.19) |
| No | 83 | | | |
| Academic Status | | Culture in my country is highly favorable towards entrepreneurial activity | (1-5) | 3.78 (.939) |
| Freshman | 7.2 | The entrepreneur's role in the economy is generally undervalued in my country | (1-5) | 3.05 (1.09) |
| Junior | 24.0 | | | |
| Sophomore | 7.2 | | | |
| Senior | 25.8 | | | |
| Masters Student | 25.3 | | | |
| Ph.D. Student | 7.7 | | | |
| Other | 2.8 | | | |
| Ethnicity | | My friends value entrepreneurial activity above other activities and careers | (1-5) | 2.88 (.964) |
| White/Caucasian | 73.8 | Most people in my country consider it unacceptable to be an entrepreneur | (1-5) | 2.01 (1.034) |
| Native American | 5.4 | | | |
| Asian American | 7.2 | | | |
| Middle Eastern | 0.5 | | | |
| Hispanic/Latino | 5.0 | | | |
| Black/African American | 4.5 | | | |
| Other | 2.8 | | | |
| Started a business: | | In my country, entrepreneurial activity is considered to be worthwhile, despite the risks | (1-5) | 3.75 (.851) |
| Parent | 43.4 | | | |
| Family | 38.9 | | | |
| Friend | 44.8 | | | |
| Acquaintance | 36.7 | | | |
| | | My colleagues value entrepreneurial activity above other activities and careers | (1-5) | 3.01 (.953) |
| | | It is commonly thought in my country that entrepreneurs take advantage of others | (1-5) | 2.62 (1.10) |

Table 13 highlights respondent's entrepreneurial exposure providing additional background information on respondents. The bulk of the respondents had limited entrepreneurship exposure from TV shows, entrepreneurship related magazines, professional organizations or participated in entrepreneurial activities. These TV shows simulate real entrepreneurship activities, showcase real entrepreneurs, entrepreneurial language, behavior and semiotics. These shows show how to start or run a business. These shows offers many of entrepreneurial related lessons planning with uncertainty, creativity, thinking and acting in guerilla ways, being innovative, being alert to and exploiting opportunities, leveraging resources and networking. Past studies have revealed that enterprise campaigns and TV business reality programmes provide useful information to the creation of an entrepreneur friendly culture. Most of the shows students tend to watch were reality based such as the Apprentice and Shark Tank. Most students watched the Apprentice (27.6%). The Apprentice is fun, shows real life challenges, incorporates celebrities and is well known to be appealing to the 18-49 demographic in record numbers (Muscato, 2004). The top three TV programs Apprentice, Shark Tank and biographies of entrepreneurs all have been used as college teaching tools.

Majority of the students read The Wall Street Journal (36.2%). The Wall Street Journal is considered the largest newspaper in the United States. The paper has a circulation of over 2 million copies since March, 2010 (Plambeck, 2010). The magazine relates to business investing, regularly features real entrepreneurs and provides supportive information for entrepreneurs.

Most of respondents were members of the Chamber of Commerce. This organization is well known for supporting entrepreneurs in the start-up or emergent phase of their business. They provide a forum for communication and development of joint partnerships around the globe. It could be that because most of these programs are off campus students have not joined because they are either unaware or were not interested in joining.

A preponderance of respondents attended a talk with a panel discussion with real entrepreneurs (10.4%). Given by an entrepreneur it could be that these students had a class in which an entrepreneur was a guest speaker or attended one given at the myriad of speaker series offered by Spears Business School of the School of Entrepreneurship.

Most respondents stated that they were exposed to entrepreneurship at college (3.25) and through conversations with family (3.13), friends (3.11) and at work (2.97). Many of the respondents were not exposed to entrepreneurship through public media-television, films, radio, newspapers and magazines and facebook, rather they gained exposure through school, conversations with family and friends. This is in keeping with Klapper (1960) study which suggests other socializing agents (family, peer groups, religion, school as an institution, occupational group, legal and political institutions) were far more important and influential in shaping individual's perceptions.

Table 13 Entrepreneurship Exposure of the Respondents

| Entrepreneurship Exposure | Frequency (%) |
|--|----------------------|
| TV shows | |
| Biographies on Entrepreneurs | 15.4 |
| America's Next Great Restaurant | 9.5 |
| Shark Tank | 21.7 |
| The Apprentice | 27.6 |
| The Secret Millionaire | 4.5 |
| How I made my millions | 6.3 |
| CNBC Titans | 5.0 |
| Dragons Den | 1.8 |
| The Big Idea | 6.8 |
| Biz Kidz | .5 |
| Flip this House | .5 |
| Sons of Guns | .5 |
| I watch one in my country | .5 |
| I have never watched an Entrepreneurship related TV show | 42.1 |
| Entrepreneurship related magazines | |
| Fast Company | 5.9 |
| Entrepreneur | 10 |
| Inc. | 5.4 |
| Forbes | 31.7 |
| Wired | 12.2 |
| Fortune | 19 |
| Wall Street Journal | 36.2 |
| I have never read an entrepreneurship journal | 45.7 |

Table 13 Entrepreneurship Exposure of the Respondents (Continued)

| Entrepreneurship professional organizations | | Frequency (%) |
|--|-----|----------------------|
| Junior Achievement | | 6.8 |
| Entrepreneurship Student Organization | | 3.2 |
| Students in Free Enterprise (SIFE) | | 1.8 |
| United States Association for Small Business and Entrepreneurship (USASBE) | | 1.4 |
| Chamber of Commerce | | 7.2 |
| American Business Clubs (AMBUCS) | | .5 |
| Future Business Leaders of America | | .5 |
| Windows on Innovation Course | | .5 |
| Youth Entrepreneurs of Kansas | | .10 |
| I have never been a member of an entrepreneurship related professional group | | 75.6 |
| University Campus | | |
| Entrepreneurship mentoring program | | 1.8 |
| Elevator Pitch | | 5.0 |
| Business Plan Competition | | 6.8 |
| Business Venture Competition | | .9 |
| Creative Idea Competition | | 4.5 |
| Creativity Festival | | 5.4 |
| Entrepreneurship Boot Camp | | .5 |
| Entrepreneurship Study Abroad Program | | .9 |
| Entrepreneurship Scholar Program | | .9 |
| Entrepreneurship Conference/Webinar | | 2.7 |
| Entrepreneurship Internship Program | | 1.4 |
| Attended a talk/Panel discussion with real entrepreneurs | | 10.4 |
| Business Incubators for business support consultation and interaction | | .9 |
| Meet representatives from startup companies | | 7.7 |
| Face to face interaction with an Entrepreneur-in-residence | | 7.2 |
| Small Business Management Workshop | | 2.7 |
| Business Case Competition | | 1.8 |
| Worked in a student run business | | 5.4 |
| Business Networking Program | | 5.0 |
| Andrew Urich Business creativity Class | | .5 |
| I have never participated in any entrepreneurial activities | | 60.6 |
| Public Media and Social Environment | | Range |
| Media | 1-5 | 2.84 |
| Religious Institution | 1-5 | 1.83 |
| Work | 1-5 | 2.97 |
| Conversations with Friends | 1-5 | 3.13 |
| Conversations with Family | 1-5 | 3.11 |
| Elementary School | 1-5 | 1.66 |
| High School | 1-5 | 2.12 |
| College | 1-5 | 3.25 |
| Government | 1-5 | 2.02 |
| Facebook, twitter, blogs | 1-5 | 2.22 |

Preliminary Analyses

Preliminary analyses were conducted to explore the likely relationships among the study variables. Zero ordered correlations were performed between the major study variables (person identity, role identity, social identity, intentions, perceived desirability and feasibility). Zero ordered correlations, means and standard deviations can be seen in table 14. Cronbach's alphas appear on the along the diagonal. All of the variables except perceived desirability met the minimum threshold of .70 (Nunnally, 1978).

Correlational analyses indicated significant relationships between the three identity constructs supporting research question 4. As shown in table 14, there were moderate positive correlations between person and role, social identity. Correlational analyses indicated that the six variables had positive significant correlations. To determine mediation, the independent variables must exhibit a significant effect on both the mediator and the dependent variables. Based on the significant correlations between the variables, mediation analyses were conducted.

Table 14 Means, Standard Deviations and Zero ordered correlations

| Variables | Mean | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
|---------------------------|------|------|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------|------|
| 1. Person identity | 3.33 | .48 | .796 | | | | | |
| 2. Role identity | 2.9 | 1.04 | .493** | .941 | | | | |
| 3. Social identity | 3.49 | .705 | .595** | .602** | .921 | | | |
| 4. Intentions | 2.66 | 1.00 | .305** | .577** | .502** | .916 | | |
| 5. Perceived desirability | 3.66 | 1.06 | .396** | .657** | .548** | .556** | .652 | |
| 6. Perceived Feasibility | 2.69 | .71 | .397** | .607** | .534** | .615** | .598** | .863 |

Note. ** P<0.01.

Primary Analyses

Three separate regression analyses were conducted to explore variations in the beta weights of the relation between the independent variable and the dependent variable in the first equation comprised of only the independent variable to the final equation, with both mediators included. The following steps were conducted for each model.

Hypothesis 1. It was anticipated that among university students person identity would be negatively associated with intentions controlling for perceived desirability and feasibility. To test this hypothesis, a regression equation was constructed in which intentions was the dependent variable as shown in figure 7. In step 1 of the mediation model, a regression model was used with person identity on entrepreneurial intentions, ignoring the mediators. The equation was significant providing evidence that there is a significant relationship between person identity and entrepreneurial intentions. Step 2 showed that the regression of the person identity scores on the mediators (perceived desirability and perceived feasibility) was also significant. Step 3 of the mediation analyses revealed that the mediators (perceived desirability and feasibility) were significantly related to intentions.

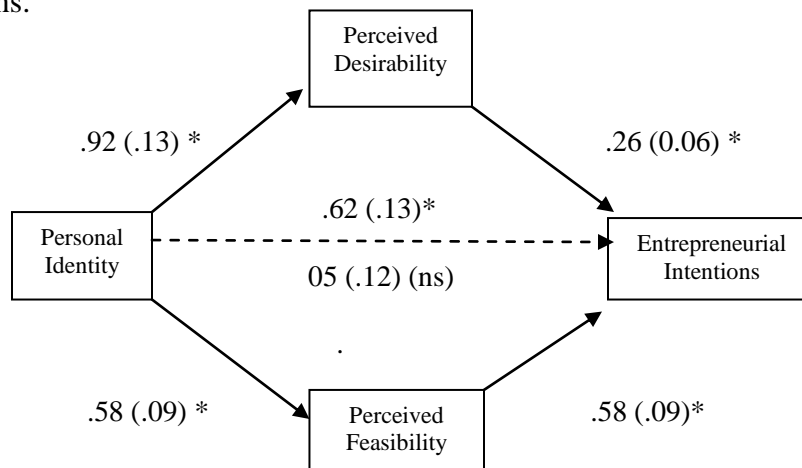


Figure 7. Person identity to intentions model.

Note. Numbers shown are statistically significant unstandardized regression coefficients (standard error in parentheses). Text above the dotted path refers to beta weights for tests of direct effects prior to inclusion of the mediating variable. Text below the dotted line path refers to the beta weights after the test of mediation. Step 4 of the analyses revealed the coefficient for person identity decreased from the original block when the mediator was entered. Person identity dropped from a significant beta to a non-significant beta in the final step of the analysis. The results indicate that perceived desirability and feasibility fully mediates the influence of person identity on entrepreneurial intentions as shown in table 15. The results indicate that all of the effects were mediated by the two mediating variables.

Table 15 Summary of Person Identity Regression Mediation Analyses

| Model | Without mediator | | | | With mediators | | | |
|-----------------|------------------|--------|---------|--------|----------------|--------|---------|-----------|
| | B | SE | β | t | B | SE | β | t |
| Person Identity | .621 | .134 | .288 | 4.621* | .051 | .123 | 0.24 | .416(N.S) |
| Desirability | | | | | .265 | .063 | .277 | 4.230* |
| Feasibility | | | | | .577 | .092 | .405 | 6.252* |
| | R2 | F | | | R2 | F | | |
| | .083 | 21.358 | | | .388 | 49.458 | | |

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient and B is the non-standardized regression coefficient. SE is the standard error of B, * P<.05.

The significance of the mediating effect of perceived desirability and feasibility was tested using Sobel's test. The results suggest that perceived desirability and feasibility significantly mediated the direct effect of person identity on entrepreneurial intentions as shown in table 16. The mediating effects of person identity on entrepreneurial intentions was also bootstrapped (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The estimates and the 95% CI's (percentile, BC and BCa) are shown in Table 16. Perceived desirability and feasibility were found to be significant mediators of the person identity→entrepreneurial intentions relationship. The total and direct effects of person identity on entrepreneurial

intentions are .62 , $p < .01$, and .05, $p < .01$ respectively. The difference between the total and indirect effects through the two mediators was significant (both have the same sign) with a point estimate .57 and a 95% BCa bootstrap CI of .32 to .77.

Therefore, the true indirect effect of both is estimated to lie between .32 to .77.

Hence, we can claim that the difference between the total and the indirect effect of person identity on entrepreneurial intentions is different from zero. In examining the directions of the a and b paths it was found that higher person identity leads to more perceived desirability and feasibility which in turn leads to greater entrepreneurial intentions. An investigation of the specific indirect effects indicated that both desirability and feasibility are mediators, since its 95% CI does not contain 0.

Examination of the pairwise contrast of the indirect effects shows that the specific indirect effect was non-significant with a BCa of 95% CI ranged between – .34 to .14.

Table 16 Mediation effect of person identity on entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility

| | Point Estimate | Product of Coefficients | | Bootstrapping | | | | | |
|--------------|----------------|-------------------------|---------|------------------|-------|----------|-------|-----------|-------|
| | | SE | Z | Percentile 95%CI | | BC95% CI | | BCa 95%CI | |
| | | | | Lower | Upper | Lower | Upper | Lower | Upper |
| Desirability | .2402 | .0667 | 3.5994* | .0854 | .4412 | .0778 | .4273 | .0517 | .4094 |
| Feasibility | .3295 | .0743 | 4.4368* | .1944 | .4931 | .1953 | .5025 | .1946 | .5002 |
| Des vs Feas | -.0893 | .1055 | -.8462 | -.3187 | .1573 | -.3452 | .1502 | -.3492 | .1471 |

Note. Bc, bias corrected; BCa, Bias corrected and accelerated; 5000 bootstrap samples, * $p < .05$

It appears that the overall significant relationship between person identity and entrepreneurial intentions was influenced by the addition of desirability and feasibility. Follow-up sobel and bootstrapping tests confirmed the significance of full mediation, confirming perceived desirability and feasibility as multiple mediators in the relationship

between person identity and entrepreneurial intentions. From the results it is evident that hypotheses 1 a-f hold true. Hence, hypothesis 1 cannot be rejected.

Hypotheses 2. It was anticipated that for students role identity would be negatively associated with entrepreneurial intentions controlling for perceived desirability and feasibility. To test this hypothesis a similar series of analyses, was conducted as shown in figure 8. In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of role identity scores on entrepreneurial intentions ignoring the mediators was significant providing evidence that there is a significant relationship between role identity and entrepreneurial intentions Step 2 showed that the regression of the role identity scores on the mediators (perceived desirability and perceived feasibility) was also significant. Step 3 of the mediation analyses revealed that the mediators (perceived desirability and feasibility) was significantly related to intentions.

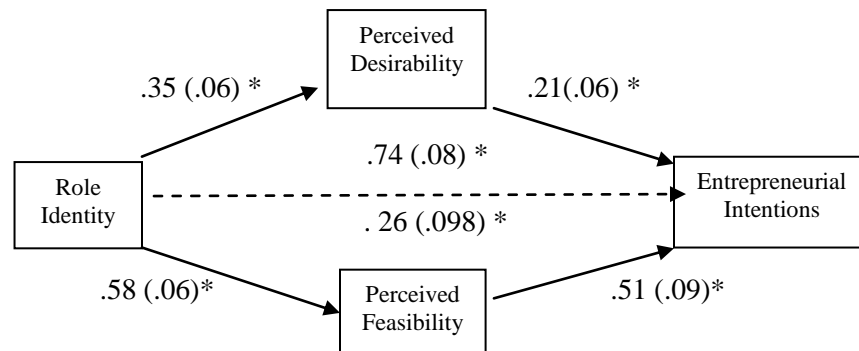


Figure 8 Role identity to intentions model

Note. Numbers shown are statistically significant unstandardized regression coefficients (standard error in parentheses). Text above the dotted path refers to beta weights for tests of direct effects prior to inclusion of the mediating variable. Text below the dotted line path refers to the beta weights after the test of mediation.

Step 4 of the analyses revealed that controlling for the mediators (desirability and feasibility), the effect of role identity was reduced from a significant beta to a smaller significant beta.

The addition of perceived desirability and feasibility appeared to lessen the direct effect of role identity on entrepreneurial intentions supporting the hypothesized model. The results indicate that perceived desirability and feasibility only partially mediates the influence role identity has on entrepreneurial intentions as shown in table 17. Partial mediation was demonstrated since the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable was diminished with the addition of both mediating variables; but the path from the independent variable to the dependent variable stayed statistically significant (Kenny & McEachern, 2009). This indicates that part of the effect of role identity was mediated by the mediating variable but other parts are mediated by other variables not included in the model.

Table 17 Summary of Role Identity Regression Mediation Analyses

| Model | Without mediator | | | | With mediators | | | |
|---------------|------------------|--------|---------|--------|----------------|------|---------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | t | B | SE | β | t |
| Role Identity | -.089 | .320 | .486 | 8.563* | .265 | .098 | .172 | 2.693* |
| Desirability | .745 | .087 | | | .208 | .064 | .218 | 3.233* |
| Feasibility | | | | | .509 | .094 | .357 | 5.431* |
| | R2 | F | | | | | R2 | F |
| | .236 | 73.317 | | | | | .406 | 53.31 |

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient and B is the non-standardized regression coefficient, SE is the standard error of B, * $p < .05$.

The Sobel test also indicated that that perceived desirability and feasibility significantly mediated the relationship between role identity on entrepreneurial intentions as shown in table 18. The indirect effects of role identity on entrepreneurial intentions were

bootstrapped (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The estimates and the 95% CI's (percentile, BC and BCa) are shown in Tables 18. Desirability and feasibility were found to be significant mediators of the role identity→entrepreneurial intentions relationship. The total and direct effects of role identity on entrepreneurial intentions are .75 , p<.01, and .27, p<.01 respectively. The difference between the total and indirect effects through the two mediators have point estimate .4835 and a 95% BCa bootstrap CI of .29 to .64. Therefore, the true indirect effect of both is estimated to lie between.29 to .64. Hence, we can claim that the difference between the total and the indirect effect of role identity on entrepreneurial intentions is different from zero. In examining the directions of the a and b paths it was found that higher role identity leads to more perceived desirability and feasibility which in turn leads to greater entrepreneurial intentions. An investigation of the specific indirect effects indicated that both desirability and feasibility are mediators, since its 95% CI does not contain 0.

Examination of the pairwise contrast of the indirect effects shows that the specific indirect effect was non-significant with a BCa of 95% CI ranged between -.32 to .11.

Table 18 Mediation Effect of role identity on entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility

| | Point Estimate | Bootstrapping | | | | | | | |
|--------------|----------------|-------------------------|---------|------------------|-------|----------|-------|-----------|-------|
| | | Product of Coefficients | | Percentile 95%CI | | BC95% CI | | BCa 95%CI | |
| | | SE | Z | Lower | Upper | Lower | Upper | Lower | Upper |
| Desirability | .1894 | .0609 | 3.1099* | .0446 | .3505 | .0465 | .3511 | .0283 | .3353 |
| Feasibility | .2941 | .0617 | 4.7702* | .1668 | .4224 | .1756 | .4262 | .1664 | .4224 |
| Des vs Feas | -1.047 | .0986 | -1.0616 | -.3107 | .1178 | -.3129 | .1156 | -3.169 | .1105 |

Note. Bc, bias corrected; BCa, Bias corrected and accelerated; 5000 bootstrap samples , * p<.05

It appears that the overall significantly relationship between role identity and entrepreneurial intentions was influenced by the addition of desirability and feasibility.

Follow up sobel and bootstrapping tests confirmed the significance of perceived

desirability and feasibility as mediators. Hence, hypothesis 2 cannot be rejected. Also, from the results it's evident that hypotheses 2 a-d hold true.

Hypothesis 3. It was anticipated that students social identity would be negatively associated with entrepreneurial intentions, controlling for perceived desirability and feasibility. To test this hypothesis, a regression equation was constructed in which intentions was the dependent variable as shown in figure 9. In step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of social identity scores on entrepreneurial intentions ignoring the mediators was significant providing evidence that there is a significant relationship between social identity and entrepreneurial intentions. Step 2 showed that the regression of the social identity on the mediators perceived desirability and perceived feasibility was also significant. Step 3 of the mediation analyses revealed that the mediators (perceived desirability and feasibility) were significantly related to intentions.

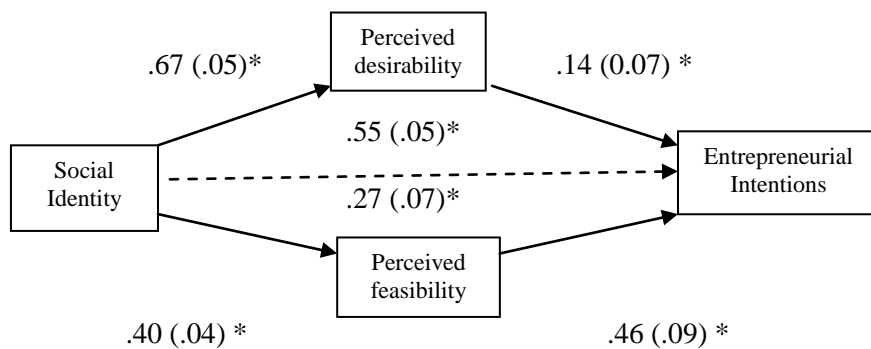


Figure 9. Social identity to intentions model.

Note. Numbers shown are statistically significant unstandardized regression coefficients (standard error in parentheses). Text above the dotted path refers to beta weights for tests of direct effects prior to inclusion of the mediating variable. Text below the dotted line path refers to the beta weights after the test of mediation.

Similarly, step 4 of the analyses revealed that controlling for the mediators (desirability and feasibility); the effect of social identity was reduced from a significant beta to a smaller significant beta.

Similarly, the addition of perceived desirability and feasibility appeared to lessen the direct effect of social identity on entrepreneurial intentions supporting the mediation model hypothesized. The results indicate that perceived desirability and feasibility only partially mediates the influence social identity has on entrepreneurial intentions as shown in table 19. Partial mediation indicates that the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable diminishes with the addition of the mediating variable; however the path from the independent variable to the dependent variable stays statistically significant (Kenny & McEachern, 2009).

Table 19 Summary of Social Identity Regression Mediation Analyses

| Model | Without mediator | | | | With mediators | | | |
|-----------------|------------------|---------|---------|--------|----------------|------|---------|--------|
| | B | SE | β | t | B | SE | β | t |
| Social Identity | .552 | .087 | .571 | 8.563* | .274 | .067 | .283 | 4.087* |
| Feasibility | | | | | .465 | .092 | .327 | 5.034* |
| Desirability | | | | | .140 | .067 | .147 | 2.093* |
| | R^2 | F | | | | | R^2 | F |
| | .326 | 114.422 | | | | | .428 | 58.454 |

Note. β is the standardized regression coefficient and B is the non-standardized regression coefficient . SE is the standard error of B, * $p < .05$.

The indirect effects of social identity on entrepreneurial intentions were bootstrapped (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The estimates and the 95% CI's (percentile, BC and BCa) are shown in Table 20. Desirability and feasibility were found to be significant mediators of the social identity→entrepreneurial intentions relationship. The total and direct effects of social identity on entrepreneurial intentions are .55 , $p < .01$, and .27, $p < .01$ respectively. The difference between the total and indirect effects through the two

mediators have point estimate .28 and a 95% BCa bootstrap CI of .14 to .34.

Therefore, the true indirect effect of both is estimated to lie between .14 to .34.

Hence, we can claim that the difference between the total and the indirect effect of social identity on entrepreneurial intentions is different from zero. In examining the directions of the a and b paths it was found that higher social identity leads to more perceived desirability and feasibility which in turn leads to greater entrepreneurial intentions. An investigation of the specific indirect effects indicated that both desirability and feasibility are mediators, since its 95% CI does not contain 0. The Sobel test also indicated that that perceived desirability and feasibility significantly mediated the relationship between social identity on entrepreneurial intentions as shown in table 20. Examination of the pairwise contrast of the indirect effects shows that the specific indirect effect was non-significant with a BCa of 95% CI that ranged between -.26 to 06.

Table 20 Mediation effect of social identity on entrepreneurial intentions through perceived desirability and feasibility.

| | Point Estimate | Bootstrapping | | | | | | | |
|--------------|----------------|-------------------------|---------|------------------|-------|----------|-------|------------|-------|
| | | Product of Coefficients | | Percentile 95%CI | | BC95% CI | | BCa 95% CI | |
| | | SE | Z | Lower | Upper | Lower | Upper | Lower | Upper |
| Desirability | .0937 | .0450 | 2.0817* | -.0027 | .2194 | -.0160 | .2054 | -.0384 | .1986 |
| Feasibility | .1844 | .0400 | 4.6068* | .0994 | .2817 | .0994 | .2817 | .0905 | .2723 |
| Des vs Feas | -.0908 | .0684 | -1.3270 | -.2466 | .0758 | -.2595 | .0635 | -.2616 | .0602 |

Note. Bc, bias corrected; BCa, Bias corrected and accelerated; 5000 bootstrap samples, * p<.05.

It appears that the overall significantly relationship between social identity and entrepreneurial intentions was influenced by the addition of desirability and feasibility.

Follow up sobel and bootstrapping tests confirmed the significance of perceived desirability and feasibility as mediators of the relationship between social identity and entrepreneurial intentions. Hence, hypothesis 3 cannot be rejected. Additionally, from the results it's evident that hypotheses 3 a-d hold true.

Research Questions

Research Question 1. In determining whether perceived desirability and feasibility variables mediated the relationship between identity (person, role and social) and entrepreneurial intentions several criteria had to be satisfied (Baron & Kenny, 1986). The first criteria is that the independent variable must be significantly associated with the dependent variable (entrepreneurial intentions). In all of the mediational analyses this first criteria was satisfied see Figures 7, 8, 9, and Tables 15, 17, 19.

Research Question 2. In determining whether perceived desirability and feasibility variables mediated the relationship between identity (person, role and social) and entrepreneurial intentions, an important criteria for mediation is that the independent variable) must be significantly associated with the mediating variable (perceived feasibility) (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In all the mediational analyses this criteria was satisfied see Figures 7, 8, 9, and Tables 15, 17, 19.

Research Question 3. In determining whether perceived desirability and feasibility variables are significantly associated with entrepreneurial intentions, an important criteria is that the independent variable must be significantly associated with the mediating variable (perceived desirability) (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In all the mediational analyses this criteria was satisfied see Figures 7, 8, 9, and Tables 15, 17, 19.

Research Question 4. Consistent with existing literature on identity, the interrelatedness of person, role and social identity was anticipated. To determine whether person, role and social identities were inter-correlated zero ordered correlations were conducted. The zero ordered correlations revealed that the three constructs were significantly related see Table 14.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter is a discussion of the findings of the study. The first section is an overall summary of the findings of study. The second presents implications of the study. The third highlights research limitations and the chapter concludes with directions for future research studies.

Overall Summary

The dissertation presented the idea that identity is multidimensional and that prospective entrepreneurs can define themselves in three distinct ways. Three new entrepreneurial identity scales (person, role and social) were developed in this study. This dissertation uses varied identity theories to test a model of entrepreneurial intent using person, role and social identities. The predictive utility of the three multiple identities was demonstrated, since all three identities predicted entrepreneurial intentions. The results underpin the importance of incorporating person, role and social identities into the entrepreneurial intent model. It lends support to the belief that identity influences thoughts, actions and behavior (Hoang & Gimeno, 2010). The model used incorporates three related disciplines: social psychology, sociology and entrepreneurship. The study supports the idea that entrepreneur's psychological factors influence entrepreneurial outcomes. This dissertation builds on mounting interest in the role of identity in entrepreneurship research which many scholars believe is a new and exciting research area in the entrepreneurship domain.

This paper is in keeping with calls for new conceptualizations of identity as being multifaceted, dynamic and use several levels of analysis (Burke & Stets, 2009; Nkomo & Cox, 1999).

The present study provides support for the predicted relationship between person, role and social identities. This study shows that the three identities were positively significantly correlated. This study builds on research that suggests that person, role and social identities are related and should be combined in studies (Burke & Stets, 2009; Hogg et al., 1995). Regression analyses indicate that multiple entrepreneurial identities (person, role and social) are antecedents of entrepreneurial intent. This finding is consistent with identity literature that theorizes that there is a link between an individual's identities, their intentions and actions (Alvesson et al., 2008; Conner & Armitage, 1998).

Person identity has been found to independently influence behavior (Biddle et al., 1987; Charng et al., 1988; Sparks & Shepherd, 1992; Terry et al., 1999). Role identity has been found to influence both intentions and behavior (Charng et al., 1988; Theodorakis, 1994). Researchers have also suggested that social identity theory may provide insights into one's intention (Terry & Hogg, 1996; Terry et al., 1999).

A multiple mediation model was developed in which perceived desirability and feasibility served as potential intervening variables in the relationship between identity (person, role and social) and entrepreneurial intentions. The mediation analyses indicate that both perceived desirability and feasibility were significant mediators in all three proposed models. Perceived desirability and feasibility fully mediated the relationship between person identity and entrepreneurial intentions. The results revealed that after the

addition of the two mediating variables the direct effect of person identity on the entrepreneurial intentions was no longer significant. The results of the study were consistent with our hypotheses. The findings provided support for the hypothesis that perceived desirability and feasibility mediates the relationship between identity and intentions.

Perceived desirability and feasibility only partially mediated the relationship between role identity and entrepreneurial intentions, and social identity and entrepreneurial intentions. The findings suggest there are other likely mediators involved in these relationships. The results show that there was a reduction in the direct effect of role and social identity and entrepreneurial intentions after including perceived desirability and feasibility. In the regression model, with, the direct effect remaining significant with the addition.

To the researcher's knowledge no study has empirically tested whether multiple identities explain the relation between entrepreneurial identities and intentions. Additionally, no studies have incorporated perceived desirability and feasibility, two entrepreneurial related constructs as mediators. By using multiple identities as antecedents of intent, this study provides new theoretical lens to the area of entrepreneurial research while simultaneously applying the use of an entrepreneurial based model to test the relationship.

The significant direct and indirect effects found in the current study advances empirical research literature on the role of multiple identities have in shaping entrepreneurial intentions. The findings indicate that the Shapero's entrepreneurial events model is useful as a mechanism that explains the link between identities and

entrepreneurial intent. Most past studies on identity outside of the entrepreneurial discipline (management and psychology) have used the theory of reasoned action or a theory of planned behavior models to conduct intention studies. However, perceived desirability and feasibility were found to be distinct, important components in the model predicting the entrepreneurial intention of university students. While the significance of entrepreneurial identity has been noted, the majority of these studies have focused primarily on entrepreneurs. The current study provides equilibrium to the overall literature by examining these entrepreneurial identities within a university population.

This study emphasizes the importance of focusing on the individual who is the creator of the venture and the sociological and psychological processes involved in venture creation. It also highlights the need to move beyond research that focuses solely on the characteristics or traits of entrepreneurs to research that focuses on entrepreneur's identity. This study suggests that more attention needs to be given to role identity and social identity since they influence entrepreneurial intentions. This study sheds light on the long ignored significance of social identity in entrepreneurship. Much of the research in entrepreneurship relating to groups tends to focus on social networks and teams. This study is seminal in that, it is empirical and it combines several theories: identity theory, role identity and social identity/self-categorization theory (Hogg et al., 1995; Terry et al., 1999; Thoits & Virshup, 1997).

This study underscores the need for a more holistic approach that considers entrepreneur's multifaceted identities. Examining person identities alone provides incomplete information about an entrepreneur. There is significance in exploring whether prospective and actual entrepreneurs see themselves as part of the entrepreneurial group

or community. The more scholars know about entrepreneur's person, role and social identities the more scholars will be able to explain some of the individual and group related sociological and psychological factors underlying the venture creation process.

Implications

Theoretical Implications

Previous studies have examined role or social identity but many scholars have paid little attention to multiple identities. Moreover most past studies have not examined multiple entrepreneurial identities. Therefore, the current study's main contribution is highlighting the importance of multiple identities in predicting entrepreneurial outcomes. By focusing on multiple identities, this dissertation challenges and extends the view that people's thoughts, actions and behaviors arise from a single total identity. Hence, identity should not be treated as a homogenous construct and multiple entrepreneurial identities can be meaningful in studying entrepreneurial outcomes. This study provided some evidence that identities might exist at individual and group multiple levels.

Another important contribution of the study is that it examined student's future multiple identities instead of current ones. Most past studies tend to focus on actual entrepreneurs, instead of prospective entrepreneurs identity. There is value in understanding how prospective entrepreneurs view their entrepreneurial self for intervention purposes.

The study adds to our understanding of factors that influence entrepreneurial intentions. The proposed model challenges modern ideas regarding antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions, by presenting two significant mediators of entrepreneurial

intentions. This study is the first to theoretically and empirically link multiple entrepreneurial identities with entrepreneurial intentions. The study presents an alternative empirical approach to exploring entrepreneurial intentions suggesting new predictors - multiple entrepreneurial identities. The use of multiple identities provides depth that has been deficient in prior research on entrepreneurial intentions. Moreover, the findings were supported theories relating to identity, role identity and social identity and intentions. The research investigated the potential benefit of including multiple identities as an additional construct in Shapero's intent model. The outcome of this study indicates that multiple identities are integral in explaining entrepreneurial intent. The study also provides evidence to support the applicability of Shapero's entrepreneurial events model in predicting the relationship between multiple identities and entrepreneurial intentions. The study highlights the utility of the Shapero entrepreneurial events model in entrepreneurial identity research work.

The study showed the importance of two mediating mechanisms (perceived desirability and feasibility) of the relationship between multiple identities and entrepreneurial intentions. The results suggest that entrepreneurial identities operate through perceived desirability and feasibility to increase entrepreneurial intentions. Past research has proposed that identity influences intentions; however this study goes beyond this by describing how these two variables are related. It provides insight to the nature of the relationship between multiple identities and perceived desirability and feasibility in predicting entrepreneurial intentions. It is difficult to conceive that a student sees entrepreneurship as being desirable, feasible and have intentions to become an entrepreneur without seeing themselves as having the characteristics of an entrepreneur,

see themselves in the role and doing the tasks associated with entrepreneurship and seeing themselves as part of the entrepreneurship group or community. Future research should use structural equation modeling to examine mediation effects incorporating person, role and social identity, perceived desirability, feasibility and entrepreneurial intentions simultaneously.

Practical Implications

The findings of the study have important practical implications. The study focuses on how a university can gain greater levels of entrepreneurial intentions among its students. Students may have intentions of being an entrepreneur or state that they have intentions of starting a business in the future, but this research highlights the significant role perceived desirability and feasibility play as mediators of entrepreneurial identities. The findings of the study indicate that perceived desirability and feasibility of being an entrepreneur can be influenced by not only one, but several entrepreneurial identities: person, role and social identities. It is therefore, imperative that universities to cultivate perceived desirability and feasibility based on multiple entrepreneurial identities.

Since that these three identities relate to entrepreneurial intentions, as scholars and educators we need to think about ways we can cultivate them. As Reynolds and Pope (1991) stated “the professionals responsibility is to conceptualize - understand and facilitate the integration of college student’s identity.” Educational and training programmes should be developed to help each student on campus develop their entrepreneurial identities. Universities may consider assessing new student’s entrepreneurial identities and how these entrepreneurial identities evolve over time.

Opportunities need be created that allow students develop entrepreneurial identities. Student's role identities could be developed by greater exposure to entrepreneurial activities – by observing and having direct experience with entrepreneurial activities. Students should be encouraged to participate in classes with entrepreneurship experiential components such as social venture creation, business consulting, and business plan etc. Students should be encouraged to get involved and join entrepreneurship professional associations. Educators and leaders of professional organizations need to understand that by exposing individuals to professional entrepreneurial associations students may start to view themselves as a part of the community of entrepreneurs, see themselves as affiliating with these groups of people and may eventually start their own business in the future.

Students seeing the entrepreneurship as being feasible and desirable are key objectives for today's educators and career counselors. In addition to skills training, the author recommends that educators encourage the development of entrepreneurial feasibility and desirability through these three identities. In order for students to perceive that entrepreneurship is desirable or feasible they will need to know more about entrepreneurship. To achieve this, educators need to consciously and regularly discover ways that students can see themselves as entrepreneurs through varied kinds of interaction with entrepreneurship.

Based on the findings of the study it appears that few students across campus have been exposed to entrepreneurship and have become involved in these programs. This is interesting since today entrepreneurship is considered one of the fastest growing subjects in undergraduate curricula (Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation, 2010).

Entrepreneurship programs on college campuses have been found to be vibrant, popular and useful (Cone, 2012).

It appears that more work needs to be done to enhance the overall university wide entrepreneurial culture. According to (Krueger, 2002) one way to increase desirability is to create a supportive culture that supports entrepreneurial pursuit by having support systems that collectively support these values and norms. There are lots of benefits that can be derived from being engaged with entrepreneurship and the skills derived are transferrable to any discipline. This is particularly applicable the hospitality and tourism industry of which entrepreneurship is considered a backbone(Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009). According to Michael Morris “Entrepreneurship is a philosophy of work and life.” Entrepreneurship as a concept goes beyond starting a business, to thinking and acting in an entrepreneurial manner. Entrepreneurship is really a key competence for all that assists people in becoming more creative and self-confident in whatever endeavor they undertake (European Commission, 2008).

According To Judith Cone, Vice President of the Ewing Marion Kauffman Foundation (Cone, 2012), “Entrepreneurship allows students to build a range of interdisciplinary skills that give them flexibility and preparation for the future. Whether considering starting an enterprise or just wanting to be outstanding employee, students want to learn how to recognize opportunity, harness resources to exploit opportunities, exercise their creativity, create sustainable solutions, take inherent risks and participate in the rewards.”

There may be challenges in developing an entrepreneurial culture, since entrepreneurship education on the college campuses is still in an emergent stage. In

academia, entrepreneurship is still viewed as not being a legitimate field of study (Cone, 2012). There is also the problem of consistency, since the names and key concepts of entrepreneurship widely vary from school to school. Faculty development may also be an issue that needs to be considered. As many departments do not have enough qualified faculty to teach and research entrepreneurship in their discipline. Programs such as Oklahoma State's Entrepreneurship Experiential Classroom and the Faculty fellows program seek to address faculty development issues and provide interface between entrepreneurship faculty and faculty from other domains to develop research projects and course development in their discipline. Faculty and career service practitioners on campus also need to be equipped to facilitate the development of students multiple entrepreneurial identities. Possible solutions to widen entrepreneurial exposure would be to enhance the marketing of entrepreneurial programs through offices like the study abroad and internship through the international student office, service learning and career services. Entrepreneurship should be widely promoted by career services office and the student success centers in each College across the university campus.

Limitations

The present research has several limitations. These limitations present opportunities for future research. Since the study was cross-sectional, exploratory and correlational in nature, causal relationships could not be determined and therefore, estimates may be biased (Cole & Maxwell, 2003). In the future, longitudinal studies may be useful in understanding how associations between identity and entrepreneurial intentions progress over time and how this development ensues.

Other constructs which could influence entrepreneurial intentions were not assessed in the present study. Other variables linked to entrepreneurial identity (role, person and social) that could serve as mediators such as those described in table 8 which should be investigated.

The study has a relatively restricted sample size and relied on a convenient student sample. Numerous studies exist on entrepreneurial identities; this study is the one of the few that relied on a student sample. Since the research deals exclusively with students, this presents questions of whether or not the current results can be generalized to other populations and contexts. Researchers have suggested that studies on entrepreneurship use actual entrepreneurs. The participants in this study were also from one university. Therefore, replication studies using samples from other contexts is warranted

This study examines intentions which may not result in actual future behaviors. Therefore, despite respondents having high scores on intentions, they may very well choose an alternate path in the future. There is a need for future studies to measure behavior as well as intentions to assess the utility of the Shapero's entrepreneurial events model and predict engagement in entrepreneurial activity.

The data collected is self-reported and involves introspection so there is the risk of bias. People often learn about themselves through introspection. However, there are problems when individuals look inward and examine their own thoughts, feelings and emotions. Studies have found that in most cases individuals do not have conscious awareness of the perceptions, conceptions and evaluations they are making about themselves (Baron, Branscombe, & Byrne, 2010). Most of the time individuals are who

they are, without being conscious of it. Consciously, an individual may view themselves one way and unconsciously in an opposing way (Hall & Linzey, 1957). According to T. Wilson (2002), introspection can sometimes impair self-knowledge. Introspection has been found to change people's attitudes, traits and moods (T. Wilson, Hull, & Johnson, 1981; T. Wilson & Linville, 1982). Researchers have cautioned that using self-views as an accurate self-representation of actual feelings and can lead to inaccurate conclusions (Symonds, 1951).

Experiments by (Wolff, 1933, 1935) and Huntley (1940) revealed that conscious evaluations of the self may not agree with unconscious self-evaluations. Despite the challenges associated in evaluating self-perceptions, recent studies have revealed that useful insights may be derived. Vazire and Mehl (2008) explored the idea that a person can know another person as well as (or better than) that person knows him or herself. The findings revealed that both perspectives can independently predict behavior. As Whetten and Godfrey (1998) suggest, identity is vague, hard to pin down, elusive and multifaceted, but that does not mean useless; what is needed instead is a long process of inquiry and good operationalization of constructs.

Future Research

This study represents the initial step in elucidating the multifaceted entrepreneurial identity construct. The study may serve as a platform from which future studies may continue to build on the concept of multiple entrepreneurial identities in numerous ways. Future research with a larger sample of entrepreneurs might allow for the use of more rigorous testing. Future studies should obtain a larger and preferably a cross cultural sample to validate the preliminary findings of this study. Generalizability

of the results gained should to be determined across various industries and geographic regions. One interesting extension would be to replicate this study within the hospitality context.

Future research should focus on the development and validation of the three entrepreneurial identity instruments. Further testing is needed to improve researchers understanding of the varied entrepreneurial identity constructs. Further tests such as confirmatory factor analysis can be used to examine whether the proposed model fits the proposed data pattern and to future explore the a priori hypothesis that all three identity factors are related. This type of testing will allow researcher to examine how well the items developed load and reflect unto the three proposed factors. Further studies could use casual mediation methods which recognize and attempt to address crucial assumptions (Bullock, Green, & Ha, 2010; Imai, Keele, Tingley, & Yamamoto, 2010; Imai, Keele, & Yamamoto, 2010; Pearl, 2011).

There is a paucity of research on multiple identities. Future research can further explore various forms of entrepreneurial identities as shown in table 4, general multiple identities as shown in table 5 and varied identity typologies as shown in table 6. There is limited empirical and theoretical work that incorporates these varied identity typologies in entrepreneurial research. However, at first more work needs to be done to explore and refine the different entrepreneurial identity constructs. These varied identity associations may be linked to a wide-range of entrepreneurial outcomes.

Further conceptualization and empirical testing needs to be conducted on the predictors of the three entrepreneurial identities. Researchers have bemoaned that little is known about the formation of the entrepreneurial self (Down & Reveley, 2004). One

interesting antecedent which may provide fruitful extension is the influence of the social context. Existing literature suggests that the social context influences the formation of all three identities. Table 9 offers some interesting avenues for future work. More work needs to examine the impact one identity has on the other and factors that mediate this process. Future work should also seek to extend the work on the person, role and social identity typology. Little empirical work had been done on the development of the three entrepreneurial identities.

This study examines entrepreneurial identities from the individual level, future studies could investigate identities at the individual, group and organizational level (see table 4 and table 6). As Ashforth et al. (2011) assert there is need for research on nested identities. One interesting extension could be to incorporate the institutional logics perspective to examine the role institutions have in influencing and shaping identity and action in individuals and organizations (Thornton, Ocasio, & Lounsbury, 2012). Numerous studies in psychology, sociology and philosophy have used various theories to explore identity; however recently within organizational studies several scholars are using institutional logics perspective that proposes mechanisms beyond meta-theory and uses cross-level models.

More research is needed to fully understand the processes by which these varied identities influence intentions. The opportunity exists for researchers to further examine the relationship between entrepreneurial identities and intentions using more sophisticated modeling techniques (as long as there is a feasible psychological account for any additions). Future studies should test other possible mediators. Future studies can examine factors which moderate the relationship between entrepreneurial identity and

intentions. Another fruitful avenue would be to examine the interaction between multiple complementary and opposing identities. Another promising area is to explore how entrepreneurs negotiate between multiple identities and how these shifts vary in certain contexts and situations with interactions with others and how these shifts influence the individual entrepreneur (decision-making, actions and behavior) and business outcomes (performance, survival, success and failure).

The School of Entrepreneurship offers numerous opportunities to students but based on the findings of the study it appears that few students across campus have been exposed to entrepreneurship and have become involved in these programs. Is that they did not know about these programs? Are students too busy? Do students not see how these entrepreneurial experiences could prove to be helpful to them in the future? Does it relate to the fact that students are unsure of what the word entrepreneurship means. For example, in some cases people still do not associate creativity with entrepreneurship. Research on the entrepreneurial culture of college campuses need to be explored. Other studies could examine if programs are being poorly marketed, advertised or do they merely conflict with student's class schedule? It could be that the current study abroad program (to South Africa and work with underprivileged entrepreneurs) does not appeal to some students. Do they need to expand the study abroad program since there is a cap on the number of students accepted to the program? Do students want different types of study abroad programs experiences varying types of ventures - high growth, high tech and managed growth types of businesses in different locations – Mexico, Caribbean and Latin America. These locations are closer to the United States and could possibly be cheaper for students to participate. Since in terms of public media and the social

environment, most students became aware of entrepreneurship through college, work, family and friend's promotions of entrepreneurial programs can be done targeting these areas. These are important questions for future studies.

Moving forward greater steps need to be taken in building an entrepreneurial culture across campus. Department-level programs across campus can be developed further expose and encourage them to engage in entrepreneurship. Most students have never watched an entrepreneurship TV show or read an entrepreneurship related magazine. Entrepreneurial activities that should be encouraged more in the classroom and during extra curricula club activities since entrepreneurship can be linked to almost every discipline across campus. Career counseling could highlight these opportunities to students and assist in heightening awareness of participating in internships with entrepreneurs. To increase perceived desirability as educators we need to heighten consciousness about the rewards of starting a business beyond profit and provide good role models (Krueger, 2002). To increase perceptions of feasibility we need to make resources available and visible to students. Each Department within the University should strive to demonstrate their commitment to developing the entrepreneurial spirit among students.

This dissertation seeks to assist entrepreneurship educators who seek to increase student's intentions of starting a business. The study suggests that entrepreneurial intentions may be increased if students perceive they possess the characteristics associated with entrepreneurship, see themselves doing the tasks associated with entrepreneurship in the future and see themselves as being a part of the entrepreneurial group/community. Entrepreneurial exposure can help shape an individual's identity; it

allows them to interact with entrepreneurship and provides entrepreneurial experience without the individual actually starting a venture. This is important because even if the individual does not start a business they can a greater appreciation and understanding of the field or can apply some of the concepts learned to their life or discipline.

Entrepreneurship is applicable to the hospitality industry since entrepreneurship as a concept goes beyond starting a business, to thinking and acting in an entrepreneurial manner. The more hospitality students see themselves as entrepreneurs the more likely they may be to start a business in the future. Hospitality students who become engaged in entrepreneurship are better able to recognize and assess alternative opportunities in a time of economic uncertainty, intense competition, be more creative and innovative.

Entrepreneurship is really a key competence for all that assists people in becoming more creative and self-confident in whatever endeavor they undertake (European Commission, 2008). Entrepreneurial thinking involves seeing opportunities, believing one can effect change and embracing innovation change and growth. Entrepreneurial behaviors involve individuals acting in entrepreneurial ways using entrepreneurial competencies: pursuing opportunity, being innovative, adaptive, bootstrapping and leverage resources, acting in guerilla ways and mitigating risks etc. Individuals can use entrepreneurship thinking and behaviors in different ways over their career life cycle.

Entrepreneurial thinking can be nurtured in any environment and can be applied to the family, church activities, community involvement, personal relationships, managing personal finances and personal change. Having an entrepreneurial career can involve working in a fast growth venture, purchasing an existing business, acting entrepreneurially within a profession, pursuing social entrepreneurship by innovating in

the nonprofit context, acting entrepreneurially in a large established company or starting a business.

The current study makes a significant contribution to the literature on entrepreneurial identity in linking three types of entrepreneurial identities to intentions. These findings emphasize the need for continued research in the area and propose numerous directions for future work. It is the researcher's hope that the present results will stimulate further investigation of entrepreneurial and multiple entrepreneurial identities.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD FORM

Dear Participant,

Purpose

You are invited to take part in a research study regarding the influence of student's entrepreneurial intent on college campuses. This exploratory study will require you to answer questions about yourself, the groups you identify with and your entrepreneurial intentions. You will complete this online survey, which will take no more than 20 - 30 minutes.

Compensation

Every individual who completes the survey will have the opportunity to be entered into a random drawing for one of two \$50 gift cards or one of two pairs of movie tickets. In order to be entered in the drawing we ask that you provide your email address. At the end of the survey, you will be prompted to share your email address if you wish to be entered in a drawing for the prizes. Email addresses will not be used for any other purpose. Email addresses used in the drawing will not be stored with survey responses instead they will be stored in separate file, used for the prize drawing and then deleted.

Confidentiality

Data will be stored on a password protected server that will not contain any information that could be used to identify you. The only people who will have access to the data collected will be the investigators of this study. Results of this study may be used for (teaching, research, publications and presentations at professional meetings). Physical data such as printed statistical reports will be kept in a locked office and locked cabinet. Any report of this research that is made available to the public will not include your name or any other individual information by which you could be identified either during or after data collection. The data will be kept for five years after publication. This survey poses no risk to you any greater than those ordinarily encountered in daily life.

Representatives from the OSU Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects and its federal oversight agencies may need to observe the researcher(s) during the consent and data collection processes or inspect consent and data records to assure that they are being handled in agreement with approved procedures. Confidentiality of the information observed or inspected will be maintained by these representatives.

Contacts

For questions or concerns about the research project, please contact:

Michelle Black
PhD Student
School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration
210 Human Sciences West, Stillwater
OK 74078,
Phone: 405-744-6713
Email: mblack@okstate.edu.

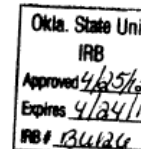
Craig Watters
Thoma Distinguished Clinical Professor
School of Entrepreneurship
343 Business Building
Stillwater, Oklahoma 74078-4011
Phone: 405-744-7546
Email: craig.watters@okstate.edu

If you have questions about your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Oklahoma State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) Chair, Dr. Shelia Kennison, at 219 Cordell North, Stillwater, Ok 74078, 405-744-3377 or irb@okstate.edu.

Participant Rights

At this moment you are making a decision whether or not to participate in this study on student's entrepreneurial intent. Your decision whether or not to participate will not prejudice your future relations with Oklahoma State University or Cornell University. If you decide to participate, then you are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty.

If you agree and wish to participate in the study then please hit the continue button and go on to the questions.



VITA

Michelle Monique Black

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy/Education

Thesis: EXPLORING THE MULTI-FOCUS INFLUENCE OF IDENTITY ON
STUDENTS' ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENT

Major Field: Human Sciences

Biographical:

Education:

Completed the requirements for the Bachelor of Science/Arts in Hotel, Restaurant and Tourism Management from University of Technology, St. Andrew, Jamaica in 1998.

Completed the requirements for the Master of Science in Hospitality and Tourism Management from University of the West Indies, Mona, St. Andrew, Jamaica in 2003.

Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy in Human Sciences at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in July 2012.

Experience:

Graduate Assistant, School of Entrepreneurship, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK

ESL Instructor/Community Development Assistant, Family Resource Center, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK

Research Assistant, College of Human Environmental Sciences Cooperative Extension Service, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK

Teaching Assistant, School of Hotel and Restaurant Administration, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK

Assistant Foreign Language Teacher Japan Exchange Teaching Program Saga Prefectural Board of Education, Saga Prefecture, Japan

Immigration Officer, Ministry of National Security, Immigration Division, Kingston, Jamaica

Part-time Lecturer, Institute of Management Sciences. Kingston, Jamaica

Management Trainee, SuperClubs Ltd, Ocho Rios, Jamaica

Professional Memberships:

Phi Beta Delta; Academy of Management, International Family Enterprise Research Academy; United States Association for Small Business and Entrepreneurship; Texas and Oklahoma (Texoma) Japan Exchange Program Alumni Association, English Teachers of Japan

Name: Michelle Monique Black

Date of Degree: July, 2012

Institution: Oklahoma State University

Location: Stillwater, Oklahoma

Title of Study: EXPLORING THE MULTI-FOCUS INFLUENCE OF IDENTITY ON
STUDENTS' ENTREPRENEURIAL INTENT

Pages in Study: 172

Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major Field: Human Sciences

Scope and Method of Study: Empirical studies examining the predictors of intentions usually focus on the effect a single identity has on intentions. Adapting Shapero's entrepreneurial events model, the current study investigates the relationship between three identity constructs (person, role and social) on the entrepreneurial intentions of 234 university students (undergraduate and graduate, full-time and part-time). Three separate multiple mediation models were used to determine the mediating effect of perceived desirability and feasibility on the relationship between three entrepreneurial identities (person, role and social) and entrepreneurial intentions. Data was analyzed using correlation, regression and bootstrapping analyses.

Findings and Conclusions: Results indicated that there is a significant positive correlation between person, role and social identities. Person, role and social identity predicted entrepreneurial intentions. All of the hypothesized relationships were supported. The findings also indicate that both perceived desirability and feasibility were significant mediators of the effect of the multiple entrepreneurial identities on entrepreneurial intentions. Perceived desirability and feasibility fully mediated the relationship between personal identity and entrepreneurial intentions. Whereas, perceived desirability and feasibility only partially mediated the relationship between role and social identity on entrepreneurial intentions. The findings of this study provide support for the belief that multiple identities are antecedents of entrepreneurial intentions.

ADVISER'S APPROVAL: Craig Watters
