THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DOMAINS OF
ENTREPRENEURSHIP PASSION AND
ENTREPRENEUR’S SELF-IDENTITY

BY

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UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY-
AFRICA

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN DOMAINS OF
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STUDENT’S DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this is my original work and has not been submitted to any other college, institution or university other than the United States International University in Nairobi for academic credit.

Signed: ___________________________  Date: __________________________

Samuel Muchiri (ID 639748)

This research project has been presented as a group work with my approval as the appointed lecturer.

Signed: ___________________________  Date: __________________________

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Dean, Chandaria School of Business
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to establish the relationship between domains of entrepreneurship passion and entrepreneur’s self-identity. The research questions were as follows: what impact does entrepreneurship passion for founding have on entrepreneur’s self-identity? What impact does entrepreneurship passion for developing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity? What impact does entrepreneurship passion for inventing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

The research methodology used by the researcher on this study was descriptive design. The dependent variable was self-identity and the independent variables were founding, developing and inventing. The research was conducted on individual with an entrepreneurial background and those who were already in entrepreneurship all based in Nairobi and there were a total population of forty (40) respondents. The data was analyzed using Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics and regression analysis was used in the study to interpret the data.

The research came up with the following findings; there was a significant relationship between entrepreneur’s self-identity and entrepreneur’s passion for invention, founding and developing. Among the three variable entrepreneur’s passion for founding had the highest significance compared entrepreneur’s passion developing and inventing respectively. The gender of the entrepreneur in relation to the entrepreneur’s self-identity is positive but not statistically significant hence gender has nothing to do with entrepreneur’s passion. The age of the entrepreneur and entrepreneur’s self-identity is negative but not statistically significant hence the older the entrepreneur the lower the likely hood for passion for entrepreneurship in regard to their self-identity.

The conclusion drawn from this research is that the variable with the higher relation on entrepreneur’s self-identity is founding, developing and inventing respectively. Both age and gender have no significant effect on entrepreneur’s passion in relation to their self-identity.

The study would like to recommend inclusion of variables depicting respondent environment and background for a more holistic analysis. Entrepreneurs are informed on importance passion at different levels of firm’s establishment.
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Most importantly, I want to thank the Almighty God for his care, wife and parents. I also want to thank the USIU faculty who have seen me through this long and tedious journey of obtaining my degree, more special thanks to my supervisor Scott Bellows for his support and guidance during this project writing, God bless you abundantly.
DEDICATION

I want to thank the Almighty God for his care, protection, and good health during this period of my research. I also want to thank the USIU faculty who have seen me through this long and tedious journey of obtaining my degree, more special thanks to my supervisor Scott Bellows for his support and guidance during this project writing, God bless you abundantly. To all my friends and colleagues who made a significant contribution to this project, I am so grateful.
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of Study

Entrepreneurship at most times considered inexplicable and sometimes even unknowable, the combination of unique individuals and unplanned environments. Researchers imply that entrepreneurs are risk takers, they like to filling voids, and uneven individualists who are observant to prospects (Cardon et al., 2005). According to (Codurasa et al., 2016) there is a scope of psychological factors rooted on entrepreneurial education need for accomplishment and employment; social factors founded on gender, age, balanced entrepreneurial skills, capability to interrelate with others and family; economic variables mainly based on corporate design, as decentralized structures are coupled with opportunity realization of new business opportunities, business strategy, rurality and immigration. All these factors psychological, social, and economic variables interact in the desire to start a new business.

Entrepreneurs are individuals who take the initiative with an inspired and innovative way of budding ideas, and gathering resources to discover opportunities and the improvement of living. Entrepreneurship covers all functions, activities and actions related to acquisition opportunities and the creation of a business organization. In principle, an entrepreneur is the one who has the entrepreneurial spirit and apply the essence of entrepreneurship in his life (Darmadji, 2015).

Entrepreneurship is important in having a beneficial economic structure branded by high well-being levels (Alvarez et al., 2014). The most vibrant countries in the world are described by the quality and quantity of their entrepreneurship, specifically when extensive financial strategies are inadequate, consumption is reduced and investment (both foreign and domestic) is disinclined.

The importance of entrepreneurial in agriculture as a new approach in improving farming performance, among others, is based on the entrepreneurial characteristics. According (Priyanto, 2008) a man who has the entrepreneurial spirit will show the attitude of an independent, vibrant, dare to try, great desire, have a need for achievement, creative, bold risk, have the knowledge and skills associated with farming being run. A part from based
or characteristic, centrality of entrepreneurship research is also based on some opinions. (Saragih, 1998), which states that the entrepreneurial farmer is one very important factor in determining the success of market-oriented businesses.

More latest research has observed the emergence of ‘next generation’ entrepreneurs, the so called digital natives, whose innovation and sales strategies are progressively built on emerging Internet-based technologies (Gagliardi, 2013). The size of this prospective market is revealed by the approximately two billion people who are presently connected to the Internet, with an additional three billion people forecast to be online by 2020 (Wadhwa, 2014). Through the development of the Internet, we have observed a huge number of reports exploring the use of the internet in new product development. In the cases of it being used to gather competitive intelligence, assessment of new product prototype, inventing and manufacturing new products, lowering new product development cost, creating new product recognition and obtaining new product funds (Ozer, 2003).

Most of the fruitful innovations are established over the collective efforts of individuals in new product development teams. New product development teams are organizational workgroups where individuals from varied individual and organizational backgrounds come together for a limited (and usually, predetermined) time period and work in close collaboration towards creating, designing, developing, and marketing a new product (Pinto, 2002).

The task of entrepreneurship in advancement process is obtaining an increasing consideration from policymakers and scholars (Naude, 2014). In developing countries, only a small share of the labor-force is employed in wage jobs (Gindling & Newhouse, 2014). In economies with inadequate creation of private-sector wage jobs, entrepreneurship sustenance intercessions are favorable policy options for the formation of more alluring skilled jobs. In this context, most policymakers consider that entrepreneurship education has a strong potential to enable youth to gain skills and generate their own skilled jobs.

The Middle East and North Africa is one of the regions with the highest youth unemployment rates among university graduates (Gatti et al., 2013; Groh, McKenzie, Shammout, & Vishwanath, 2015). In Tunisia, 46% of graduates of the 2004 class were still unemployed eighteen months after graduation (MFPE & World Bank, 2009).
Unemployment among youths holding a university degree increased from 34% in 2005 to 62% in 2012. In this context, Tunisia has attempted various reforms aiming to promote employability or self-employment among university graduates. Among them, a new entrepreneurship track was introduced into the undergraduate (license applique) curriculum in 2009. Students enrolled in the last year of their undergraduate degree were invited to apply to the entrepreneurship track, which entailed business training as well as personalized coaching sessions. Students could then graduate by writing and defending a business plan instead of a traditional undergraduate thesis.

Like many emerging economies in Africa, Kenya is tackling a worrying unemployment challenge linked with a deteriorating standard of living, increasing difference between the urban and rural regions of the country, and scarce social and physical infrastructures to meet the needs of a rapidly growing population (Ferej, 1994). To offer a way of survival, most of the unemployed have veered to the informal sector to found small enterprises that span from small trading activities to satisfactorily flourishing production, manufacturing, and construction businesses. In general, a small enterprise may be defined as an enterprise having less than 20 employees.

The small enterprise sector is composed of a range of enterprises including: self-employed artisans, microenterprises, cottage industries, and small enterprises in the formal business sector. These small enterprises may be engaged in trade, commerce, distribution, transport, construction, agribusiness, manufacturing, maintenance. Entrepreneurship Education and repair, or other services. As a result of the trend toward the creation of small enterprises, the informal sector has grown to include approximately 60% of the labor force in Africa (International Labor Organization, 1985).

Entrepreneurs in Kenya like every other place operate within a context of both internal and external environments that are rife with both challenges and opportunities. Hence the Kenya business ecosystem like any other has physical, historical, economic, politico-legal, socio-cultural and technological dimensions (Kibera, 1996). The youth in Kenya (15-35) are the cornerstone of society and must be nurtured to take up active leadership roles in the country. However, since independence, their role has been largely peripheral leading to their current marginalization manifested in form of unemployment, crime, drug abuse and passive involvement in constructive nation building.
Part of the problem has been poverty which has denied them access to appropriate training and productive resources. As such, they only undergo rigid exam-based training with minimal practical application in the job market. The Government of Kenya has already recognized the long-term impact of the youth marginalization and initiated programmes to ensure they become active rather than passive partners in nation building such Youth Enterprise Development Fund (YEDF). This fund has the potential to transform the largely unproductive youth into endearing citizens. However, YEDF is bedeviled with challenges including the curriculum used to induct the youth into the world of work in general and entrepreneurship in particular. The result has been massive loan default, with many youth enterprises becoming shadows of their true potential (Rori et al.; 2011).

Trepidation of failure both hinders and inspires entrepreneurial behavior and consequently signifies an opulent opportunity for superior understanding of entrepreneurial inspiration. Substantial attention has been dedicated to the study of fear of failure in entrepreneurship, scholars in this field have examined this construct from divergent disciplinary standpoints. These standpoints use definitions and measures of fear of failure that are possibly in conflict and are characterized by a static approach, thereby restraining the validity of existing findings about the relationship linking fear of failure to entrepreneurship (Cacciotti, et al., 2016). A nascent body of entrepreneurship literature guides that passion plays a critical part in novel venture founding processes and results (Cardon et al., 2005; Smilor, 1997). It is the “fire of desire” that fuels entrepreneurs' daily efforts and creativity (Baum et al., 2001; Cardon et al., 2009), and desires them to persevere even in the face of challenge and adversity (Cardon et al., 2005; Cardon and Kirk, 2015; Chandler and Jansen, 1992).

Moreover, entrepreneurial passion is contributory in the entrepreneurial process as it applies an optimistic impact on vital resource providers, such as investors and employees (Breugst et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2009; Mitteness et al., 2012; Sudek, 2006). Previous research stresses that role identity is a lively component of and the central force behind entrepreneurs' passion, motivating entrepreneurial actions (Chen et al., 2015). In specific, Cardon et al. (2009, 2013) plainly incorporate identities in their future description of entrepreneurial passion, thereby distinguishing between the roles of inventor, founder and developer, along with the passion associated with each of these role identities. According
to (Murnieks et al., 2014) subsequently demonstrate a strong positive link between the centrality of an entrepreneurial identity and entrepreneurial passion.

Despite significant progress made toward understanding the nature and impact of entrepreneurial passion, current theoretical and empirical work assumes that individuals experience a singular entrepreneurial passion that motivates them to think and act like an entrepreneur. Yet, a parallel emerging research stream on identity in entrepreneurship indicates that, alongside the entrepreneurial identity, meaningful non-entrepreneurial identities are likely to influence individuals' entrepreneurial endeavors and venture decisions (Huyghe et al., 2016)

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Passion is at the core of entrepreneurship, because it can bring up creativity and the acknowledgement of new information relationships dire to the breakthrough and utilization of encouraging prospects (Baron, 2008; Sundararajan and Peters, 2007). Moreover, passion has stood linked with entrepreneurs' ability to raise funds from investors (Cardon et al., 2009b; Mitteness et al., 2012; Sudek, 2006), and to hire and motivate key employees (Cardon, 2008). Consequently, intellectuals have pushed for a profounder understanding of passion as a central element of entrepreneurial determinations (Cardon et al., 2009a; Chen et al., 2009).

An increasing bulk of research designates that entrepreneurial passion – which encompasses intense positive emotions and a meaningful identity connection – is essential to the entrepreneurial experience and venture-related outcomes. Preceding findings, however, have ignored that non-entrepreneurial passions may also shape the new venture creation process. Consequently, it is pertinent to uncover the consequences of multiple passions coming together in a person. Drawing on passion literature (Cardon et al., 2009b; Vallerand et al., 2003) and identity theory (Stets and Burke, 2000; Stryker and Burke, 2000),

In spite of this curiosity for understanding the nature, causes and effects of entrepreneurial passion, there is a scarcity of systematic empirical evidence for the role of passion in entrepreneurship. At the core of this problem, scholars and practitioners have required a vigorous and validated instrument for evaluating passion and its dimensions in the specific context of entrepreneurship. In accumulation, existing research has failed to
articulate the theoretically-relevant relationships between the experience of intense positive feeling commonly associated with passion, and the meaning of these feelings for entrepreneurs’ self-identity (Cardon et al., ).

1.3 Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to establish the relationship between dimensions of entrepreneur passion and entrepreneur’s self-identity.

1.4 Research Questions

1.4.1 What impact does entrepreneurship passion for founding have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

1.4.2 What impact does entrepreneurship passion for developing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

1.4.3 What impact does entrepreneurship passion for inventing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

1.5 Significance of the study

1.5.1 Entrepreneurs

The study hopes to be of significance to entrepreneurs who aspire to and understand the drive behind their desire for entrepreneurship.

1.5.2 Policy makers

The study will establish international practices around the world, KIXP current practices and how best to improve them.

1.5.3 Researchers

It shall provide a better understanding of how internet exchange point operate and the key role they play in transforming our ecosystem.
1.6 Scope of Study

The scope of study will be entrepreneurs drawn from different industries who were about (50) and are all based in Nairobi.

The limitations perceived will be of access of information because of sensitivity and confidentiality. The timeframe of conducting the research will be approximately six (6) months.

1.7 Definition of Terms

1.7.1 Passion

Is a strong inclination toward an activity that people like, find important, and in which they invest significant time and energy” (Vallerand et al., 2003).

1.7.2 Entrepreneurial passion

A consciously accessible, intense positive feelings toward entrepreneurial tasks and activities, associated with roles that are meaningful and noticeable to one's self-identity (Cardon et al., 2009).

1.7.3 Entrepreneur

An individual who recognize and exploit new business opportunities by founding new ventures (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000).

1.7.4 Fear of failure

Is the process of appraising threats in evaluative situations with the potential for failure (Conroy et al., 2002, 2003).

1.8 Chapter Summary

The study looked into portraying the experience of passion in uncommon domains of entrepreneurship that are inventing, founding and developing. Over a sequence of findings with diverse samples of entrepreneurs that will support the dimensions of entrepreneurship passion (intense positive feelings and identity centrality) are theoretically and empirically dissimilar from each other and from other aspects of emotion and cognition known to perform a task in entrepreneurship. More importantly,
we demonstrate that relationships between entrepreneurship passion and relevant outcomes are a function of interactions between intense positive feelings towards activities associated with each domain and the identity centrality of that domain to the entrepreneur.

Chapter 2 will be based on the questions for the research which establish the role of self-identity in entrepreneurial passion. The subsequent chapter 3, 4 and 5, will be based on the research methodology, data collection instrument and the results and findings of the research respectively.
CHAPTER TWO

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews past literature on entrepreneurial passion on its relation to self-identity and entrepreneurial domains. It also take a look into the research questions that will help to establish the dimension of entrepreneur’s passion across different domains. The gaps arising from these consideration formed the basis of the study.

In measuring entrepreneurial passion is to put into the fact on significance of passion's intense positive feelings and identity centrality concerning assignments and actions purposely relevant to entrepreneurship. Though the general position of becoming an entrepreneur might be the objective of passion (Murnieks, 2007; Murnieks et al., 2012), an additional approach concentrates on three dissimilar roles that unlike entrepreneurs may encounter differently, but are regularly located at the center of the entrepreneurial process that is inventing new products or services, founding new organizations, and developing these organizations outside their original existence and accomplishments (Cardon et al., 2009a).

Every of these functions contains different sets of errands and actions reflecting the challenges linked with dissimilar features of the entrepreneurial process (Katila and Ahuja, 2002)

2.2 Entrepreneur’s Passion for Founding

According to (Gielnik et al., 2015) the second factor of entrepreneurial passion is the one that describes the provoking, pleasant, encouraging disposition of experiencing passion. It is this affirmative feelings element that has offered mixed outcomes in prior investigation on the temporal inconsistency of entrepreneurial passion. In one study, conducted on 122 CEOs of relatively established, U.S. firms (on average 7.9 years old and 22 employees), intense positive feelings did not change significantly over time (Cardon et al., 2013). In another study, however, conducted on 54 German entrepreneurs in their prelaunch stage, 52 per cent of the variance in intense positive feelings was within-person variance, indicating significant temporal variability
Although (Cardon et al., 2013) concentrated on fairly founded, mature firms, Gielnik et al. (2015) concentrated on entrepreneurs in the early stages of their venture’s lifecycle. The distinctive environment of the firms studied is hypothetically vital because of the general improbability integral to founding a venture (Zahra and Dess, 2001). At the beginning, founders are not sure of customer demand (e.g., customer preferences, willingness to pay), technology and competition (McKelvie et al., 2011). While entrepreneurs phase doesn’t matter they usually encounter dynamic and volatile environments, thus sensible to ascertain that unpredictability is an important influence in the early founding stages of a venture when entrepreneurs are still in the midst of trying to identify their market, business model and positioning (Frese and Gielnik, 2014). Hence, given this pervasive uncertainty, we agree with (Gielnik et al., 2015) that variability in intense positive feelings for early-stage entrepreneurs is likely.

This outcome should be even more impactful for founding entrepreneurs who, have an impact of a hostile and unreliable economic environment, may see their hope as an entrepreneur threatened. Given that identity risks have been revealed to undesirably impact positive emotions (Marcussen et al., 2004; Shepherd and Cardon, 2009), we are inclined that a decrease in entrepreneurs’ strong positive feelings concerning founding is possible (Di Tella et al., 2003).

Based on findings by Cooper (2000), lead entrepreneurs or founders often surround themselves with a team of capable managers and directors, but there will be heavy reliance upon the entrepreneur to provide direction and motivation to those in the organization. Family business literature recognizes the influential position of founders.

Due to their long tenures and the centrality of their position in their family and business, founders exert considerable influence on the culture and performance of their companies during and beyond their tenure (Kelly et al., 2000; McConaughy, 2000; García-Alvarez et al., 2002; Andersen et al., 2003). More recent efforts have been made to understand the leadership styles adopted by such entrepreneurs and their relationship with other family and non-family members (Sorenson, 2000; Aldrich and Cliff, 2003; Lubatkin et al., 2003). Research by Mindscreen (Devereux and Popplestone, 2001) revealed that the founder had a lesser degree of stability and is more likely to exhibit greater challenge
motivation and a higher need to attain results. Furthermore, Mindscreen’s research found that co-founders ranked social motives higher than the founders as a reason for setting up in businesses with others.

2.2.1 Entrepreneurship Passion

The primary necessity for determining entrepreneurship passion is to encapsulate the involvement of intense positive feelings. Intense positive feelings are fundamental to academic research on passion in psychology (Damasio, 2003; Schwarz and Clore, 2007), organizational behavior (Liu et al., 2011), and entrepreneurship (Baum and Locke, 2004; Baum et al., 2001; Chen et al., 2009; Perttula, 2010).

According to (Vallerand et al., 2003), we do not conceive of entrepreneurship passion as a personality trait, but rather as an emotional occurrence that one may encounter when participating in or contemplating about particular happenings. Passion thus entails of intensely felt positive feelings for something significant to the entrepreneur and, as an outcome, is more lasting than the encounter of episodic emotions correlated with external stimuli (Wincent et al., 2008).

In accumulation to differentiating passion from more involuntary and intervallic emotions, we abide by aforementioned work that describe passion as referring to intense positive feelings that are consciously accessible (Cardon et al., 2009a). This impression denotes that human being may mirror on the greatness of their feelings vis-à-vis different tasks and activities. When individuals are passionate about an activity, they cannot help but to think about that activity (Chen et al., 2009).

2.2.2 Passion in Relation to Awareness

Passion is frequently has to do a lot with “love,” be it love in romantic associations, or in nonromantic situations such as work. Social psychologists have treated passion as a motivational construct that contains affective, cognitive, and behavioral components. Vallerand et al., (2003) defined passion as “a strong inclination toward an activity that people like [affective], that they find important [cognitive], and in which they invest time and energy [behavioral]”. Comparably, (Perttula, 2003) defined passion for one’s work as “a psychological state characterized by intense positive emotional arousal, internal drive
and full engagement with personally meaningful work activities”. The two explanations recommend that passion assists guide one’s interest and activities and that it is a domain-specific motivational hypothesis. It is domain-specific as one needs to have a target of love for passion, and this goal is frequently a detailed activity or a compilation of activities that exemplify certain understood or unambiguous values. Consequently, an individual can be passionate about swimming, a sole interest mirroring accomplishment or pleasure-seeking as significance, or one can be fervent about aiding others through offering help and raising money for charities, numerous happenings reflecting generosity as significance (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001).

In the entrepreneurship sources, endeavors to describe passion dole out a mutual importance on influence, especially positive influence. For example, (Baum and Locke, 2004) called passion (for work) “love” for work (Shane et al., 2003) called it a “selfish love of work” (Smilor, 1997) defined passion as the “enthusiasm, joy, and even zeal that come from the energetic and unflagging pursuit of a worthy, challenging, and uplifting purpose and thus effectively qualified it as an affective experience that accompanies actions laden with value. Another explanation (Cardon et al., 2009b) defined it as consciously accessible intense positive feelings experienced by engagement in entrepreneurial activities, associated with roles that are meaningful and noticeable to the self-identity of the entrepreneur.

Developing on these characterizations from the social psychological and entrepreneurship literatures, we explain “entrepreneurial passion” as an entrepreneur’s intense emotional condition along with their perceptive and interactive displays of high individual worth. We elucidate two features of this explanation with better clearness. First, the intense emotional state is attended by perception and actions. Passionate individuals not only feel strong emotions—their minds are also tremendously functional e.g. “I can’t hold back on thinking about the enterprise venture proposal” and they will likely implement their passion (Baron, 2008).

2.2.3 Passion in Relation Persistence

Entrepreneurial passion, which encompasses affirmative and powerful feelings focused with respect to entrepreneurially relevant identity-important activities and roles, may be
an essential driver of persistence (Cardon et al., 2009b) founded on both the personality and emotional constituents of passion.

Explanations are there to support why the identity trait of entrepreneurial passion could be associated to persistence. Initially, individuals who correlate more compellingly with a specific identity e.g. as swimmer, entrepreneur or nutritionist, are in addition persistent and display superior accomplishment concerning related goals. This self-definition entails connecting an individual’s identity with a specific behavior or procedure of behaving, separate from the results one realizes (Houser-Marko & Sheldon, 2006). This happens grounded on the self-concordance standard (Sheldon & Elliot, 1999; Sheldon & Houser-Marko, 2001), which is founded on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000). In the self-concordance model, individuals follow goals longer when they appreciate the very course of following the goal or when they identify with the values represented by the goal (Houser-Marko & Sheldon, 2006). They keep it up in such goal quest because of their recognition with the encounter in certain types of actions, even if they do not have abilities or reasons to anticipate accomplishment (Houser-Marko & Sheldon, 2001). They also persist when they are positively inclined to an activity even and yet they may not specifically enjoy the activity at the moment. Fundamentally, persons go all out for identity germaneness and consonance in their conducts (Stets & Burke, 2000), since when identities are assimilated into the self-concept, individuals are intensely persuaded to act in a manner coherent with those identities (Murnieks et al., 2012).

A case scenario is an entrepreneur who goes through the founder identity as especially key to their self-identity may not appreciate the activities related with founding a firm e.g. coming up with venture values may not be that thrilling, but due to their association with the founder identity and the relationship between that identity and the specific action, they will still participate in the action so that they are acting consistently with the role of founder and to exhibit their obligation to the identity of founder to themselves. Equally, passion for the inventor role (Cardon et al., 2009b) is linked with behavior pertinent to that role, such as aggressively and methodically skimming the environment for venture proposals (Fiet, 2007), and also long term objectives supporting the standards of an inventor, such as recognizing disparities in the market and ways to exploit on those disparities. When particular positions and standards linked with them are identity
significant, involving in behaviors correlated with those roles emphasizes the individual’s self-identity (Houser-Marko & Sheldon, 2006) and inspires further determination in such behaviors.

In accumulation to the identity-related relationship linking entrepreneurial passion and persistence, the emotional factor of entrepreneurial passion would precedent to greater persistence. The experience of positive influence is interpreted as things are going well, and hence no need to review or alter an individual’s present actions and trend (Seo et al., 2004;). Individuals undergoing positive emotional conditions characteristically try to preserve their hence more likely to continue with their present strategy of action (Pham, 2004). Furthermore, positive affect in entrepreneurs has been related to enhanced exertions toward prospective objectives (Foo et al., 2009). When individual’s present objectives are archived, they move on to other ambitions (Carver & Scheier, 2003) and remain to continue with exploits that further strengthen their impression of positive well-being.

2.3 Entrepreneur’s Passion on Developing

We theorize that the feeling of entrepreneurial passion is supportively related to venture growth There are two different opinions holding the theorized relationship, grounded on the two factors of entrepreneurial passion (Cardon et al., 2013; Cardon and Kirk, 2015; Cardon et al., 2005, 2009b). According to (Schwarz and Clore, 1996) Initial, positive feelings related with entrepreneurial passion for developing offers high tech entrepreneurs with knowledge that conveys positive evaluation of the present status and a go ahead to participate in further entrepreneurial pursuits.

Another instance is that positive feelings of entrepreneurial passion for developing are related to increased venture growth because of the identity centrality of such feelings. Identity theory and research on function identities in entrepreneurship insinuate that entrepreneurs reflect of their role identities (Cardon et al., 2013; Fauchart and Gruber, 2011), act in ways to realize their identity as an entrepreneur (Shepherd et al., 2009), and seek to protect that identity as it reinforces their self-concept (Murnieks et al., 2014).
Albert et al., (2000) asserts that entrepreneurs go through strong feelings such as entrepreneurial passion for activities correlated with role identities that are key to them e.g. developing the venture, they labor diligently to hold identities and are involved in resourceful problem solving and show determination toward their objective. Entrepreneurs undergo through entrepreneurial role identity (Murnieks, 2007) and work toward establishing identity (Fauchart and Gruber, 2011; Murnieks et al., 2014).

Emotions are influencing when that are important to the individual (Izard, 2009), as is after an entrepreneur encounters passion for a specific role identity. In addition, (Albert et al., 2000) discuss that ‘notions of identity and identification are imbued with enthusiasm and emotion, which supports the course and perseverance of personal and more shared behaviors.’ If a high tech entrepreneur is predominantly passionate about developing a venture, this implies he/she will be motivated to develop his/her business, preferably than assenting its present accomplishment stages. Passion for developing consequently leads to superior incentive to participate in activities related with venture growth, such as growing accomplishment on separate objectives, such as firm size, market size, or profits.

### 2.3.1 Entrepreneur Passion to Venture Development

Although few rigorous academic studies about entrepreneurial passion exist, some recent studies have alluded to the importance of passion in venture performance. For example, (Baum et al., 2001) empirically tested a multidimensional model of venture growth, with one of their main predictors being passion. These authors found that entrepreneurs’ traits, including tenacity, proactivity, and passion for work, exerted positive effects on venture growth. More importantly, passionate entrepreneurs also showed greater motivation and a higher propensity to grow their ventures when compared to others in their sample.

A few others have studied the role of social competence and its influence on entrepreneurs’ financial success. Baron and Markman (2000, 2003), for example, found that self-reported expressiveness (one’s tendency and ability to express emotions) was positively related to entrepreneurs’ business incomes and their companies’ sales revenues. They concluded that the perceived expressiveness of an individual’s emotion in a social setting is a predictor of the financial success of entrepreneurial ventures (Spence et al., 1999). In another study, (Baron and Tang, in press) demonstrated that entrepreneurs’
expressiveness was a significant predictor of financial results such as growth in sales, earnings, and employment in new ventures in China. Recently, (Baron, 2008) stated that high levels of affect not only made entrepreneurs more persuasive, but also contributed to the breadth of their social networks, which in turn increased their social capital. As a result of increased social capital, these entrepreneurs had a higher probability of achieving success in new ventures.

In contrast to these studies, (Elsbach and Kramer’s, 2003) study provided direct evidence supporting the notion that VCs may consider perceived entrepreneurial passion when they make investment funding decisions. Elsbach and Kramer documented how studio executives and producers (investors, in this context) engaged in “prototype matching” to assess the creative potential of relatively unknown screenwriters (“pitchers”) in Hollywood pitch meetings. Within the first few minutes of a pitch, producers quickly categorized the pitcher into a preexisting prototype, within either a “creative” category (e.g., “artist,” “storyteller”) or an uncreative category (e.g., “journeyman”). One of the most important attributes used in identifying the creative prototypes was passion, which was mentioned frequently in all forms of their data (interviews, observations, and archives); that is, the attributes identified by informants that led to a match with the creative prototypes all included the word “passionate,” whereas for the uncreative prototypes, the word was not mentioned. These findings suggest that passion plays an important role in investment decisions for ventures that capitalize on innovativeness and creativity.

We speculate that the judgments about passion represented in (Elsbach and Kramer’s, 2003) data were based on information from two sources: the nonverbal cues a pitcher displayed (affective), and the content of the script being pitched itself (cognitive). A well-written script with a thoughtful plot and unexpected yet reasonable ending reveals the time, effort, and resources the author has invested, or how prepared he is. Thus, how well prepared one is as important as how enthusiastic one is in predicting whether a script will be successful or not. Similarly, the quality of a business plan should reflect the cognitive preparedness of the entrepreneur who offers it—that is, whether he or she would be ready to take the proposed venture forward if resources were provided. In this regard, the business plan serves as an important indicator of a venture’s potential for success.
The extant entrepreneurship literature does little to inform us about how entrepreneur passion influences venture creation decision-making process as it occurs in the context of business plan presentations. Although it is widely acknowledged in the popular press and in entrepreneurship circles that displaying passion is essential in acquiring funding for new ventures, there is little empirical research demonstrating such a phenomenon or exploring its theoretical underpinnings. It is this gap that we attempt to address in our study.

2.3.2 Linking Passion to Individual Entrepreneurial Behavior

Scholars have shown that a passionate love for work impacts venture growth (Baum & Locke, 2004; Baum et al., 2001) and have theorized that it leads directly to individual persistence (Chandler & Jansen, 1992), absorption (or flow [Csikszentmihalyi, 1990], where entrepreneurs are so caught up in their activities that they enter a flow-like state and lose all sense of time and their surroundings), and creative problem solving (Cardon et al., 2009b; Zhou & George, 2001).

Concerning general harmonious passion and behavior, (Vallerand, 2008) and his colleagues have assembled a consistent body of evidence indicating that harmonious passion propels associated behavior. Across various different samples, they have demonstrated that higher levels of harmonious passion are significantly related to increased persistence or practice in behavior among musicians (Mageau et al., 2009), dramatic arts students (Vallerand et al., 2007), swimmers and skiers (Mageau et al., 2009), and basketball players (Vallerand et al., 2008). (Vallerand et al., 2007) contend that these relationships emerge from the fact that harmonious passion stimulates a “major motivational force” impelling behavior. As such, it delivers fuel and intrinsic energy to persistently engage in a meaningful activity. Cardon et al., 2009 similarly reaffirm this link between entrepreneurial passion and entrepreneurial behavior. They argue that increased entrepreneurial passion leads to greater entrepreneurial persistence because engagement in related tasks validates and bolsters the entrepreneurial identity. The positive feelings associated with entrepreneurs’ passion and with fulfillment of the passionate activities serve to induce repeated engagement in a search for prolonged pleasant affect. Following the work of these researchers, we contend that at the individual level, entrepreneurs’ passion should drive increased entrepreneurial behavior.
2.4 Entrepreneur’s Passion for Inventing

For more than half a century, research and development has been closely associated with technological innovation (Miller and Morris, 1999). Invention is the narrowest definition of innovation. (Drucker, 1994) maintained that there are seven basic sources of opportunities to innovate. Only one of them is to do with inventing something new. Innovation is thus more than invention, and does not have to be technical. There are numerous examples of social and economic innovations (Drucker, 1994). Innovation is a proposed theory or design concept that synthesizes extant knowledge and techniques to provide a theoretical basis for a new concept (Sundbo, 1998; Bright, 1969). Innovation thus has many facets and is multidimensional. The most prominent innovation dimensions can be expressed as dualisms: radical versus incremental; product versus process; and administrative versus technological (Cooper, 1998).

Innovation can be radical and incremental. Radical innovations refer to path-breaking, discontinuous, revolutionary, original, pioneering, basic, or major innovations (Green et al., 1995). Incremental innovations are small improvements made to enhance and extend the established processes, products, and services. However, this contradistinction does not “necessarily [correspond] to the more fine-tuned reality” because “radicalism is a continuum” (Katila, 2002). Product innovation, as the name suggests, “reflects change in the end product or service offered by the organizations, [whereas] process innovation represents changes in the way firms produce end products or services” (Cooper, 1998). Some researchers have categorized innovation into technological and administrative innovations. Technological innovation is about “the adoption of a new idea that directly influences the basic output processes, [whereas] administrative innovations include changes that affect the policies, allocation of resources, and other factors associated with the social structure of the organization” (Cooper, 1998).

A number of entrepreneurs look for innovative proposals that are more profound than others (Katila and Ahuja, 2002), and the yearning to be innovative in the marketplace is mostly an essential inspiration for entrepreneurs. Individuals encountering passion for inventing may aggressively pursue novel opportunities, appreciate the process in creating new product or service proposals, and enjoy inventing new answers to essential needs and problems. Such people appreciate altering with new product designs. A case scenario is
Steve Jobs - the Apple Macintosh, the iPod, and the iPhone were all recognized for the strong admiration they had shown regarding inventing and developing new products or services and exploring their commercial application.

2.4.1 Entrepreneurship Orientation
Following this introductory article by (Ndubisi and Agarwal, 2014) which analyzed the direct and indirect effects of innovation and entrepreneurial orientation on service performance of small and medium enterprises in a developing Asian economy. The authors draw from the strategic management literature in theorizing and modeling the relationships, which were tested in small information technology firms. Findings indicate a significant direct and indirect positive relationship between entrepreneurship orientation dimensions and three types of innovation and quality performance. Innovation mediates in the relationship of entrepreneur orientation with quality performance.

The article adds to extant strategic management literature, resource-based view and dynamic capabilities theories, as well as contributes to managerial practice by underscoring the need for owner-managers of small enterprises to pursue EO-focused and innovation enhancement strategies in an integrated manner.

2.4.2 The Conceptual Relationship between Entrepreneurship and Innovation
The conceptual relationship between entrepreneurship and innovation has been discussed in the literature for many years. The economics of innovation, in particular, have attracted increased attention in recent years (Grupp, 2001, Arora et al., 2002). Sundbo (1998) summarized the basic theories of the economics of innovation and identified three competing paradigms in the current theoretical discussion of innovation: entrepreneur paradigm, technology-economics paradigm and strategic paradigm.

The entrepreneur paradigm can be traced back to the 1930s when (Schumpeter, 1934) first attempted to establish a linkage between entrepreneurs and innovation in theory, and viewed the entrepreneur as innovator. He maintained that innovation contributes to the growth of the economy because entrepreneurs produce innovations. The concept of the entrepreneur as innovator underpins the entrepreneur paradigm in which the role of the entrepreneur is highlighted in the innovation process. According to this paradigm, only a
person who founds a new company on the basis of a new idea can be called an entrepreneur. Entrepreneurship is viewed as a creative act and an innovation.

Entrepreneurship is about creating something that did not previously exist. The creation adds value to the individual and the community, and is based upon perceiving and capturing an opportunity (Johnson, 2001). (Legge and Hindle, (1997) they regarded entrepreneurship as a change of state, a dynamic process, and a unique event and believed that people who lead teams and organizations to introduce innovations are entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurs seek opportunities, and innovations provide the instrument by which they might succeed. Corporate entrepreneurship often refers to the introduction of a new idea, new products, a new organizational structure, a new production process, or the establishment of a new organization by (or within) an existing organization. As (Herbig et al., 1994) have observed: “Innovation requires three basic components: the infrastructure; the capital; and the entrepreneurial capacity needed to make the first two work”.

Innovation is the specific tool of entrepreneurship by which entrepreneurs exploit change as an opportunity for a different business or service. There is considerable overlap between entrepreneurship and innovation (Sundbo, 1998, Drucker, 1994, Schumpeter, 1934). Moreover, innovation has to address market needs, and requires entrepreneurship if it is to achieve commercial success (Zhao, 2001).

Stakeholders vary between the two disciplines; entrepreneurship primarily involves the entrepreneur and networks, whereas innovation involves the organization. Diversity of process adds synergies across the disciplines (Maritz & Donovan, 2013).

2.4.3 Innovative Entrepreneurship as a Skill
Researchers have long debated whether or not entrepreneurship can be taught, thus, is a malleable skill, an expression of a personality trait such as risk-taking that must be in-born or established at an early age, or some combination of both. Although few would dispute that education is integral to the success of a nation’s economic development (McMullan 1988; McMullan and Long 1987), many would suggest that innovation is
not something that necessarily can be taught, clinging to the mantra, "you either have it or you don't."

Since the field of innovative entrepreneurship is relatively new, advocates for linking entrepreneurship education to innovation are beginning to make such an argument: "Education and training ... play a key role in the innovation arms race that is essential to sustain economic growth in any economy" (Baumol et al. 2007b). Business firms cannot succeed "unless their managers and workers have the skills necessary to generate innovations or, at the very least, to recognize and purchase the rights to innovations developed by others" (Baumol et al., 2007b).

Many of these arguments emerge from studies of general entrepreneurship education and its role in teaching the entrepreneurial skills needed to be effective and productive citizens in a capitalist economy. A survey of entrepreneurship education research published between 1985 and 1994 concluded that entrepreneurship can be taught, and that educational programs can positively influence an individual's entrepreneurial attributes (Gorman et al. 1997). In addition, there appears to be a positive relationship between education and successful entrepreneurial ventures, manifested by start-up companies and self-employment (Chiloski, 2001). Credit for such successes can be traced to entrepreneurship education, providing not only didactic knowledge needed for such endeavors but also giving students the confidence to assume the risks inherent to business ownership (Kourilsky and Walstad 2000).

The relationship between entrepreneurship education and entrepreneurial success has also been established by correlating degree attainment with successful performance indicators, such as growth, profits, or earning power. In short, (Van der Sluis et al., 2005) found that the higher the level of an entrepreneur’s education-through the baccalaureate level-the higher the level of performance of his or her venture. (Weaver et al. 2006) echo’s this assertion, stating that the "highest levels of entrepreneurship" are associated with "individuals with at least some college education," but education beyond a bachelor's degree "has generally not been found to be positively linked to entrepreneurship" (Weaver et al. 2006).

Based on this part of the review, we included measures of personality as model covariates. This strategy enabled us to differentiate between the amount of variance in the criterion (i.e., intention to innovate) explained by variables
measuring personality (i.e., nature) from those measuring higher education experiences, course-taking behaviors and educational practices. We turn now to a discussion of these experiences.

2.5 Entrepreneur’s Self-Identity

Identity theory, with its origins in social psychology, creates tasks and identities as the foundation of an individual's self-concept, which progresses from an early age over the lifetime and affords a good judgment of individuality, meaning and orientation in life (Hogg et al., 1995; Stets and Burke, 2000; Stryker and Burke, 2000). Identities are cognitive schemas that arise from similarity and identification with societal positions that a person seizes or wishes to occupy (Stets and Burke, 2000; Stryker and Burke, 2000). The principal of an identity is the internalization of outside behavioral anticipations related with a part into the self-concept (Stets and Burke, 2000; Stryker, 1968; Thoits, 1986). The further one recognizes oneself as consistent with character denotations and benchmarks, the more likely one will assume that function (Gecas, 1982).

Consequently, role identities ideal choices and activities (Burke, 1991; Stets and Burke, 2000) as individuals are highly encouraged to perform in a means reliable with their identities (Burke and Reitzes, 1981; McCall and Simmons, 1978). Through realizing such an identity-behavior fit, people approve and back their self-concept (Stets and Burke, 2000). Additionally, individuals possess not just one but a collection of role identities (Stryker and Burke, 2000). These numerous characteristics within one's self-concept are ordered on hierarchical foundation such that an identity placed better in the hierarchy is additionally evident, more likely to be ratified to produce powerful optimistic sentiments than those positioned lower (Murnieks and Mosakowski, 2006; Stryker, 2004; Stryker and Serpe, 1994). Furthermore, numerous character identities can appear collected in guiding an individual's actions, thus improving or hampering one another (Ashforth, 2000; Stryker and Burke, 2000).

Significantly, identity theory additionally debates that the self-concept is futuristic in that it seeks authentication for a role one anticipates to acquire (Hoyle and Sherrill, 2006). Subsequently, a lot of studies show that individuals hold probable hoped-for identities that have the similar features as present identities (Strauss et al., 2012). As function of
one's self-concept, potential identities also lead and inspire goal-oriented behavior, regularly to the point that a conceivable role will transform to a definite one (Hoang and Gimeno, 2010).

Due to their domain-specificity, outstanding probable identities impact behavior in the part of an individual life to which they are associated. Conceivable identities have been demonstrated to help build and enable career changes in overall (Ashforth, 2000; Strauss et al., 2012) and the move on to entrepreneurship (Hoang and Gimeno, 2010) or academic entrepreneurship (Jain et al., 2009) in specific. Drawing on these theoretical considerations, we contend that a person can possess multiple passions, connected to actual and/or possible role identities, which can either reinforce or work against each other (dependent on complementary or competing nature of the identities).

Entrepreneurial characters are prone to be regarded by general significances or activities associated to the unearthing, assessment, and utilization of opportunities (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000), as well as precise entrepreneurial activities like inventing new products, and founding and developing new companies (Cardon et al., 2009; Cardon & Glauser, 2010).

2.5.1 Identity Theory
Studies in social psychology have portrayed that identity has an important function in determining conduct and inspiring action (Stets and Burke, 2000). Identity is correlated with culturally outlined social functions that encompass the set of named groupings that people acquire to employ to themselves and others (Burke, 2004). Every single identity relays a set of behavioral prospects appreciating particular behaviors that persons are supposed to stick to in a role (Stryker and Burke, 2000).

Identities are compellingly inspirational. Taking into action their behavioral principles validates imperative self-conceptions, steering to certain influence and self-esteem; inconsistent actions are related with negative emotions. Since identities are entrenched in social groups, identity- coherent behavior causes affirmative outcomes from appreciating others while discrepancy brings disdain and contempt (Stryker and Burke, 2000).
When an individual has an outstanding entrepreneurial identity, they are propelled to participate in venture creation to confirm a significant self-conception (Cardon et al., 2009b; Hoang and Gimeno, 2010; Murnieks and Mosakowski, 2006; Murnieks et al., 2012). Researchers propose that the behavioral anticipations of the entrepreneurial identity are not reduced to profit-seeking and may comprise activities such as innovation, dynamism, perseverance, and risk-taking (Hoang and Gimeno, 2010; Murnieks and Mosakowski, 2006). Entrepreneurs may associate with a particular aspect of the venture creation process, such as inventing, founding, and developing, (Cardon et al., 2009b) or with the purposes of their firm (Fauchart and Gruber, 2011; Hiatt et al., 2009; Lounsbury and Glynn, 2001; Navis and Glynn, 2011). The procedure and results of entrepreneurial action have been shown to differ in respect to founders specific identities (Fauchart and Gruber, 2011; Powell and Baker, 2014).

2.5.2 Associating Identity Centrality to Passion

Researchers emphasize that passion is associated to identities (Vallerand et al., 2007) and that entrepreneurial passion is related to entrepreneurial identities (Cardon et al., 2009b; Murnieks, 2007; Murnieks & Mosakowski, 2006). In spite of this entrepreneurial identities being inherent in the self-concept they are convoluted entities, the question remains as to what attributes of identity might sway passion among entrepreneurs. Developing on the above, we contend that entrepreneurs’ passion is associated to entrepreneurial identity centrality. More explicitly, as the significance of the entrepreneurial identity ascents and descents for an individuals, so will their passion.

Individual activities are related to passion. As such, a person experiences passion regarding activities, in part, as they are important. It stands to reason then that factors influencing the perceived importance of activities might also influence the passion experienced. Superior identity centrality shows superior identity worth (Callero, 1985) and, by extension, higher activity importance. Therefore, the activities associated with verifying central identities are likely to be viewed as more important to individuals than the activities associated with less central identities. Carrying out of the actions related with exceedingly central identities directs to self-verification, which delivers emotions of self-esteem (Burke & Stets, 1999) and positive influence (Burke, 2004) for the person. Through self-esteem and positive affect, self-verification affects both the preference and emotion related with the occurrence of passion. While we give attention to the
inspirational feature of passion in this report, the responsibility of positive feelings in the passion form shouldn’t be ignored (Cardon et al., 2009b; Vallerand et al., 2003). A good illustration would be that identity philosophers are speedy to draw attention to the connections between emotions, centrality and salience of an identity (Stets, 2005; Stryker, 2004). Greatly crucial identities are likely to be linked to more formidable feelings, which could support the relation between identity centrality and passion. Shown these relationships, we argue that people are inclined to experience passion about pursuits to the point they are interrelated to substantiation of an extreme central identity.

We challenge that entrepreneurial identity centrality, rather than salience, is related to entrepreneurs’ passion due to the act of attributing significance in centrality classifications is likely to comprise an separate decision. In ascribing centrality to identities, persons work over a reasoning process where they mirror upon and think about whether or not the identity in question is significant to the self-concept (Stryker & Serpe, 1994). As this intellectual process allows a character the openness to decide which identities characterize him or her, the process is believed independent. Since identity centrality judgements are independent, the identities standing greater in centrality are more likely to be related with the happy emotions trait of passion.

2.5.3 Entrepreneurial Identity and Hierarchies
Even though entrepreneurs probably take a lot of identities in accumulation to an entrepreneurial one, they are not likely to order all these identities proportionately. Identity philosophers argue that the identities consisting of our self-concepts can be planned agreeing to two unlike orders that is centrality (McCall & Simmons, 1966) and salience (Serpe, 1987). Centrality is defined as the comparative significance that a person places upon a central identity related to other identities while salience is simply the possibility of portrayal of that central identity. McCall and Simmons (1966) deliberate on hierarchy of centrality and are cautious to isolate the significance that persons dispose on identities (centrality) from the definite likelihood of portrayal (salience). We give emphasis that hierarchies of centrality and salience should not be seen as contesting descriptions of identity organization, but relatively are balancing.
According to (Stryker and Serpe, 1994) empirically established, with a sample of 320 college students, that both identity salience and centrality are distinct and important forecasters of behavior. The major difference are that centrality necessitates the character to assign importance personally to an identity while salience does not, referring only to the possibility of authorization. As such, centrality demands conscious reflection by the individual; salience implies no such requirement. Salience is looks at the conduct, and does not make expectations whether deliberate consideration that identity goes before behavior. We maintain the conceptual distinction between these two hierarchies because many factors may drive certain identities to be enacted, or be salient, at certain points in time. Centrality is only one of these factors

2.5.4 A Dual Representation of Passion In Relation to Identity

The dualistic model of passion defines passion as a strong inclination or desire towards an activity that one likes or loves, finds important, and in which one invests time and energy (Vallerand et al., 2003). Outside this strong desire for the activity, the dualistic model proposes that passion also includes an internalization of the activity into the person’s identity such that the activity defines who he or she is e.g. am an entrepreneur; am an artist; am an athlete (Philippe et al., 2010; Vallerand et al., 2003).

Depending on how the endeavor is adopted into one’s identity and sequentially, whether the individual has charge over participating in the endeavor, there are two different types of passion that is harmonious and obsessive passion. People who exhibit harmonious passion have a strong desire to engage in the activity and this desire is within their constraint in that they can easily decide on when to take on the activity. This emanates from the point that they undergo an independent internalization of the activity, denoting that they willingly consent to the activity as significant to them devoid of any eventualities ascribed to it. They engage in the activity due to traits of the activity itself (e.g., tough, exciting) and not because of outward reasons or results linked to the activity (e.g., esteem, recognition) (Sheldon, 2002). Consequently, the activity dominates an important but not overwhelming part in the individuals’ identity, and they stay in command of the activity when they take it on. As the activity is in harmony and does not clash with other portions of the individuals’ lives, harmonious passion has been connected to helpful affective and cognitive conclusions such as positive emotions,
gratification with the activity, personal well-being and cognitive preoccupation when implementing the activity (Ho et al., 2011; Vallerand et al., 2003, 2008).

To distinguish, despite the fact obsessive passion also involves a strong longing to follow the activity, this longing is not under the person’s self-control. Particularly, the individual ‘cannot help but to engage in it due to a lack of control over internal contingencies that come to control the person and preclude the experience of volition in activity engagement’ (Philippe et al., 2010). Such obsessive passion emanates from a measured adoption of the action into one’s identity, in that the individual sees the action as significant and experiences an obligation to adopt it due to outcomes related with it (Vallerand et al., 2003). For example, an entrepreneur who internalizes his entrepreneurial work because of the social acceptance and esteem stemming from being an entrepreneur has obsessive passion. In turn, these pressures and outcomes control the individual and compel him or her to pursue the activity in order to achieve and sustain the outcomes. Consequently, obsessive passion has been shown to result in conflict with other aspects of a person’s life (Vallerand et al., 2003), psychological distress (Forest et al., 2011), and negative cognition (e.g., inability to concentrate) as well as negative affect (e.g., guilt) when not pursuing the activity (Vallerand et al., 2003).

Overall, while harmonious and obsessive passion are alike in revealing peoples aspiration to take up an activity they like or love, they are different in provisions of whether the activity rests within the person’s control i.e. in the case of harmonious passion or instead controls the person in the scenario of for obsessive passion.

2.6 Chapter Summary

In summary, we hypothesize the character of entrepreneurial passion as deliberately reachable, strong certain feelings experienced by encounter in entrepreneurial actions related with roles that are significant and obvious to the self-identity of the entrepreneur. In principle the three roles of inventing, founding and developing aim to the multi- aspect form of entrepreneurial passion across three domains of activities precisely significant to entrepreneurship. In practice, the experience of entrepreneur passion towards accomplishments are varied according to challenges face at each step of the firm's development, but also previous practices of different entrepreneurs. This shows that the
experience of entrepreneur passion does not have to be similar as some entrepreneurs can be more passionate for some activities, and less so for others. It shows that the stages of entrepreneur passion within the three domains may change with an entrepreneur's gender, age, level of education, or with the age of their current organization and number of organization they have founded in the past, among other influences. The subsequent chapter 3, 4 and 5, will be based on the research methodology, data collection instrument and the results and findings of the research respectively.

CHAPTER THREE

3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter looks at the methodology that will be used in this study. It is divided into different parts that is research design, population and sampling design, data collection methods, research procedures and data analysis methods to be observed in the study is to establish the influence of entrepreneurial passion on entrepreneurs.

3.2 Research Design

The researcher implemented the descriptive research design. The specific research design is to portray fact by determining the association between variables. The research seeks to explain the fact as it happens (Creswell, 2003) Choosing a design may be problematic by the disposal of multiple of methods, techniques, procedures, protocols and samplings plans (Cooper and Schindler, 2014).

A descriptive design has been used to determine the influence of entrepreneurial passion on entrepreneurs. The research purpose of descriptive studies are, descriptions of phenomena or characteristics associated with subject population, estimates of the propositions of a population that have these characteristics and discovery of associations among different variables (Cooper and Schindler, 2013).
3.3 Population and Sampling Design

3.3.1 Population

Population is defined as the total collection of elements whereby references have to be made (Copper and Schindler, 2008). According to Cooper and Schindler (2013), the target population are people, events or records that contain desired information and can answer the measurement questions and then determine whether a sample or census is desired.

The study population of the study was entrepreneurs and aspiring entrepreneurs drawn from different industries who were about (50) and are all based in Nairobi.

3.2.2 Sampling Design

3.2.2.1 Sampling Frame

Sampling frame is defined by Cooper and Schindler (2014) as the list of elements from which a sample is actually drawn. It is a complete and correct list of population members only. The sampling frame for this study are around 53 individuals in entrepreneurship or aspiring to be entrepreneurs and are located in Nairobi.

3.2.2.2 Sampling Technique

Random sampling technique was used in the study. According to (Teddlie & Yu, 2007) it is where each element (e.g., persons, cases) in the accessible population has an equal chance of being included in the sample, and the probability of a unit being selected is not affected by the selection of other units from the accessible population (i.e., the selections are made independently). It can be accomplished in several ways including drawing names or numbers out of a box or using a computer program to generate a sample using random numbers that start with a ‘‘seeded’’ number based on the program’s start time.

Reasons why the researcher choose a simple random is that each element has the equal probability to be selected as a sample. It is bias free. Here an element cannot come twice as sample (Haque, 2012).
3.2.2.3 Sampling Size

The formula for calculating a sample size with simple random sampling (SRS) using the “specified absolute precision” approach is presented below. This formula assumes that the investigator desires to have a 95% confidence interval (the 1.96 value in the formula).

\[
n_{srs} = \frac{N\hat{p}_{srs}\hat{q}_{srs}}{d^2(\frac{1}{N} + \frac{1}{N-1} + \hat{p}_{srs}\hat{q}_{srs})}
\]

where

- \( n_{srs} \) = sample size
- \( N \) = population size
- \( \hat{p}_{srs} \) = the estimated proportion
- \( \hat{q}_{srs} = 1 - \hat{p}_{srs} \)
- \( d \) = desired absolute precision

Population size = 53

Confidence level = 95%

Sample size = 47
3.4 Data Collection Methods

Data collection is the process of gathering relevant data to guide in the process of answering the presented research questions. Cooper et al (2014) defines data as the facts presented to the researcher from the study’s environment.

The study used both primary and secondary data. Primary data will be collected from the online web based internet exchange manager. Questionnaires will be administered through drop and pick, email and survey monkey while secondary data will be drawn from past research findings, journal and the internet.

Cardon et al., (2012) have developed a list of questions on entrepreneurship passion that we have used in our questionnaire. The questionnaires will be self-administered and shared to respondents by both pick and drop and email.

3.5 Research Procedures

A pilot test on the questionnaire was conducted to establish its validity and reliability using random sampling approach. The results from the pre-test will be analyzed using Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) and the results will be used to improve the questionnaire.

The refined questionnaires were administered to the target population of the sampling frame elements within the respective strata under survey through self-administered questionnaires both by email and self-dropping and picking. This will ensure confidentiality, accuracy and anonymity of the respondents.

3.6 Data Analysis Methods

Data analysis is the procedure of providing structure and meaning to the mass of information collected. Statistical Program for Social Sciences will be used to interpret the data (Mugenda and Mugenda, 2008). The quantitative data was analyzed using descriptive and regression statistics. General distribution which include frequency and percentage, measures of central tendency and measures of dispersion which include standard deviation and variance will be used in descriptive analysis. While correlation will be used in regression analysis.
The data is presented in figures, bar graphs, histograms, tables and pie chart for easy interpretation and understanding.

3.7 Chapter Summary

This Chapter describes the research methodology that was used by the researcher in conducting the study. The section describes the population of the study, the sampling design and frame, the sampling technique, sample size, data collection methods and analysis by use of SPSS.

The subsequent chapter will present the results and findings of the study based on the research questions which are intended to help establish is to establish the dimension of entrepreneur’s passion across different domains.
CHAPTER FOUR

4.0 RESULTS AND FINDINGS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter looks into responses of the research in regard to our research questions of the study and demographic information of respondents. The researcher was able to establish a response rate of 90.5% which was adequate for data analysis and interpretation. Out of the 53 respondents we got 5 of whom did not complete the questionnaire due to various reasons.

4.2 Demographic Information

Respondent Age Distribution

The table below shows the age distribution of respondents; those between the ages of 20 - 25 were 6.4%, 25 - 30 were 25.5%, 30 - 35 were 31.9%, 35 - 40 were 19.1%, 40 – 45 were 8.5%, 45 – 50 were 2.1% and 50 – 55 were 2.1%.

Table 4.1: Respondent Age distribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-30</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-35</td>
<td>31.9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-40</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-45</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>95.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-50</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>97.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-55</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>95.7</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 4.1: Respondent Age

Respondent Gender Distribution

The table below shows the gender distribution of respondents; Male were 23.4% and Females were 74.5%

Table 4.2: Respondent Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Valid</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>23.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>74.5</td>
<td>76.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>97.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4.2: Respondent Gender
4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.3: Descriptive Statistics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Descriptive Statistics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Respondent Gender</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondent Age</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.260</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inventing</td>
<td>5.3958</td>
<td>1.37524</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Founding</td>
<td>5.4472</td>
<td>1.36975</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing</td>
<td>5.7500</td>
<td>1.32255</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>5.4125</td>
<td>1.44707</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean is a measure of central tendency, used to obtain the average of the statistical data.

The standard deviation is a measure of dispersion which i.e. it measures how concentrated the data are around the mean; the more concentrated, the smaller the standard deviation, and vice versa. According to below, the standard deviation values of the different variables do not deviate very far from the mean values for the respective variables; that is, the outliers in the sample data of 40 participants (N) are not greatly dispersed.

4.4 Correlations

Table 4.4: Correlation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.) Respondent Gender</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.) Respondent Age</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>-.35*</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.) Inventing</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.) Founding</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>5.45</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>.86**</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.) Developing</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>.31</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.84**</td>
<td>.91**</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.) Identity</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.85**</td>
<td>.90**</td>
<td>.87**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

List wise N = 47
A Pearson correlation coefficient is a measure of linear dependence between two random variables that does not depend on units of measurement and is bounded between -1.0 and +1.0 (Wooldridge, 2012). The correlation matrix is a symmetric table of all possible correlation coefficients between a set of variables. A positive correlation coefficient between two variables implies that the linear relationship is positive, i.e. slopes upward, while a negative correlation coefficient between two variables implies that the linear relationship is negative, i.e. slopes downward (Wooldridge, 2012).

At the 0.05 level of significance, if \( p \leq 0.05 \), the Pearson correlation test is statistically significant. If \( p > 0.05 \), the Pearson correlation test is not statistically significant. Therefore, based on below, and using the 0.05 level of significance, there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the respondent age and respondent gender; \( r(38) = -0.348; \ p = 0.028 \). The relationship between inventing and the respondent gender is positive, but is not statistically significant; \( r(38) = 0.140; \ p = 0.389 \). The relationship between founding and the respondent gender is positive, but is not statistically significant; \( r(38) = 0.234; \ p = 0.147 \). There is a statistically significant positive relationship between developing and the respondent gender; \( r(38) = 0.312; \ p = 0.050 \). There is a positive but not statistically significant relationship between identity and the respondent gender; \( r(38) = 0.099; \ p = 0.542 \).

The relationship between the respondent age and the inventing, founding, developing and identity variables are all negative, and are not statistically significant, since the p – value for the variables are all greater than 0.05.

The relationship between inventing and the founding, developing and identity variables respectively are all positive, and are all statistically significant, since the p – value for the variables are all less than 0.05.

The relationship between founding and the developing and identity variables are all positive, and are all statistically significant, since the p – value for the variables are all less than 0.05.

The relationship between the developing and identity variables is positive and statistically significant, since the p – value for the identity variable is less than 0.05.
### 4.5 Model Summary

#### Table 4.5: Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.916a</td>
<td>.839</td>
<td>.827</td>
<td>.59971</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Developing, Inventing, Founding

The R-squared of the regression, sometimes called the coefficient of determination, is defined as:

\[
R^2 = \frac{SSE}{SST} = 1 - \left(\frac{SSR}{SST}\right) \quad \text{(i)}
\]

R-squared is the ratio of the explained variation (SSE) compared to the total variation (SST); thus it is interpreted as the fraction of the sample variation in y that is explained by x. The second equality in equation (i) provides another way for computing R-squared. The value of R-squared is always between 0.0 and 1.0, because SSE can be no greater than SST (Wooldridge, 2012). Intuitively, the \( R^2 \) measures the proportion of the total variation of y that can be explained by x (Koop, 2005).

Using table 4.5 above, \( R^2 = 1 - (SSE/SST) = 1 - (13.667/85.045) = 0.839 \)

R can be obtained by calculating the square root of \( R^2 \); i.e. \( \sqrt{0.839} \) to get 0.91596943. It is also the correlation between the observed and predicted values of the dependent variable.

The adjusted \( R^2 \) (for degrees of freedom), which incorporates a penalty for the addition of variables to the model, is computed as follows:

\[
R^2_{\text{adj}} = 1 - \frac{(n-1)/(n-K)}{1-R^2} \quad \text{(ii)}
\]

Where \( n \) is the sample size and \( K \) is the number of parameters. The adjusted \( R^2 \) may decline when a variable is added to the set of independent variables (Greene, 2012).

In this case, the adjusted \( R^2 \), when calculated using formula (ii) above, was found to be 0.827. This means that the fitted model explains approximately 82.7% of variations of the dependent variable, “identity”.

The standard error of the estimate is the standard deviation of the sampling distribution of the statistic (Greene, 2012). In this case, it is 0.59971.
ANOVA

Table 4.6: Anova

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regression</td>
<td>71.378</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23.793</td>
<td>66.155</td>
<td>.000b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Residual</td>
<td>13.667</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>.360</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>85.045</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Identity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Developing, Inventing, Founding

The analysis of variance test, better known as the ANOVA test, is a study of the decomposition of the total sum of squares (TSS) into two components: explained sum of squares (ESS) and residual sum of squares (RSS) from the regression viewpoint; TSS = ESS + RSS (Gujarati, 2008).

The null hypothesis here is that there is no difference among the means of the variables; $H_0 = \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3 = 0$. The alternative hypothesis is that not all $\mu$'s are equal.

Assuming that $\alpha$ is 0.05, if the p-value, denoted by “Sig.”, is less than or equal to $\alpha$, i.e. if $p \leq 0.05$, we reject $H_0$. Alternatively, if the F-value is greater than the F-tabulated value, we reject $H_0$.

The regression sum of squares measures the sample variation of the differences between the averages for each level. The residual sum of squares measures the sample variation of the variance within each level (Wooldridge, 2012).

The regression mean square is calculated by dividing the regression sum of squares by the respective degrees of freedom, denoted by “df”, to get 23.793; and the residual mean square is calculated by dividing the residual sum of squares by the respective degrees of freedom, to get 0.360, according to table 4.6 below.
The F value, also known as the test statistic, is the ratio of the mean squares. It is calculated by dividing the mean square of the regression by the mean square of the residual, and, in this case, is denoted by F(3,38) = 66.155. This value is compared to the F-tabulated value, 2.852. Since, the F-value is greater than the F-tabulated value, we reject H₀.

The p-value in this case is 0.000. And since the it is less than 0.05, we can reject the null hypothesis, and conclude that the means of the variables are significantly different; F(3,38) = 66.155; p = 0.000.

### 4.6 Coefficients of Linear Regression Model

#### Table 4.7: Linear Regression

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Unstandardized Coefficients</th>
<th>Standardized Coefficients</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B</td>
<td>Std. Error</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>(Constant)</td>
<td>-.237</td>
<td>.421</td>
<td>-.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inventing</td>
<td>.262</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Founding</td>
<td>.527</td>
<td>.180</td>
<td>.495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Developing</td>
<td>.234</td>
<td>.171</td>
<td>.214</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Dependent Variable: Identity

Using the table above, we can develop the linear regression model:

\[ y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + \varepsilon \]

Where \( y \) is the dependent variable, \( \beta_0 \) is the intercept, \( \beta_1, \beta_2, \) and \( \beta_3 \) are the parameters associated with their respective independent variables, and \( \varepsilon \) is the collective error term. When the model is substituted with the values provided in table 4.7, we are presented with the model:

\[ Identity = -0.237 + 0.262 \text{ Inventing} + 0.527 \text{ Founding} + 0.234 \text{ Developing} \]
This means that for every unit increase in inventing, a 0.262 unit increase in identity is predicted, holding all other variables constant. In the same way, for every unit increase in founding, a 0.527 unit increase in identity is predicted, holding all other variables constant. Likewise, for every unit increase in developing, a 0.234 unit increase in identity is predicted, assuming all other variables are held constant.

The standard error terms are the terms other than the independent variables that affect the dependent variable, “identity” (Wooldridge, 2012).

The standardized beta coefficients are the coefficients that are obtained if one standardized all of the variables in the regression, including the dependent and all independent variables, and ran the regression. By standardizing the variables before running the regression, all variables will be on the same scale, and one can compare the magnitude of the coefficients to see which one has more of an effect. Also, the larger betas are associated with the larger t-values and lower p-values.

The columns labeled t and Sig. in the table above are the t-statistics and their associated two-tailed p-values used in testing whether a given coefficient is significantly different from zero. Using alpha (α) = 0.05, the coefficient for inventing (0.262) is not statistically significantly different from 0, because its p-value is 0.072, which is greater than 0.05. The coefficient for founding (0.527) is significantly different from 0, because its p-value is 0.006, which is less than 0.05. The coefficient for developing (0.234) is not statistically significantly different from 0, because its p-value is 0.178, which is greater than 0.05. The intercept is not significantly different from 0 at the 0.05 alpha level, because its p value is 0.577.

4.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the study findings as per the questionnaire. The response rate study was established to be 90.5% which means that 48 questionnaires were collected from the desired 53 questionnaires. The next chapter presents the conclusion and recommendations. The subsequent chapter 5, will be based on results and findings of the research respectively.
CHAPTER FIVE

5.0 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter five presents the discussion, conclusion, and recommendations of the study, which are presented according to the research questions of the study. The summary will provide a description of the study, the discussion will be a presentation of the major findings, and the conclusions will present the end of the study and make recommendation for further research.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The aim of this study was to establish the relationship between dimensions of entrepreneurship passion and entrepreneur’s self-identity. The following were the research questions; what impact does entrepreneurship passion for founding have on entrepreneur’s self-identity? What impact does entrepreneurship passion for developing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity? What impact does entrepreneurship passion for inventing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

The research adopted descriptive statistics using the case study of Nairobi. There was a population of 53 respondents in entrepreneurship or aspiring to be entrepreneurs and are located in Nairobi. Primary data was collected with use of questionnaire. The researcher then made contact with the respondents and self–administered questionnaires that were distributed and collected. Descriptive statistic was used to examine and interpret the data. Tables were used to present the data.

Based on our findings inventing, founding and developing are highly correlated to entrepreneur’s self-identity. The three entrepreneurship passion domains are highly influenced by one’s self-identity hence enable the entrepreneur to archive his/her goal towards creating a new firm and growing to a successful venture.
5.3 Discussion

5.3.1 What impact does entrepreneurship passion for founding have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

The relationship between founding and self-identity variable is positive, and statistically significant, since the p – value for the variable is 0.23.

The relationship between founding and the respondent gender is positive, but is not statistically significant; \( r(38) = 0.234; p = 0.147 \). This findings support (Ahmed et al., 2010) that differentiating entrepreneur from non-entrepreneur on the basis of age, gender or entrepreneurial study back ground is that there is no significant relationship between these variables and intentions to become entrepreneur.

Entrepreneurs may plan to start business ventures and search for venture opportunities (Herron and Sapienza, 1992), they may stumble upon attractive opportunities that they were not seeking (Long and McMullan, 1984; Bhave, 1994), or they may feel pushed into entrepreneurship by circumstances, such as the loss of a job or the lack of other opportunities. Regardless of the path, in order for a venture to be born, an entrepreneur must undergo a gestation period. This relational view raises questions regarding how commitment to and passion for the venture may vary in different cases. The individual who actively seeks to conceive a child or venture opportunity may be more highly committed or have greater passion for the venture once it has been conceived (Cardon et al., 2005).

According to (Ismail et al., 2016) they hypothesised that Entrepreneurial Motivations do have significant influence on entrepreneurial passion and success. These findings are similar with the study by (Alam et al., 2011) which also confirms the role of motivations in entrepreneurial success. Mitchell et al., (2004) reveals that risk taking is a commitment to venturing and receptivity into the idea to start getting involved in the entrepreneurial behavior.
Fauchart and Gruber (2011) suggested that Darwinian and communitarian identities may co-exist as ‘hybrid founder identity’ and they theorized that hybrid identities might be more commonplace in the future.

In a study done by (Biraglia and Kadile, 2016) the results support the notion that being passionate about entrepreneurial founding activities is likely going to lead individuals to get involved with the intention of a business start-up. A similar effect is found when individuals perceive themselves to be creative.

Being a part of a stimuli-rich environment, such as home brewing communities, with a wide array of possibilities and examples of successful hobby to business transitions, can transform general passion for entrepreneuring into the development of context-related entrepreneurial intentions. The fact that prospective entrepreneurs decide to move ahead in the face of daunting obstacles suggests that they are highly passionate and indeed, literature indicates that passion is a very important and prevalent emotion among entrepreneurs (Cardon et al. 2012)

5.3.2 What impact does entrepreneurship passion for developing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

The relationship between the developing and identity variable is positive and statistically significant, since the p – value for the identity variable is less than 0.05.

Although other factors could affect entrepreneur’s passion for developing they are not considered in this study. According to (Caccioti et al., 2016) fear of failure comprises concerns over individuals' ability to perform actions associated with the pursuit of an opportunity or idea, and/or the development of the venture. The entrepreneurial process involves a series of stages that follow one another including the idea or conception of a business, the initiation of operations, the implementation of the business and its subsequent growth. Because each stage requires the development of resources and competencies, the process of taking action can raise concerns about the ability to support the success/survival of the venture.
According to research conducted by (Bregust et al., 2011) perceived passion for developing has a consistent positive relationship with goal clarity, which emphasizes that the communication of goals and visions by passionate entrepreneurs can also influence motivation and commitment. Further, the coefficients for the relationships between perceived passion for developing and the employees’ positive affect, as well as their goal clarity, are more than twice as large as the coefficients for the relationships between perceived passion for inventing or founding and the mediating variables.

Farmer et al., 2009 found out that full support for exploitation behaviors but less support for discovery behaviors. The effect sizes for the interaction term for exploitation behaviors were medium in magnitude. Considering that effects sizes for interactions are almost always small (Aguinis, 2005), this suggests that the motivational benefits of a strong entrepreneur identity aspiration toward impelling exploitation behaviors are particularly great for individuals who have had the opportunity to learn from prior start-up efforts.

In the case of Georgie Fallon in a study done by (Lewis, 2015) Identifying as an entrepreneur as an entrepreneur but with the caveat that she only felt comfortable with the identity at that point in the life cycle of her firm (i.e., five years after start-up). She attributed the label entrepreneur to herself willingly on the basis that she felt that she fulfilled her criteria for what constituted genuinely entrepreneurial behavior: the independent start-up of a venture; the assumption of risk in doing so; and successful firm performance (“my business is reasonably serious now”) (i.e., a track record of development; and, strong intentions in terms of firm growth). She expressed reticence as to whether she would have attributed the label entrepreneur to herself any earlier in the life of her firm. She also described how, if she ever wanted to withdraw from Willow Shoes, she “would either have someone run it for me fully, or sell it and look to start another business.” I wouldn’t see myself as an entrepreneur if I opened a dairy. I see myself as an entrepreneur because I’ve done something other people haven’t done . . . It’s about having an idea that stacked up. I always thought I would start something—always! I’m proud that it’s actually successful.
I’m five years down the track and that’s a milestone. It is successful in terms of growing, making a profit, and being thought of highly by customers and that’s what I’m proud of: that I created something that people like. And, I’m proud that I’ve still got my independence. I’m still me. I don’t feel like I’ve given anything up completely. . . . I don’t talk about what I do in business. I don’t go blabbing—I don’t need to be doing that.

Georgie identifies as consistently and comfortably with the identity of entrepreneur in 2014 as she did in 2005. What was noticeable at the more recent data collection point was the tenor of her narrative around claiming that identity: it was imbued with a greater level of confidence and vocality while maintaining the same central performance-driven definitional tenets as her earlier explanatory narrative

5.3.3 What impact does entrepreneurship passion for inventing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

The relationship between inventing and the respondent gender is positive, but is not statistically significant; $r(38) = 0.140; p = 0.389$. The relationship between inventing and self-identity variable respectively is positive, and are all statistically significant, since the $p$ – value for the variables are all less than 0.05.

The relationship between respondents age and inventing is negatively significant; $r(38); P = -0.06$. The younger the respondent the greater the ability to invent.

This result have some similarities to findings by (Ahmed et al., 2010) Innovativeness is considered to be one of the primary traits of entrepreneurs. The findings strengthen the view that the more the innovative a person is more likely he is willing to take risk and start new business ($r=0.254, p<0.003$). The findings suggest that there is strong relation between innovativeness of students and their intentions to become entrepreneur in future. Gender does not have a significant affect on the entrepreneurial intentions of students ($p<0.733$). Hence we can conclude that gender is not predictor of entrepreneurial intentions.
Existing research emphasizes that passion leads entrepreneurs to invest higher levels of energy and effort into new ventures and that entrepreneurial passion contributes to new venture success (Baum & Locke, 2004). Hence it leads to the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between entrepreneur’s passion for inventing and their self-identity.

According to a study done in Ghana by (Robson et al., 2009) it found out that entrepreneurs who had secondary level qualifications were more likely to have introduced innovations than entrepreneurs with lower level qualifications, although this was only statistically significant (10% level) for production processes. Entrepreneurs with technical and vocational qualifications showed similar levels of innovation to those with lower qualifications, and were more likely to introduce innovations in products or services (47.7%), production processes (26.2%), and products and services distribution (23.4%). This finding supports Sackey's conclusion that the returns to human capital are positive and rise with higher educational attainment, irrespective of gender (Sackey, 2005). The results from our study therefore suggest that innovation is likely to be associated with entrepreneurs from the middle class or upper class family. The data therefore support there is a positive relation between entrepreneur’s passion for innovation and Self – identity.

Studies done by Zhao (2005) that explored the synergy between entrepreneurship and innovation in various organization and it found out that they all demonstrated incremental innovation, proactivity to market dynamics, and a willingness to take risks if necessary (Slevin and Covin, 1990). The case studies illustrate that entrepreneurship and innovation are dynamic and holistic processes that are not confined to the initial stage of a start up. Entrepreneurship continuously looks for and creates opportunities, thus stimulating the generation of innovations. In this respect, Drucker (1994) has observed that McDonald’s, an established fast-food franchise, demonstrated entrepreneurship when it dramatically increased yield from resources by creating a new market and a new customer. From this findings we could deduce that entrepreneur’s passion influences his or her traits according to the environmental condition they find themselves, in order for them to adapt and advance towards their objective.
5.4 Conclusion

5.4.1 Impact of entrepreneurship passion for founding on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

From our findings there is a significant relationship between self-identity of the entrepreneur and his/her passion for founding a firm. This could be due to the entrepreneur highly feeling the need to setting up new a firm. We believe founding of firms could be influenced through other external factors like one’s environment, family background etc. that could represent particular opportunities that an entrepreneur could have a certain inclination to attempt.

Past research has shown many publicly listed firms are owned and controlled by their founding families. For the USA, (Anderson and Reeb, 2003) report that 35 percent of S&P 500 firms are influenced by their founding family.

Our findings lends belief to a possible self—a desired identity to be an entrepreneur—as having potentially powerful effects on entrepreneurial activity, particularly at the start-up or gestational phase. This study supports (Hoang and Gimeno, 2007) assertions that founder perceptions of the entrepreneur role are an important factor in understanding the link between identity and entrepreneurial action.

5.4.2 Impact of entrepreneurship passion for developing on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

From the study there is a higher positive relation between identity and founding as compared to the relation between identity and developing. The study recommends that future studies of entrepreneur’s passion incorporate both of intense positive feelings and self-identity as they contribute to an important part of passion. According to Cardon et al. (2009a) observed, that the future work in using entrepreneurial passion is needed to include direct assessment of; the meaningfulness of individual role identities for the entrepreneur…, the intensity of positive feelings for activities associated with individual role identities…, and a rule for combining the preceding evaluations to develop a composite or latent entrepreneurial passion score for each identity.
5.4.3 Impact of entrepreneurship passion for inventing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

From the study there is a higher positive relation between identity and founding as compared to the relation between identity and inventing.

Innovation and entrepreneurship are in relationship, Where innovation supports in organizations and innovation promotes new entry or new venture creation – a vehicle for commercialization of innovations (Nubisi, 2014).

5.5 Recommendations

5.5.1 Recommendations for the study

5.5.1 Impact of entrepreneurship passion for founding on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

The study recommends that future studies of entrepreneur’s passion for founding should include other external factors like one’s environment, family background etc. that could represent particular opportunities that an entrepreneur could have a certain inclination to attempt.

5.5.2 Impact of entrepreneurship passion for developing on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

The study recommends that future studies of entrepreneur’s passion for developing incorporate both of intense positive feelings and self-identity as they contribute to an important part of passion.

5.5.3 Impact of entrepreneurship passion for inventing have on entrepreneur’s self-identity?

The study recommends that future studies of entrepreneur’s passion for inventing should take into consideration the traits according to their environmental condition they find
themselves, in order to have a more holistic approach of the extent of their passion towards inventing.

5.5.2 Recommendation for Further Research

According to (Cardon et al., 2012) they encourage examination of each domain separately for the account multiplicative effects of this dimension. Although from our analysis we find a significant relation when each variable is examined separately in relation to self-identity. Founding, developing and identity in that order have a higher significance to self-identity.

As this study is conducted on only one entrepreneurial trait (passion), its scope can be broadened and other personality traits can be used to assess relationship of personality traits and entrepreneurial intentions. Similarly, more demographical features can be included in the study to broaden its scope. This study is restricted to only one personality trait of entrepreneurs. But entrepreneurs are outcome of bundle of traits, and with various demographical characteristics

Alongside with other affecting and emotional elements, passion is at the core of the entrepreneurial practice. Although previous study on entrepreneurial passion has been restrained by the absence of ways to interpret present concepts into standards that show the particular makeup and framework of entrepreneurship strategies and tools that are procedurally whole. We recommend the development and validation of an instrument for measuring the dimensions and domains of entrepreneurship passion. We hope to help advance entrepreneurship research not only on the experiences and effects of entrepreneur passion, but also on the wider function of affect and emotion in what remains captivating to human undertaking.

We also contribute to the literature on entrepreneurial passion (Cardon et al., 2009), where scholars have posited that passion may be a key element fueling the behavior of individual entrepreneurs (Cardon et al., 2005). Unlike previous studies that link individual passion to venture performance indirectly (Baum & Locke, 2004; Baum et al., 2001), this
study makes the unique contribution of providing a conceptually rich model of linkages of entrepreneurial passion to both individual behavior.

Future research could take a process approach to explore the emergence and development of hybrid organizations to investigate if time and experience leads to tighter identity coupling. When founders remain open to various paths and stakeholders during venture creation, their identity likely evolves through the venturing process.

The study would like to recommend inclusion of variables depicting respondent environment and background for a more holistic analysis. Entrepreneurs are informed on importance passion at different levels of firm’s establishment.
REFERENCES


Gagliardi. (2013). *Next Generation Entrepreneur: Innovation Strategy through Web 2.0 Technologies in SMEs.*


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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: Questionnaire
This questionnaire is meant to collect data to help measure entrepreneurial passion

PART A:
General Questions
Respondent’s Gender
☐ Male ☐ Female
Respondent’s Age
☐ 20 to 25 ☐ 25 to 30 ☐ 30 to 35 ☐ 35 to 40 ☐ 40 to 45 ☐ 45 to 50 ☐ 50 to 55 ☐ 55 to 60

Answer the following questions using a scale of 1-7 by ticking the appropriate in regards to these three variables in relation entrepreneurship passion, domains and items (Inventing items, founding items & developing item) and reliability of Identity centrality.

(1) Strongly disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) somewhat disagree (4) Neutral (5) somewhat agree (6) Agree (7) strongly agree

Part B: Examining items emphasizing the domain of entrepreneurship passion.
(Please tick one)

Inventing

1. It is exciting to figure out new ways to solve unmet market needs that can be commercialized.

1☐ 2☐ 3☐ 4☐ 5☐ 6☐ 7☐

2. Searching for new ideas for products/services to offer is enjoyable to me.

1☐ 2☐ 3☐ 4☐ 5☐ 6☐ 7☐

3. I am motivated to figure out how to make existing products/services better.
4. Scanning the environment for new opportunities really excites me

5. I really like tinkering with product designs

6. I feel energized when I am developing product prototypes

7. Establishing a new company excites me.

8. Owning my own company energizes me

9. Nurturing a new business through its emerging success is enjoyable

10. Love creating a new firm.

11. I enjoy figuring out how to take someone else's ideas and market them.

12. I greatly enjoy talking about my ideas with other people.

13. I really enjoy creating and appropriating value for my company.

14. Creating something out of nothing is exciting.
15. Trying to convince others to invest in my business motivates me.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

Developing

16. I really like finding the right people to market my product/service to.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

17. Assembling the right people to work for my business is exciting.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

18. Pushing my employees and myself to make our company better motivates me.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

19. Attracting new customers to my existing business is highly motivating.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

20. Taking a small business and growing it is exciting.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

21. Expanding my company by offering new products and services excites me
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

Part D: Examining the reliability of Identity centrality

22. Inventing new solutions to problems is an important part of who I am.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

23. I frequently think about inventing new solutions to business problems.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

24. When I think of who I am, a key aspect of my identity is that I am an innovator.
   1☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 ☐ 7 ☐

25. Identifying and developing new business opportunities is central to how I define myself.
26. I think of myself as an idea person.

27. I would feel a loss if I were forced to give up searching for new solutions to business problems.

Thank you for taking your time to complete this questionnaire.