

An Analysis of Family Occupational Background as a Construct of Entrepreneurial Orientation among the Youth

Purna Prabhakar Nandamuri

IFHE University, Hyderabad, India

(Received: 05/10/2015; Accepted: 14/03/2016)

Abstract

Entrepreneurial orientation stands for an amalgamation of personal and psychological traits, values, attributes and attitudes vigorously associated with a thrust for entrepreneurship. In case of individuals, demographic variables also can modulate for being entrepreneurial. Entrepreneurs have the need to possess an extensive collection of abilities and aptitude to succeed in business. The necessity to incorporate professional management practices increases pro rata to the growth of business, which calls for owning or acquiring management competence. The present study aims at testing the demographic variable of family occupational background as an important construct of entrepreneurial orientation of the present day youth. A sample of 200 students, who indicated beforehand that they were interested in becoming entrepreneurs among a population of around 1200 final year post-graduate students were administered with a schedule of five statements with Likert-type scale. The responses are analyzed through the statistical technique of ANOVA, and post-hoc tests to understand the family occupation specific variance in entrepreneurial management capabilities. Respondents representing business families show strong preference for the components of autonomy; risk taking and drive; and energy, while the sample group from families with employment as occupation proves strong on the two components of pro-activeness and self-confidence. However, the group hailing from agriculture families trail behind the other two sample groups on all the five components of entrepreneurial management capabilities. However, business family sample yields a sharp focus on all the components and the employee and agriculture family groups show wider dispersion in their responses. Thus it can strongly be put forth that the family occupational background exerts a significant impact on the entrepreneurial management capabilities in specific; and entrepreneurial orientation in general, of the present day youth.

Keywords: Entrepreneurship, Entrepreneurial Orientation, Entrepreneurial Management Capabilities, Family Occupational Background, Variance

JEL Classification: L26

Paper Classification: Research Paper

Introduction

Youth among the developing economies put great efforts to get appropriate employment opportunity, owing to the impact of the enduring financial disturbances, in the advanced economies. One prospective approach to integrate the aspiring youth with the labor market is to augment the pace of youth entrepreneurship. Promoting youth entrepreneurship in developing countries is essential in the struggle against raging unemployment and consequent poverty. Many economies initiated promoting entrepreneurship as a key driver to augment growth. By 2020, India's inhabitation would reach 1.34 billion in numbers, out of which, 846 million will be in the working age group of 15 to 59 years, that is, every six out of ten Indians will be below 35 and would need jobs (Balaji, 2014). The issue is too composite to be dealt with from a single perspective. Hence, all the stakeholders involved with the relevant ecosystem on a global scale should jointly move forward to address this situation by cultivating optimistic attitude among the youth regarding entrepreneurship. This should be on the policy priorities of many governance systems (OECD, 2010). On the other side, entrepreneurship is not understood uniformly or equally by different sections of the society and these varying perceptions hampers making realistic and workable policies (GEM, 2011). Thus, the embryonic attitudes and perceptions towards entrepreneurship encroach on those who try to opt to be entrepreneurs. Hence, it is the compulsion on the existing education system, in addition to many other relevant institutions, to motivate the graduating youth towards entrepreneurship.

However, entrepreneurship depends on the capability to recognize opportunities, managerial skills such as planning, organizing, leading, delegating, analysis, communication, negotiation, and evaluation and working as an individual or in teams. Entrepreneurial attitude is distinguished by unique traits such as initiative, independence and innovation supported by the willpower for goal accomplishment. Therefore, it is crucial to consider that young entrepreneurs will demonstrate a variety of individual profiles, which may result in different needs for youth entrepreneurship support intervention programs aimed at different socio-demographic groups. Further, entrepreneurship depends on an assortment of external causes pertaining to the socio-cultural, socio-demographic, and financial facets. It was estimated in 2002 that around 12 percentage of adults from 37 countries were engaged in entrepreneurial activities. Among the individual countries, in Japan, Russia and Belgium, it was less than three percent of the adult population; India and Thailand have more than 18 percent of the same. Hence, it can be observed that the degree of entrepreneurship has been the highest among the Asian developing countries. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (2002) further estimates the entrepreneurial activity as 17.9 percent in India whereas the same is 10.5 in USA; 5.4 in UK; and a meager 1.8 percentage in Japan. Entrepreneurship has been proved to be an essential part of the Indian society since long. T.N. Srinivasan, a renowned economist, characterizes the Indian society as an essentially entrepreneurial society which was suppressed for a long time and now thriving to showcase its latent character (Gopalakrishnan, 2007). The National Knowledge Commission study reveals that around 53 percent consider education to be a 'key trigger' to induce entrepreneurial orientation, out of the 95 percent who believed education as the breeding ground for entrepreneurship (NKC, 2008).

Entrepreneurial competencies are the primary distinguishing attributes possessed by an individual which lead to entrepreneurial efforts such as new venture creation, survival, and growth. Further to these competencies, any business founder must assume three predominant roles- entrepreneurial, managerial and functional roles while handling his or her business

(Chandler & Jansen, 1992). In a critical study, Chandler & Hanks (1994) establish a positive alliance between the managerial competencies of the founders and their business performance. Rae's work (2007) leads to a similar belief that both entrepreneurial and managerial skill-sets are essential to make the business successful and the researcher conceptualizes these as 'entrepreneurial management capabilities'.

Entrepreneurial Management Capabilities

Any business is obviously susceptible during the post-start-up phase, which will be characterized by changes in the market, increasing competition or advancement of technology etc. Similarly, as the business grows bigger and becomes more complex, the need for incorporating professional management practices is likely to increase. Different capabilities are needed at different stages of business. The entrepreneurial attributes required during a start-up business are perhaps not sufficient or relevant during growth phases and even during post growth period. Thus, the role of the entrepreneur needs to keep-on changing as per the business life cycle. But, quite often, the founder-entrepreneur finds it difficult to adopt the requisite capability-transition, which might probably be caused by two factors – complexity of the growing business and the dynamic competitive environment. Given these challenges of business, an entrepreneur who can't exercise the relevant managerial competencies will probably be doomed to meet with failures in business. Built on McClelland (1973)'s research, Boyatzis (1982) classifies management capabilities as the fundamental features of a person which help to make the business effective and superior. The entrepreneurial management capabilities, thus, imply that the decision making should be done in a managerially proficient manner. For the purpose of the present research, the following five components have been adapted from the literature to comprehend entrepreneurial management capabilities:

Autonomy. Autonomy is the ability and determination to be independent in search of opportunities. Autonomy, as an entrepreneurial trait, can be observed by an individual's urge to influence and manage the people and things around, the desire to win arguments and an enthusiasm to persuade and prevail which, by nature, are the essential characteristics of managerial competency.

Risk taking. Any business effort is nothing but embracing risk. Entrepreneurs must not only be risk takers but also risk-handlers (Longenecker & Schoen, 2001). The foremost factor that separates entrepreneurs from non-entrepreneurs is the uncertainty and riskiness of self-employment. Thus, risk handling is an essential managerial behavior.

Pro-activeness. A proactive person is the one who aggressively takes personal initiative (Crant, 2000) to create favorable conditions for influencing and changing the status quo in a persistent and action-oriented manner (Bateman & Crant, 1993). Pro-activeness is basically 'acting-in-anticipation' of the potential changes. Individuals with proactive personalities are unrestrained by situational forces, while pursuing their goals in the dynamic external environment. Hence, a manager needs to, essentially, be proactive.

Drive and energy. Entrepreneurs naturally have an urge to succeed in their efforts either business or personal. They constantly progress, full of vigor and are exceedingly motivated. They derive sufficient self-motivation to succeed.

Self Confidence. An entrepreneur has to make decisions and accomplish tasks on regular basis. It requires immense faith in one's self which should be strong and realistic and sustainable even in adverse times to achieve the predetermined goals.

However, it is obviously improbable for individuals to be equally strong on all these elements. The analysis of entrepreneurship is nothing but exploring the 'people side' of entrepreneurship which has less effectively been explored of late. Entrepreneurial conduct of any society is determined by diverse factors such as socio-demographic, personal and external (Gurol & Atsan, 2006). Among these, the socio-demographic factors consider the person's social and family backgrounds, gender and the early experiences, while the environmental model relates to the contextual factors and focuses on personality characteristics of entrepreneurs, extensively known as trait model. The common thread identified among the reviewed literatures is that whether possessing or presence of specific characteristics helps the firm to be successful or not. While entrepreneurship has been viewed as essential to economic progress of developing nations, surprisingly little research has been conducted on the factors that can swing an individual's intention to start new business. Understanding the determinants of entrepreneurial orientation and behavior can help the educators, consultants, advisors and policy makers to find the right model to foster entrepreneurship for a faster economic development. Given the existing challenges embracing a wide range of economies across the globe, the initiative of invigorating superior entrepreneurial activity has become an inevitable task for the Governments. Hence, designing a comprehensive, coherent and consistent move towards fostering entrepreneurship has become a compulsive priority.

Family Occupational Background

It is a prevalent estimation that the members of a certain social class and their offspring will replicate the class itself. As found by numerous researchers around the world, prevailing family occupation, as a specified social class, exerts a profound influence on the career option of an individual. A person belonging to an entrepreneur-family is highly predictable to choose an entrepreneurial career than one hailing from non-entrepreneurial background. The growing significance of family occupation in entrepreneurship can be assigned to the socio-cultural context of entrepreneurship. The family has been recognized as the primary establishment that augments entrepreneurship consciousness, by exercising great power over the desirability and feasibility, for the process of creation of a new company (Shapero & Sokol, 1982). Jackson & Rodkey (1994) found that childhood socialization influences an individual's thoughts and feelings towards entrepreneurship. Family members' involvement in entrepreneurial activity generates an opportunity for the offspring to develop similar perceptions (Chrisman, Chua & Sterier, 2003). Thus, family occupation is the prominent issue that nurtures the attitude towards entrepreneurship. Further, the self-employed father provides a strong inspiration for the offspring to be independent (Matthews & Moser, 1995). A majority of the entrepreneurs were so because they already have a family business. In most of the cases, the capital required for their startups was provided by respective family members (Lee & Tsang, 2001). Thus individuals with entrepreneurial parents possess higher entrepreneurial orientation than others with professional or employee parents. Crant (1996) also found that entrepreneurs frequently emerge from self-employed families. Further, the business family offspring possess superior inclination to start a business in future (Van Auken, Stephens, Fry & Silva, 2006). Perhaps, the family business occupation lowers the barriers to entrepreneurial entry by capitalizing on social relationships and resources (Greve & Saleff, 2003), which affect the start-up decisions positively (Chang, Memili, Chrisman, Kellermans & Chua, 2009). Thus, the family background stance exemplifies the significance of parental occupation in successor generation career decisions (Aldrich & Cliff, 2003). Hence, the business family parents can be treated as the initial role models and influencers in moderating attitudes and beliefs regarding entrepreneurship (Krueger, Reilly & Carsrud, 2000; Dyer & Handler, 1994).

Past research points out that a business-family inculcates higher intentions in its offspring to set up own business. Carr & Sequeira (2007) support the same by confirming that early exposure to family business serves up as an inter-generational sway on entrepreneurship intent in general; and on consequent decisions such as opportunity identification and resource procurement (Aldrich & Cliff, 2003) in specific. Krueger's research (1993) also coincides with the hypothesis that prior experience in a family business supplements optimistic attitudes toward entrepreneurship. Drennan, Kennedy & Renfrow (2005) found that those with an affirmative outlook towards their family business perceived starting a business as attractive and possible. Lee & Wong (2003a, b) found in Singapore that the aspiration to join entrepreneurship programs was found to be high among those hailing from business families. Together, all these empirical findings advocate that family occupational background, in all probability, impacts the entrepreneurial orientation of youth. However, a scrutiny of such studies discloses that the subject of family occupation, as an illustrative variable of entrepreneurship, has attracted very limited concentration. Supporters of demographic models also established a pragmatic support for the premise that family occupation influences entrepreneurial intentions (Mathews & Moser, 1995). Accessible research in this regard, shows that growing up in a family business background endows with a proportional benefit in starting new venture by offering different types of capital – social, human, and financial (Chang *et al.*, 2009).

Very few studies mention family occupation and entrepreneurship in the Indian standpoint. In India, the undivided family property facilitates the investment to expand the joint family business (Gadgil, 1959; Singer, 1972). The courage to manage business and the capability of capital formation are easy for people with a family-business (Sharma & Singh, 1980). Khanka (1990) addresses the issue of inter-generational occupational mobility by finding that there was a higher scale of penchant for the members of the coming generation in a family, to prefer the same profession the first generation belonged to. In total, the authors could find a chunk of entrepreneurs who inherited business legacy and expertise at an early age through familial links, by scrutinizing the factor of family occupation. However, less research has been initiated till date to explore the dynamics of the same hypothesis in Indian context. The present study endeavors to explore the nature of influence, family occupation exerts on entrepreneurial orientation of the management graduates as potential entrepreneurs.

Review of Literature

Parental entrepreneurship serves as a strong determinant of self-career. A considerable amount of empirical studies uncover a corresponding relationship between the family occupational status and the probability of the offspring becoming entrepreneurs in future. Lindquist, Sol and Praag (2015) found that the probability of children's entrepreneurship was higher by 60% by the parental entrepreneurship. Prabhu and Thomas (2014) enumerate that the parental occupation directly influences the interests of the business course students in turning into entrepreneurs and further, parents owning a business persuade their children towards entrepreneurship. Another recent study conducted by Nsirik-Abasi and Essien (2013) in Nigeria, found that the entrepreneurial aspirations of students in technical schools were significantly influenced by the parents' counseling, educational status, tribe and socioeconomic status. There have been some crucial studies abroad which probed into the relevance of kinship to venture creation and development. Athanasios and Panikkos (2011) found a weak correlation, in Cyprus, between a family occupation and start-up intentions of the respective children. Aykut and Belgin (2011) observed no significant impact of family profession on individual entrepreneurship propensity. Students

from self-employed families put on good exposure, in an early age, to implicit information on entrepreneurship which affected their attitudes and perceptions (Basu & Virick, 2008). The study further reveals that individuals' prior exposure to entrepreneurship in practice through their family background in business positively influences their attitudes and perceived behavioral control. Family occupation had a significant impact on the plea to start own business (Drennan et al., 2005). Wang and Wong (2004), Mathews and Moser (1996) and Crant (1996), also, have provided strong empirical support for the constructive association of family background with entrepreneurial intention. Students whose parents happened to be in businesses, in Singapore and Australia, were found more likely to launch new ventures (Phan, Wong & Wang, 2002).

In the Indian context, in a latest study conducted by Sharma (2014), in the state of Uttarakhand in India, it was found that family economic status, family size and father's occupation have no bearing on the career intentions of students. Patnaik and Pradhan (2010) found significantly encouraging affiliation between the familial occupation and type of business units promoted in the State of Orissa. The National Knowledge Commission (2008) established the occupational background of the family to be the foremost inspiration for the following generations of which around 74 percent was found to be continuing the same family business and the remaining sample in a new one started for first time. Having an entrepreneur parent boosts the likelihood that a child turns an entrepreneur by a factor of 1.3 to 3.0 (Colombier & Masclat, 2008). Family occupation's influence on approach towards entrepreneurship was found to be very strong among the youth in Indian and Chinese societies (Goel, Vohra, Zhang & Arora, 2006). Ram's research (2001) emphasized that the family was the most important factor in creating and sustaining businesses for the younger generations.

Research Gap

Though some good studies have been carried out in this direction in India, the issue of family occupation, as a differentiator of entrepreneurial orientation of the potential entrepreneurs, still remains relatively less explored than abroad and needs greater attention of the current generation researchers.

Contribution of the Study

As entrepreneurship represents diverse views among different people and depends on the individual abilities to pursue and succeed, the present study contributes to the existing scant literature regarding the socio-demographic factors influencing the entrepreneurial orientation of the present-day youth.

Objective

The chief objective of this investigative study is to appreciate the power of family occupation on the entrepreneurial management capabilities of the graduating youth who aspire to be entrepreneurs in future.

Research Methodology

Type of Research

A descriptive research design was adopted for this study. Survey method was used.

Sample

A sample of 200 students, who indicated beforehand that they were interested in taking up entrepreneurship, among a population of around 1200 final year post-graduate students from 20 institutions accessible in Warangal district in the state of Telangana, were selected. The sample comprises of 125 male and 75 female students.

Methodology

The sample were served with a schedule of five customized questions (Table1) taken from the universally appreciated EAO scale developed by Robinson Stimpson, Huefner and Hunt (1991), with a five-level scale from strongly agree (5) to not agree at all (1).

Variables

The variables considered for this study are as follows:

Independent Variable. The independent variable considered for the study is family occupational background. It refers to the predominant profession of the family members. It replicates, to a certain degree, the social and economic standing of the family and moreover, might also influence the children's value judgment of careers. The family of origin is the prime mediator of childhood socialization and exerts an all-encompassing and long-lasting authority on long-standing psychosocial maturity. However, the limiting assumption is that, the focal point is on nurture, not the nature. In the present study, the independent variable is classified into three predominant occupations prevailing in the sample frame. However, this classification is not complete in all respects and may not strictly satisfy the principle of mutual exclusivity. But, the goal is only to include the families of certain popular occupational backgrounds in the research to analyze the influence of the particular occupational background on the career choice of their offspring.

Dependent Variable. The dependent variable considered for the study is the entrepreneurial management capability. Peter Drucker commented that in any new business enterprise, controlling means nothing but 'management'. Therefore, in the present study, 'management' is treated as an essential capability for entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurial management capability is the ability to acquire entrepreneurial knowledge and utilize it for the effectiveness of new business venture. In the present study, entrepreneurial management capability is represented in terms of five skills namely autonomy, risk taking, pro-activeness, drive and energy, and self-confidence.

Hypothesis

The family occupational background wields a considerable authority over the entrepreneurial management capabilities of the budding entrepreneurs.

Statistical tools

The final responses were statistically tested with ANOVA followed by relevant post-hoc tests for understanding the degree of influence of family occupation on the entrepreneurial management capabilities, as a competency, for understanding entrepreneurial orientation.

Table 1: Entrepreneurial Management Capabilities with statements

Component Description	Component Statement
Autonomy	I prefer to make my own decisions
Risk taking	I prefer to take risk in future life
Pro-activeness	I can calculate the future needs of my business
Drive and energy	I depend on my instinct & intuition while making decisions
Self-confidence	I have confidence in my own skills and capabilities

Results and Analysis

Family occupational background is defined in terms of the most prevailing three categories of occupations: business, agriculture and employment. Then, each component of the entrepreneurial management capability is subjected to the statistical test of variance (Table 3) between the groups followed by a multiple comparison of the corresponding means for a comprehensive appreciation (Table 4). Further, relevant 'cluster box plots' have been scrutinized to comprehend the apparent variance into specific details. The box plot (Figure 1) summarizes the otherwise complex results from multivariate analyses by visually identifying the hidden patterns of the data set. The box plot is discussed in terms of location, dispersion, skewness and potential outliers of the data set to make a visual appreciation of lack of symmetry.

Discussion

Variance

The authoritative and widely used tests for the assumption of equal variance are Levene test and Brown-Forsythe modification test. However, in the case of lopsided designs (i.e., unequal N per group), the Levene test is considered to be less vigorous, since the normality assumption for the ANOVA is usually violated, as the absolute deviation (from the group means) scores are estimated to be highly skewed. This becomes a meticulous problem when the two or more groups under comparison hold unequal 'n'. A more appropriate test in the above context was proposed by Brown and Forsythe in 1974. Hence, the data is first subjected to Brown-Forsythe test and the resulting P-values for all the five components proved significant at 0.05 level (Table 2). The statistical significance infers that the observed differences among the sample variances are improbable to have taken place due to random sampling from a population with identical variances. Thus, the null hypothesis (of equal variances) is refused and the alternative hypothesis, that there are differences of varying degrees between the variances in the population is taken for consideration.

Table 2: Robust Tests of Equality of Means (SPSS Output)

Component	Test	Statistica	df1	df2	Sig.
Autonomy	Brown-Forsythe	85.910	2	151.067	.000
Risk-taking	Brown-Forsythe	111.356	2	182.898	.000
Pro-activeness	Brown-Forsythe	159.230	2	152.360	.000
Drive & Energy	Brown-Forsythe	93.594	2	189.864	.000
Self confidence	Brown-Forsythe	90.440	2	179.579	.000

a. Asymptotically F distributed.

A one-way ANOVA is carried out to observe the degree of significant differences among respondents having different occupational backgrounds in relation to their perception regarding the five components of entrepreneurial management capability. The results show highly significant F values indicating wide differences between the two mean squares for all the components (Table 3). However, rejecting a null-hypothesis, means that ‘not all’ population means certainly differ. It is not clear whether one or more means vary from each other. Therefore, multiple comparisons are performed through Tucky’s technique to understand the group specific variances (Table 4).

Table 3: ANOVA (SPSS Output)

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Autonomy	Between Groups	172.679	2	86.339	82.840	.000
	Within Groups	205.321	197	1.042		
	Total	378.000	199			
Risk-taking	Between Groups	171.902	2	85.951	107.868	.000
	Within Groups	156.973	197	.797		
	Total	328.875	199			
Pro-activeness	Between Groups	177.116	2	88.558	169.775	.000
	Within Groups	102.759	197	.522		
	Total	279.875	199			
Drive & Energy	Between Groups	156.054	2	78.027	88.943	.000
	Within Groups	172.821	197	.877		
	Total	328.875	199			
Self confidence	Between Groups	152.116	2	76.058	84.291	.000
	Within Groups	177.759	197	.902		
	Total	329.875	199			

Multiple Comparisons

The multiple comparisons reveal that the group with business as the family occupational background largely differs with the other two groups followed by the employment family group and the agriculture occupation sample trails on all the five components. Component wise analysis is made to provide a better understanding of the inter-group variances.

Table 4: Multiple Comparisons (SPSS Output) Tukey HSD

Dependent Variable	(I) Family occupation	(J) Family occupation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Autonomy	Business	Agriculture	2.32500*	.18405	.000	1.8904	2.7596
		Employment	1.26786*	.16708	.000	.8733	1.6624
	Agriculture	Business	-2.32500*	.18405	.000	-2.7596	-1.8904
		Employment	-1.05714*	.18903	.000	-1.5036	-.6107
	Employment	Business	-1.26786*	.16708	.000	-1.6624	-.8733
		Agriculture	1.05714*	.18903	.000	.6107	1.5036

(Continued)

Risk-taking	Business	Agriculture	2.13750*	.16092	.000	1.7575	2.5175
		Employment	1.65179*	.14609	.000	1.3068	1.9968
	Agriculture	Business	-2.13750*	.16092	.000	-2.5175	-1.7575
		Employment	-0.48571*	.16529	.010	-.8760	-.0954
	Employment	Business	-1.65179*	.14609	.000	-1.9968	-1.3068
		Agriculture	0.48571*	.16529	.010	.0954	.8760
Pro-activeness	Business	Agriculture	2.08750*	.13020	.000	1.7800	2.3950
		Employment	-0.16964	.11820	.325	-.4488	.1095
	Agriculture	Business	-2.08750*	.13020	.000	-2.3950	-1.7800
		Employment	-2.25714*	.13373	.000	-2.5730	-1.9413
	Employment	Business	0.16964	.11820	.325	-.1095	.4488
		Agriculture	2.25714*	.13373	.000	1.9413	2.5730
Drive & Energy	Business	Agriculture	2.0750*	.1689	.000	1.676	2.474
		Employment	1.5179*	.1533	.000	1.156	1.880
	Agriculture	Business	-2.0750*	.1689	.000	-2.474	-1.676
		Employment	-0.5571*	.1734	.004	-.967	-.148
	Employment	Business	-1.5179*	.1533	.000	-1.880	-1.156
		Agriculture	0.5571*	.1734	.004	.148	.967
Self confidence	Business	Agriculture	1.58750*	.17125	.000	1.1831	1.9919
		Employment	-.66964*	.15547	.000	-1.0368	-.3025
	Agriculture	Business	-1.58750*	.17125	.000	-1.9919	-1.1831
		Employment	-2.25714*	.17589	.000	-2.6725	-1.8418
	Employment	Business	0.66964*	.15547	.000	.3025	1.0368
		Agriculture	2.25714*	.17589	.000	1.8418	2.6725

The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Autonomy. Regarding the component of autonomy, considerable difference of group means (2.325) on a scale of 5.000 is evident from Table 4 between the business and agriculture family occupations while the employment background groups differ with business background by 1.267 and agriculture background by 1.057, which are more or less similar. Hence it can be taken that, on the component of autonomy, the business family sample shows stronger preference with a mean value of 4.125 from Table 5 than their counterparts from employment (2.857) and agriculture (1.800) families for autonomy.

Table 5: Descriptive (SPSS Output)

		N	n	Mean	Std. Deviation	Median	Interquartile Range	Skewness
Autonomy	Business	200	80	4.1250	0.78555	4.0000	1.75	-0.226
	Agriculture		50	1.8000	0.75593	2.0000	1.00	0.354
	Employment		70	2.8571	1.36505	3.0000	2.00	0.090
Risk-taking	Business	200	80	3.9375	0.83201	4.0000	2.00	0.119
	Agriculture		50	1.8000	0.75593	2.0000	1.00	0.354
	Employment		70	2.2857	1.03760	2.0000	2.00	0.196

(Continued)

Proactiveness	Business	200	80	4.1875	0.63831	4.0000	1.00	-0.181
	Agriculture		50	2.1000	0.83910	2.0000	2.00	-0.194
	Employment		70	4.3571	.72303	4.5000	1.00	-0.665
Drive & Energy	Business	200	80	3.8750	0.9329	4.0000	2.00	-0.225
	Agriculture		50	1.8000	0.7559	2.0000	1.00	0.354
	Employment		70	2.3570	1.0500	2.0000	1.00	0.777
Self confidence	Business	200	80	3.6875	1.16482	4.0000	1.75	-0.838
	Agriculture		50	2.1000	0.83910	2.0000	2.00	-0.194
	Employment		70	4.3571	0.72303	4.5000	1.00	-0.665

Risk-taking. Similar trend appear for the aspect of risk-taking also where, the business group differs widely with agriculture group (2.137) and with employment sample with a mean difference of 1.651 (Table-4). However, the mean difference between agriculture and employment family samples is very low at 0.485 (Table 5) on a scale of 5.000. Thus, the youth hailing from business families exhibit stronger faith in risk-taking than other family occupations.

Pro-activeness. The sample group with agriculture background trails behind the business sample by a mean difference of 2.087 and the employment background group by 2.257 on a scale of 5.000 (Table 4). In both the cases, the differences are considerable whereas the mean difference between business and employment samples is 0.169 (Table 5), only which is very low. Thus, the youth hailing from agriculture families exhibit a relatively weak preference on pro-activeness.

Drive & Energy. The business sample proves stronger by differing with the employment (1.517) and agriculture (2.075) sample groups on the component of drive and energy, followed by the sample group from employment families while the agriculture sample shows a weak preference.

Self-confidence. The respondents from agriculture families prove to be weak on self-confidence while those from business and employment families differ considerably by the mean differences of 1.587 and 2.257 respectively with the former group.

General Observations

The respondents hailing from business families show stronger preference by showing higher mean values for the components of autonomy (4.125); risk-taking (3.937); and drive and energy (3.875) whereas the employment family offspring exhibit stronger preference on the other two components namely pro-activeness and self-confidence with a uniform mean value of 4.357 on the total scale of 5.000 (Table 5). The agriculture family group trails behind the other two occupational groups on all the five components by showing relatively weak mean values ranging from 1.800 to 2.100 in all cases (Table 5), positioning themselves at the lowest on preference for entrepreneurial management capabilities.

Box Plots

The readings from the relevant box plots are elucidated in terms of location, dispersion and skewness of the responses of the groups under testing.

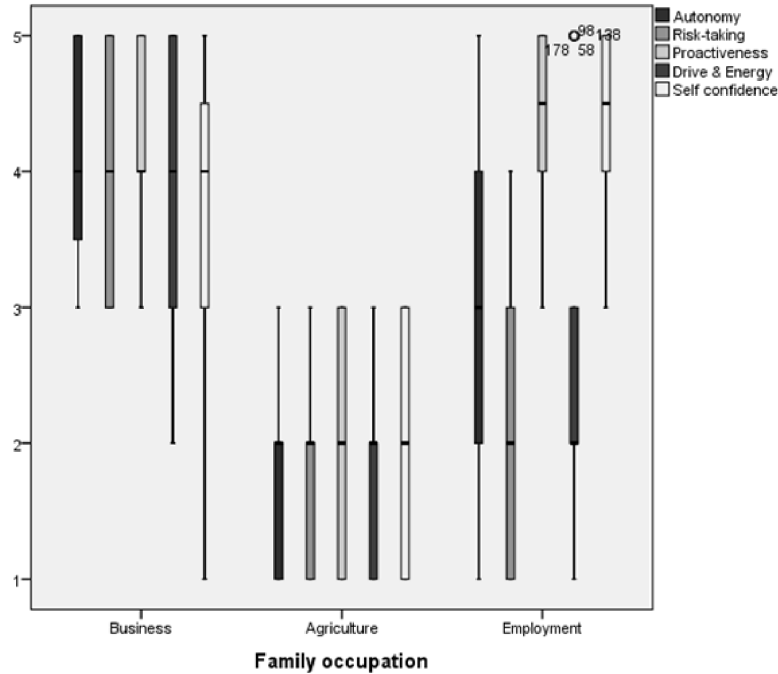


Figure 1. Clustered Box Plot

Location (Median). The sample group representing business families show high median values at 4.000 for the components of autonomy, risk-taking and drive and energy while those representing employment families prove strong on pro-activeness and self-confidence with the uniform median value of 4.500 (Table 5 & Figure 1), while a relatively low median value at 2.000 (Table 5) for all components is observed for the agriculture sample, thus establishing the relatively stronger preference of the sample from business families for three components followed by those from employment families on two components.

Dispersion. The dispersion is observed through the inter-quartile range values for each group on each component. The business family background sample group exhibits a shortest inter-quartile range from 1.75 to 2.00 (Table 5 & Figure 1) on four components out of five while the other two sample groups with employment and agriculture family occupations show an inter-quartile range from 1.00 to 2.00 on all the components tested. Thus, it is observed, that the responses of the business family group are more focused with a small variation of 0.25, while that of the other two groups spread wider with a variation of 1.00 (Table 5 & Figure 1) than the earlier one. Thus, even the employment family group score high on the mean values on two components, their responses are wide spread than the business family group.

Comparison of Skewness. The distribution of the business family occupation group is left skewed as the values position to the right of the mean on all the five components of entrepreneurial management competency while the responses of the agriculture occupation sample shows a quite opposite trend by skewing to the right with the values lying on the left to the mean. On the other hand, the distribution of the sample belonging to the employment families show a mixed trend as some values are left-skewed while some are right skewed whereas some position in the middle with a few extreme values on the right side to the mean.

Thus, business family group exhibits stronger preference while agriculture family group shows (Table 5 & Figure 1) weaker preference for all the five components and the employee family group position in-between the two extreme preferences.

Outliers. The extreme values which considerably deviate from the rest of the sample are found either above or below the whiskers. The statistical probability states that at least 30% of samples drawn from a normal-distribution, irrespective of size, will have one or more data marked as outlier. The data lying exterior to the outer fences are deemed to be extreme outliers. The data-set at hand also contains a few outliers present only in the employee group denoting that the population has no normal distribution (Figure 1).

General observations

The respondents from the business family occupation show a consistently stronger preference on majority of the components (three out of five) with the median values (4.00) higher than the upper quartile values on all the components for the group with agriculture as the family occupation (Table 5). The employment family occupation group records higher median values (4.50) than other two groups on two components, of course, with a few outliers on the extreme side of these two components. However, the business –family-sample exhibits a narrowed-down focus with lesser dispersion while the other two sample groups yield a relatively wider inter-quartile range. Moreover, the business-occupation group show an extremely left-skewness than other groups implying a stronger preference for all the five components of entrepreneurial management competency.

Conclusion

By the above analysis, it can strongly be interpreted that the sample groups with three different family occupations yield a significant correlation to the skill of entrepreneurial management competency. The variance of preferences among the three family occupation groups on the five components representing entrepreneurial management competency is considerably noteworthy. Specifically, the variance between the groups representing business and agriculture as family occupations spread wide apart representing two extremes of high and low preferences respectively while the employee occupation group shows stronger preference than the other two groups on two components. However, despite the strong preference, the responses are widely dispersed and even some stretch out as outliers. In addition to the positioning of the group mean and median values, the nature of focus of responses also is of vital relevance. When compared to the other groups, hailing from employee and agriculture families, the youth representing the business family occupation are focused on their preference for entrepreneurial management competency as a constituent of entrepreneurial orientation. Thus, family occupational background demonstrates to be a significant demographic determinant of the managerial competency in particular and entrepreneurial orientation of the youth in general.

Limitations of the Study

Although, the present study yielded valuable insights into the theory of entrepreneurial orientation, certain limitations, still, prevail.

Design limitation

The procedures availed and the specific constraints on the sample and population of the study may eventually affect the outcomes obtained.

Impact limitation

Even though all precautions are taken to ensure strong design and excellent statistics, some limitations may emerge due to the factors such as a strong regional focus and being too population-specific.

Data limitation

Despite the comprehensiveness of the findings, there is a possibility of underpowered results due to the inability to collect as much or as good data as intended or perhaps the enrollment was more complicated than expected initially.

Scope for Further Research

The limitations cited in the study logically furnish the scope for future research in the specific subject domain. There, always, is a great scope for conducting similar study aided by a stronger and error free design, sample and procedures. Further, a similar study can be organized on a much wider sample as well as geography extending to national and even international boundaries. Further, a better work can be initiated by undertaking a comprehensive enrollment of the sample to yield wide ranging data, which in-turn, may yield powerful results. However, the study can be taken forward in multiple ways to enrich the domain literature.

References

- Aldrich, H., & Cliff, J. (2003). The pervasive effect of family on entrepreneurship: Toward a family embeddedness perspective. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18(5), 573–596.
- Athanasios, H., & Panikkos, P. (2011). Family business background, perceptions of barriers, and entrepreneurial intentions in Cyprus. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Venturing*, 3(2), 168–182.
- Aykut, G., & Belgin, A. (2011). Gender, business education, family background and personal traits: A multi dimensional analysis of their affects on entrepreneurial propensity: Findings from Turkey. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 2(13), 35–48.
- Balaji, R (2014). Empowering generation -Y entrepreneurs. *International Journal of Innovative Research in Science, Engineering and Technology*, 3(9), 15903-15906.
- Basu, A., & Virick, M. (2008). *Assessing entrepreneurial intentions amongst students: A comparative study*. 12th Annual Meeting of the National Collegiate of Inventors and Innovators Alliance, Dallas, USA. Retrieved February 05, 2015 from website [http:// nciia.org/conf08/assets/pub/basu2.pdf](http://nciia.org/conf08/assets/pub/basu2.pdf) accessed.
- Batemen, T. S., & Crant, J. M. (1993). The proactive component of organizational behavior: A measure and correlates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 14(2), 103-118.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1982). *The Competent Manager: A model for effective performance*. New York: Wiley.
- Carr, J. C., & Sequeira, J. M. (2007). Prior family business exposure as intergenerational influence and entrepreneurial intent: A theory of Planned Behavior approach. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(10), 1090-1098.
- Chandler, G. N., & Jansen, E. (1992). The founder's self-assessed competence and venture performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 7(3), 223-236.
- Chandler, G. N., & Hanks, S. (1994). Founder competence, the environment and venture performance. *Entrepreneurship Theory Practice*, 18(3), 77-89.

- Chang, E., Memili, E., Chrisman, J., Kellermans, F., & Chua, J. (2009). Family social capital, venture preparedness, and start-up decisions – A study of Hispanic entrepreneurs in New England. *Family Business Review*, 22(3), 279-292.
- Chrisman, J. J., Chua, J. H., & Sterier, L. P. (2003). An introduction to theories of family business. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18(4), 441-448.
- Colombier, N., & Masclat, D. (2008). Intergenerational correlation in self-employment: some further evidence from French ECHP data. *Small Business Economics*, 30(4), 423-437.
- Crant, M. (2000). Proactive behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 26(3), 435- 462.
- Crant, M. (1996). The proactive personality scale as a predictor of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 34(3), 42-50.
- Drennan, J., Kennedy, J., & Renfrow, P. (2005). Impact of childhood experiences on the development of entrepreneurial intentions. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 6(4), 231-238.
- Dyer, W. G. Jr., & Handler, W. (1994). Entrepreneurship and family business: exploring the connections. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 19(1), 71–84.
- Gadgil, G. R., (1959). Origins of the modern Indian business class: an interim report. International Secretariat, Institute of Pacific Relations, New York, USA.
- GEM (2011). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor-2011: Extended Report. Retrieved on February 17, 2013, from website <http://www.gemconsortium.org/docs/2201/gem-2011-global-report>.
- Goel, A., Vohra, N., Zhang, N. L., & Arora, B. (2006). Attitudes of the youth towards entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship: A cross-cultural comparison of India and China. *Journal of Asia Entrepreneurship and Sustainability*, 3(1), 1-35.
- Gopalakrishnan, R. (2007, October 16). Unleashing Indian entrepreneurship -1: The changing mindset. *The Hindu-Business Line*, Internet Edition, Chennai.
- Greve, A., & Saleff, J. W. (2003). Social networks and entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 28(1), 1-22.
- Guroi, Y., & Atsan, N. (2006). Entrepreneurial characteristics amongst university students: Some insights for entrepreneurship education and training in Turkey. *Education + Training*, 48(1), 25-38.
- Jackson, J. E., & Rodkey, G. R. (1994). The attitudinal climate for entrepreneurial activity. *Public Opinion Quarterly*, 58(3), 358-380.
- Khanka, S. S. (1990). *Entrepreneurship in small scale industries*. New Delhi: Himalaya Publishing House.
- Krueger, N. (1993). The impact of prior entrepreneurial exposure on perceptions of new venture feasibility and desirability. *Entrepreneurship: Theory and Practice*, 18(1), 5-21.
- Krueger, N. Jr., Reilly, M., & Carsrud, A. (2000). Competing models of entrepreneurial intentions. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 15(5/6), 411-532.
- Lee, D. Y., & Tsang, E. W. K. (2001). The effects of entrepreneurial personality: Background and network activities on venture growth. *Journal of Management Studies*, 38(4), 583-602.
- Lee, L., & Wong, P. K. (2003a). Attitude towards entrepreneurship education and new venture creation. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 11(4), 339-357.

- Lee, L., & Wong, P. K. (2003b). *New venture creation: A case of student technopreneurs at higher institutions in Singapore*. National University of Singapore Entrepreneurship Centre website: <http://www.nusentrepreneurshipcentre.sg/>. Retrieved March 04, 2013.
- Lindquist, J. M., Sol, J., & Praag, V. M. (2015). Why do entrepreneurial parents have entrepreneurial children? *Journal of Labor Economics*, 33(2), 269-296.
- Longenecker, J. G., & Schoen, J. E. (2001). Management succession in the family business. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 16(3), 1-6.
- Matthews, C., & Moser, S. (1995). Family background and gender: Implications for interest in small firm ownership. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, 7(4), 365-377.
- Matthews, C., & Moser, S. (1996). A longitudinal investigation of the impact of family background and gender on interest in small firm ownership. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 34(2), 29-43.
- McClelland, D. C. (1973). Testing for competence rather than for intelligence. *American Psychologist*, 28, 1-14.
- Milton, S. (1972). *When a great tradition modernizes*. NY: Praeger Publishers.
- Moriano, J. A., Palaci, F. J., & Morales, J. F. (2007). The psychosocial profile of the university entrepreneur. *Psychology in Spain*, 11(1), 72-84.
- NKC (2008). *Entrepreneurship in India – a study by national knowledge commission*. Retrieved February 22, 2012, from GOI website http://www.knowledgecommission.gov.in/downloads/documents/NKC_Entrepreneurship.pdf
- Nsikak-Abasi, U., & Essien, O. (2013). Parents' influences and the entrepreneurship occupational aspirations of wards in technical schools in Akwa Ibom State. *Developing Country Studies*, 3(4), 126-132.
- OECD (2010). *The OECD innovation strategy: getting a head start on tomorrow*. Retrieved March 26, 2013, from OECD website: www.oecd-ilibrary.org/the-oecd-innovation-strategy-summary-english_5
- Patnaik, B., & Pradhan, P. K. (2010). The background of entrepreneurs: A survey (with special reference to education and occupation of male entrepreneurs of rural Orissa). *Asian Journal of Management Research*, 1(2), 402-414.
- Phan, P. H., Wong, P. K., & Wang, C. K. (2002). Antecedents to entrepreneurship among university students in Singapore: beliefs, attitudes and background. *Journal of Enterprising Culture*, 10(2), 151-174.
- Prabhu, V. A., & Thomas, A. (2014). Influence of parental factors on the entrepreneurial attitude of b school students. *International Journal of Research and Development - A Management Review*, 3(1), 35-38.
- Rae, D. (2007). *Entrepreneurship: from opportunity to action*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ram, M. (2001). Family dynamics in a small consultancy firm: A case study. *Human Relations*, 54(4), 395-418.
- Robinson, P. B., Stimpson, D. V., Huefner, J. C., & Hunt, H. K. (1991). An attitude approach to the prediction of entrepreneurship. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 15(4), 13-31.
- Shapero, A., & Sokol, L. (1982). Some social dimensions of entrepreneurship. In C. Kent, D. Sexton, & K. Vesper (Eds.), *The Encyclopedia of Entrepreneurship*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Sharma, K. L., & Singh, H. (1980). *Entrepreneurial growth and development programmes in northern India*. New Delhi: Abhinav Publications.

- Sharma, L. (2014). Impact of family capital & social capital on youth entrepreneurship – a study of Uttarakhand state, India. *Journal of Global Entrepreneurship Research*, 4(14), 1-18.
- Van Auken, H., Stephens, P., Fry, F., & Silva, J. (2006). Role model influences on entrepreneurial intentions: A comparison between USA and Mexico. *The International Entrepreneurship and Management Journal*, 2(3), 325-336.
- Wang, C. K., & Wong, P. K. (2004). Entrepreneurial intent of university students in Singapore. *Technovation*, 24(2), 163-172.
-

Author's Profile

Purna Prabhakar Nandamuri is a doctorate in Management along with masters in Psychology and English Literature. He has been into academic career for the past nine years and prior to that he served the Government of India for 20 years. He has published one book and more than 50 research papers in various national and international journals. His areas of interest are business strategy, business ethics, entrepreneurship, and brand management.
