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Entrepreneurship in a disruptive world

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STUDENTS' MOTIVATIONS STARTING A BUSINESS WITHIN STUDENT MINI COMPANIES

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Abstract Multiple international research has been launched to explore the level of students motivation to start business that the Students Mini Company programme can develop. In frames of this programme students are going through a simulation of business processes such as idea generation, market research, product creation, marketing activities, selling and bookkeeping. The only aspect what differs the programme from real life entrepreneurship is that students are allowed to not focus on the taxes so much. The aim of the study is to find out what effect the Students Mini Company programme developed by Junior Achievement (JA) has on the motivation of high school students in Latvia to start business and the development of their entrepreneurial skills, as well as to draw conclusions and put forward suggestions.

Keywords: entrepreneurship education, entrepreneurship motivation, Students Mini Company programme, Latvia

Introduction

The Student Mini Company program has been on the spotlight of entrepreneurial education already for a few decades and has gotten multiple sponsors and investors in the program to debate the efficiency of it to encourage the new generation to develop their own entrepreneurship later in life.

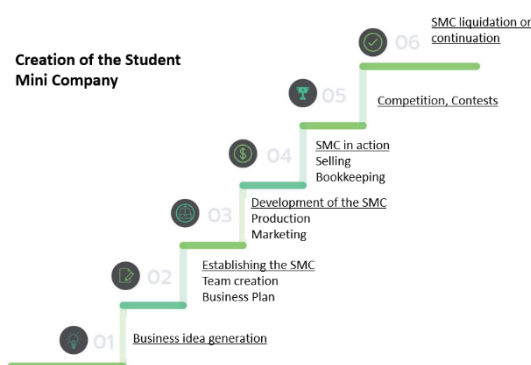


Figure 1. Creation of the Student Mini Company in steps (Junior Achievement Latvia SMC handbook)

The authors were involved in Innovation Cluster for Entrepreneurship Education (ICEE) research, which was a 3 year long research with 25 schools from 5 countries schools involved – Belgium, Estonia, Finland, Italy, and Latvia. It was quantitative research, using results of questionnaires of approximately 7000 students, 3500 parents, 1000

teachers and 400 entrepreneurs as respondents. After the first 2 years of the research, it became clear that students who devoted the Student Mini Company programme at least 100 hours of quality time achieve better results than students with less dedication and push and admit that they are considering becoming entrepreneurs in the future. In addition, respondents stressed the improvement of skills such as project management, showing initiative, entrepreneurial skills as even achieving higher results and better marks in school as well (Johansen, 2018).

Theoretical Background

In the context of secondary school, entrepreneurship education aims help young students develop skills and knowledge that are crucial for the development of a more general entrepreneurial mindset. In fact, serious and simulation games have had a significant effect on classroom education as well as on training programs, increasing the learner's motivation, and enabling him to embark on engaging and challenging learning paths (La Guardia, et al., 2014). Traditional pedagogical tools, such as lectures, literature reviews, and examinations, do not provide motivation for entrepreneurship (Sogunro, 2004; Thanasi-Boçe, 2020). The greatest outcomes can be attained when students are exposed to experiential learning activities that are action-oriented and encourage problem-solving and creativity. (Jones, et al., 2004; Peltier, et al., 2010; Kolb, 2014; Thanasi-Boçe, 2020). Despite the intuitive appropriateness of experiential entrepreneurship pedagogy and the encouragement among leading scholars to use it (see, for example, Béchar, et al., 1991; Neck, et al., 2011), evidence supporting the assumption that experiential pedagogy makes greater impact on students' learning than traditional, lecture-based, pedagogy is still lacking. (Kozlinska, et al., 2020).

Methodology

To conduct a study on the impact of Student Mini Companies on the motivation of Latvian high school students to start a business, a survey was conducted with the respondents of the programme participants and graduates from different regions of Latvia - Liepaja, Valmiera, Madona, Jelgava and Riga districts. Later descriptive statistics and Likert scale from 1 to 5 was used. The research limitations were high school aged students taking part in the Student Mini Company programme, graduates of the Student Mini Company program, Junior Achievement Latvia Alumni Club. In total, students participated in the programme for an average of 9 months, participating in it as part of the national education system.

Results

The questionnaire was distributed in Latvia - Liepaja, Valmiera, Madona, Jelgava, Limbazi and Riga districts. The JA Latvia databases available to the authors of the study were also used and the JA Latvia Alumni Club was surveyed. The total number of respondents was 102, which is approximately 3,4% of all Student Mini Company program participants in Latvia. 71.6% were women and 28.4% were men. The age of the respondents ranged from 16 to 36 years, ranging from incomplete secondary education to completed higher education. The main research questions of this paper were: Does the Student Mini Company programme allow its participants to gain a positive business experience and does the Student Mini Company program motivate young people to become entrepreneurs?

Starting the research, the authors found out the main motivators that raised the high school students' interest in entrepreneurship (see Figure 1).

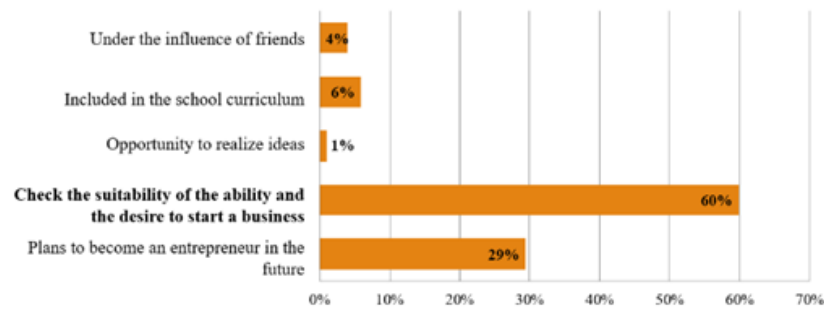


Figure 2. Initial motivators that created interest in entrepreneurship among high school students.

As the results show that among answers like “Under the influence of friends” or “Included in the school official curriculum” which would come to mind as top answers in general, 60% of the students wanted to “Check the suitability of the ability and the desire to start the business” and after that 29% of the respondents answered, “Plans to become an entrepreneur in the future”, which proves that high school students are willing to experiment and understand themselves by creating their own experience, not by someone else’s impressions. In authors opinion it’s a sign that the respondents have developed the entrepreneurial mindset qualities and skills from Student Mini Company experience.

To investigate the impact of the SMU programme on the choice of future professional direction., a question about the choice of the future profession was included in the questionnaire. (See Figure 2). 14.6% of the respondents gave confidence that they will become entrepreneurs in the future - using the acquired knowledge and even continuing the idea created in the SMU programme.

Therefore, it can be concluded that those respondents were sufficiently influenced by the opportunities and motivators of the programme to make a such decision. However, the majority, or 51.6% of the respondents, were more cautious - studies were planned, but in the field of business, this means that the interest has not disappeared and potentially these respondents may also be involved in business activities in the future. A little less than a quarter of the respondents have realized that entrepreneurship is not their field and do not plan to engage in such activities in the future. 8.3% of respondents are undecided.

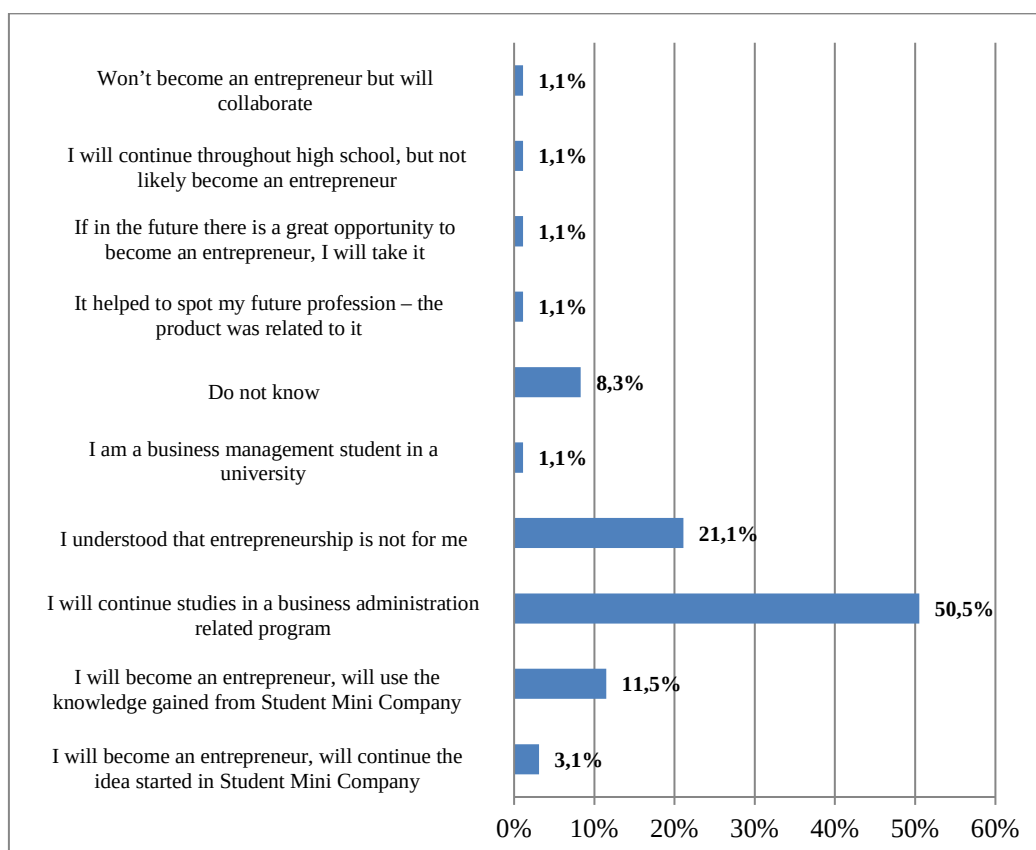


Figure 3. The impact of the Student Mini Company program on the choice of future professional direction.

Conclusions

The SMU programme is a suitable programme that aims to provide students with practical business experience and develop relevant skills and competencies. This programme motivates students to think about the possibility of becoming entrepreneurs in the future in their lives, and we can say that it excluded the possibility of becoming entrepreneurs for some of the participants, but the decision is made from their own experience, not from theoretical assumptions.

The research should be continued, considering the impact of the pandemic - digitization on business education (Mavlutova et al., 2020). The SMU method has proven to be effective, especially in the group of graduates (40% admit "Yes" - that the program developed entrepreneurial intention and 52% answered "Rather yes". But times have changed, so the program also needs to be updated, preservation of good practice. (Offer – update the program in accordance with the EU Digital Education Action Plan (2021-2027). Another option of future research - lack of Student Mini Company alumni are researched – the impact in long term motivation (1 year after high school graduation, 5 years later – after graduating bachelor level and 10 years after) to establish a company.

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FOSTERING INNOVATIVE BEHAVIOR THROUGH HIGH PERFORMANCE WORK PRACTICES IN PUBLIC EDUCATION SECTOR. THE MEDIATING ROLE OF PUBLICSERVICE MOTIVATION AND ENGAGEMENT.

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The stresses and challenges faced by educational institutions during the COVID-19 pandemic further underscored the lack of continuity and commitment of the management teams in public schools. For this reason, we considered necessary to approach the analysis of this situation.

Firstly, we contribute to the scientific literature by analyzing the influence of Public Social Motivation (PSM) and Engagement (ENG) on the relationship between High Performance Work Practices (HPWP) and Innovative behaviors (IB), controlling for the effect of other variables such as age, gender, seniority, etc.

High Performance Work Practices (HPWP) can be described as practices that are intended to foster employee commitment to their organization. We adopt a systemic perspective because specialized literature has shown that HR practices considered as a system have stronger effects (e. g. Combs et al., 2006; Delery & Shaw, 2001). We focus on employees' perception of HPWS rather than focusing on the intended HPWS as rated by supervisors or human resource managers, because our analysis is carried out at an individual level, and employee perception is a more proximal predictor of individual attitudes and behavior (e.g., Alfes, Shantz, Truss, & Soane, 2013; Khilji & Wang, 2006; Nishii et al., 2008).

Innovative behaviors (IB) refer to those processes by which new ideas are generated, created, developed, promoted, realized, applied, and, if necessary modified, by an employee to improve his/her role and organizational performance (Baharuddin et al., 2020). More specifically, teacher's innovative behaviors can be described as actions to develop, apply, promote, or change new ideas that are self-initiated by teachers, in order to improve the quality of learning and facilitate student engagement (Thurlings, Evers & Vermeulen 2015; Zainal et al., 2020).

The theoretical model that depicts the relationship between HRM practices and performance introduced by Guest (1997) suggests that attitudinal variables link HRM practices with employee behaviours (in our case IB). Alfes et al. (2013) argue that the relationship between HRM practices and behavioural outcomes may be better explained by Engagement (ENG) than others like job satisfaction or organizational

commitment, acting as a mediating variable, because it “represents a more holistic view of an individual’s self which includes activated components”. ENG encompasses emotional, cognitive and physical activation simultaneously, and therefore represents an inclusive view of an individual’s self,(Rich et al. 2010).

Moreover, Public Social Motivation (PSM), understood as an individual's motivation to contribute to society, constitutes a central concern in public administration, which has received increasing attention since the last decade of the 20th century. Surprisingly, influence of employees’ PSM on their innovative behavior has received limited attention in the literature, even though research has found interesting links between PSM and other attitudinal and behavioral outcomes (Miao et al, 2018; Ritz, Brewer & Neumann 2016). It should also be noted that, as Piatak et al (2020:87) state “there are still many gaps remaining related to how HRM and PSM intersect and inform both theory and practice”. For this reason, we consider it appropriate to approach the joint study of these constructs as antecedents of IB.

Secondly, to achieve our goals, survey has been sent to the public schools in Teruel Province (SPAIN), distinguishing between three types of schools: Primary Education School, Secondary Education Institute, and Integrated Center of Vocational Training. We sent an initial model to 6 teachers in different schools, with this we modified different questions which could be ambiguous. After that, through the headquarters of Education (UPE Unit Program Education) the link to the schools’ managers has been sent, and they explained to all the teachers in the public school, the possibility of collaborating with the department of education. The research was carried out between 08/02/22 and 03/03/22, with 412 valid responses.

This is a work in progress; therefore, data analysis has not yet been completed. Only preliminary analyses have been carried out. After performing a descriptive analysis of the sample, we plan to test our hypotheses using partial least squares path modelling (PLSPM) with Smart PLS 3.3 tool (Ringle, Wende, & Becker, 2015) that allows analyzing the heterogeneity of response types used in the questionnaire. This method has been considered appropriate to address the research question because its nature allows estimating complex models with multiple variables, it is oriented to explore new relationships between variables from hypothesis models supported by strong theoretical bases, and it allows exploring mediation effects (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015). Reliability, convergence and discriminant validity of measurement model are going to be tested following the recommendations of renowned authors (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2016, Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015).

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WHAT MAKES A COMPANY HAVE STRATEGIC AGILITY?

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Strategic agility is still an immature topic, but which is increasingly gaining interest (both for companies and in academia). There are, however, few studies that show what are the drivers that make a company have strategic agility.

This paper leverages a quantitative/qualitative study made on Spanish companies in the services sector to assess how they obtain strategic agility. The study begins with a survey, sent to top management of the companies, and we complement the results of this survey with case studies for those different ways of achieving strategic agility.

The study reveals that there isn't a unique condition to reach strategic agility, but rather that companies do it in five different ways, according to 6 key factors: firm size, firm age, whether the company is international or not, whether it competes in a turbulent or stable environment, and whether the firm invests in capabilities and technologies, and in additional revenue models or cost-cutting mechanisms.

Keywords: Strategic agility, competitive environment, business characteristics

A MATTER OF RESOURCES: HOW SUSTAINABILITY INTERACTS WITH DIGITALIZATION AND FINANCIAL PERFORMANCE

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“What you measure is what you get” (Kaplan and Norton, 1992). During recent years (Kotarba, 2017) and especially since the pandemic crisis, the digitization of organizations and their business models is a trend that is redefining the global economy, so much so that scholars and practitioners have turned their attention to this process, to assess its significance (Cagle, 2020). However, the topic is complex and articulated to evaluate. The first challenge is how to assess and quantify the level of digitization of an organization (Kotarba, 2017), there are two ways in which digitization is measured: through metrics (Cagle, 2020) or through qualitative business analysis (Thordsen et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2021). Digitization is a process that affects different aspects inside and outside each organization (Kraus et al., 2019), therefore in practice assessing the level of digitization refers to proxies that are difficult and complex to validate for researchers, because these are often not objective (Ritter and Pedersen, 2020; Diller et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2021). In general, it is possible to state that empirical evidence and studies have shown a positive effect of digitalization strategies on financial performance (Westerman et al., 2012; Alsufyani and Gill, 2022). However, other studies observed the digitization paradox, like what happens with sustainability, whereby companies that invest more in digitization strategies have negative returns (Gebauer et al., 2020).

The process of digitation of an organisation, often wrapped up in the term Industry 4.0, is fuelled by the goal of achieving greater performance and building important competitive advantages for business survival and growth (Peppard, 2016). Preview studies show improvements as a result of digitization practices in terms of: (i) revenue generation, such as new customers, new sales, higher cross-selling ratio and lower churn ; (ii) cost improvement, for example automated processes, straight-through processing, shorter processing time; (iii) and better risk management, like improved scoring through fewer operational problems, and advanced risk modelling (Kotarba, 2017; Rutkowsky, et al., 2015; Desmet, et al, 2015). However, companies that adopt digitization strategies run into several problems mainly related to: (i) prioritizing investments, because needs often exceed available funds, (ii) and understanding the real value created by the digital transition, in terms of measurable results and business transparency (Fernández-Olano, et al., 2015; Gottlieb and Willmott, 2014). It is therefore central to the ex-ante and ex-post implementation of digital solutions to define metrics to assess the benefits and ensure their proper measurement.

The rapid development and implementation of digitization has a significant impact on the environment, but it is still unclear whether digitization has a positive or negative impact on sustainability (Chen et al., 2020). Existing literature, through many studies, has

demonstrated a positive impact of sustainability on financial performance (Dalal&Thaker, 2019; Nirino et al., 2019), these studies confirmed that companies that invest in sustainability have more costs, but also greater reputational and economic returns.

To understand how this mechanism works, we can adopt the Penrose perspective of the growth of the firm. The theory states how better a firm's performance could be explained by the capacity to effectively combine the disposable resources Nason and Wiklund, 2018. Some authors, in line with this statement, have adopted this perspective: for example, Tang et al., (2012) have considered CSR as a set of resources and, Teng et al., (2022) states how digitalization is a set of resources disposed by the firm to sustain the performance.

In this context it becomes interesting to understand the role of sustainability, considered a set of resources, and embracing Penrose's perspective, we decided to consider that financial performance is related to the combination of a firm's resources. More specifically, we assume that the impact of digitalization practice on financial performance is generally positive, and that sustainable practice increases their effects, mediating between them. Our digitalization variable comes from digitalization proxies defined by Cagle (2020), such as: reaching operational excellence, production capacity improvement, improving workforce efficiency, innovation/tech infrastructure and achieving expense efficiency.

To test the hypotheses, we collected data from 247 companies in the STOXX Global Industry 4.0 index, consisting of companies that generate revenue from overall technological segments such as cybersecurity, virtual reality or the Internet of Things that lead towards an autonomous machine-driven economic model, in which machines interact with each other without human intervention, for a time frame of 5 financial years (2017-2021).

To broaden the contexts of analysis of the relationship between digitalization and financial performance, we have analyzed this relationship in digitalized and non-digitalized companies. To better understand the effect of digitalization on financial performance, we performed the same analysis on the companies included in the STOXX Global 1800 index which contained the best 600 European, 600 American and 600 Asia/Pacific listed companies.

To demonstrate the impact of digitalization on financial performance via CSR disclosure, we used the panel regression technique. The threat of endogeneity has been eradicated through 2SLS instrumental regression. We use the proxies defined by Cagle (2020) as instrumental variables of digitalization.

The preliminary results obtained showed that companies which adopt digitalization practices have better financial performance, such as a lower cost of capital, better ROA and Tobin's Q, even if they sustain more costs, also enhanced by the mediator role of sustainability. Because of the preliminary results obtained, it is possible to highlight many contributions. First, this research expands the empirical evidence on the debate on the impact of digitalization on financial performance. Our analysis focuses on a selected digitalized companies defining the potential positive effects that digital strategies have on them, also enhanced by sustainability practices. The second contribution, on the other hand, focuses specifically on digitalization variables. In fact, most previous studies use surveys to assess the level of digitization, our work lays the basis to give more objectivity and solidity to a phenomenon crucial to succeeding and growing in today's economic environment, using specific dimensions of the profit and loss statement, appropriately aggregated, as proxies of digitization.

Keywords: Digitalization; Sustainability; Sustainable Entrepreneurship; Financial performance; Resources

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EMPREDIMIENTO FEMENINO Y EMPREDIMIENTO SOSTENIBLE: VINCULACIÓN Y TÉRMINOS CLAVE

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El presente estudio tiene como objetivo realizar una contribución a la base teórica en torno al emprendimiento femenino, profundizando en la relación que se establece entre emprendimiento femenino y emprendimiento sostenible. Se desarrollan a continuación las fases que componen la investigación:

En primer lugar, se analizan todos los artículos bibliométricos indexados a la Web of Science (WoS) *Core Collection*, del término *emprendimiento femenino*, revisando un total de 13 artículos publicados hasta mayo de 2022. En segundo lugar, empleando la misma base de datos, se revisa la totalidad de los artículos bibliométricos acerca del *emprendimiento sostenible*, examinando un total de 20 publicaciones existentes hasta mayo de 2022. La primera publicación se produjo en abril de 2018 y la última en marzo de 2022. El propósito de estas dos primeras fases es la selección de las *keywords* de búsqueda en cada área. En la tercera fase de este estudio, a través de las *keywords* identificadas anteriormente, se realiza la búsqueda de los documentos indexados en la base de datos Web of Science (WoS) *Core Collection* en torno al emprendimiento femenino y el emprendimiento sostenible por separado. Utilizando la opción de búsqueda avanzada, se combinan ambos términos, y se pone foco en la intersección entre los mismos. Se obtiene de esta forma 12 artículos en el período temporal comprendido entre 1999 hasta 2022.

En la cuarta y última fase, se realiza el análisis de coocurrencia sobre los 12 artículos identificados a través de la herramienta Vosviewer en su versión 1.6.14. Este procedimiento permite identificar nueve clústeres que aportan información precisa sobre los factores que son capaces de acelerar o frenar el proceso emprendedor femenino y sostenible, así como visibilizar correlaciones establecidas.

En cuanto a los resultados obtenidos, se detectan diversas temáticas emergentes y conceptos clave en el desarrollo del emprendimiento femenino y el emprendimiento sostenible. Uno de los resultados más destacados es la demostración de la correlación entre el emprendimiento femenino con los Objetivos de Desarrollo Sostenible (ODS). Es necesaria la orientación hacia el estudio del género en el área de emprendimiento para fomentar el desarrollo sostenible (Elam et al., 2021; Xie & Wu, 2021; Islam & Sharma, 2022).

Con respecto a las futuras líneas de investigación, se subraya la importancia de seguir aportando valor al gap existente todavía poco analizado en relación con la mujer emprendedora, espíritu empresarial sostenible, entorno y factores que afectan a su crecimiento (Nair, 2020; Camargo et al., 2020; Barrachina et al., 2021; Gu & Wang, 2022).

Palabras clave: Revisión de la literatura, emprendimiento femenino, emprendimiento sostenible y Objetivos de Desarrollo Sostenible (ODS).

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THE APPLICATION OF ENTREPRENEURSHIP BASED ACTIVITIES FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF AGRO-STARTUPS

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The development of sustainable, circular business, the development and deployment of new technologies, the blurring of geographical boundaries in business, and new models of the business organization all imply the need for adequate knowledge and skills. The set of entrepreneurial attributes for future business developers is multi-layered and constantly evolving and growing. Continuous learning is becoming an inevitable necessity. As the business environment changes, so should also change the knowledge and skills of those who create or will create the business of the future.

According to B. Rok and M. Kulik (2021), personal qualities, general and specific competencies, and values are developed in ways of personal life and professional activity. The development of anthropogenic personal qualities takes place at all stages of a person's life. Different educational objectives, different models and different learning initiators are involved in these processes. The development of coping skills is already implemented in secondary education schools. It should be given equal attention in higher education also, as young people still lack the impulse to start a real business. There is also a lack of competencies, in particular a lack of the necessary entrepreneurial mindset and a lack of a holistic understanding of entrepreneurial processes. The comprehensive development of entrepreneurial competencies is carried out through both formal and non-formal education programs. The latter include seminars, conferences, hackathons, accelerators, and various entrepreneurial academies. All of these allow for the improvement of skills and understanding of how a start-up works. It is recognized that various simulation techniques that allow young people to understand the model of a start-up as a business development model reinforce entrepreneurial qualities. The aim of this research is to show the enhancement of entrepreneurial skills through a simulation model of start-up management.

S. Anohin and J. Wincent (2012) point out that business developers' reactions to market opportunities vary widely. It depends on a number of factors, such as a country's level of development and entrepreneurial traditions. C. Zott et al. (2011) also point out that the models proposed by scholars for the development of entrepreneurial attributes cannot be adapted in a one-size-fits-all manner, noting that the models should be flexible and adaptable to local and temporal conditions. The model should reflect the architecture of the economy and organizational structures: goal setting, identifying, and seeking to exploit market opportunities through product/service development for target consumer groups, profit generation, cost structure, forecasting revenue streams, sales channels, and the firm's relationships with customers, partners, and suppliers (Mattsson et al. (2019), Franceschelli et al. (2018). J. Mattsson et al. (2019) also emphasize the importance of relationships and partnerships in the development of a start-up. The business models and their configurations provide tools for exploring and developing entrepreneurial characteristics. It should be noted that the same deductibles also apply to start-ups in the agri-sector. In addition, technological sophistication, a high level of innovation and risk

assessment are important for such start-ups. In most cases, agri-sector start-ups also need more knowledge and competences in order to have a better understanding of the subtleties of the agri-sector and the sensitivity of the problem to be solved.

The research methodology was a combination of several groups of methods. Firstly, the theoretical justification was based on the method of scientific literature analysis. A mixed-methods research design strategy, both quantitative and qualitative, was used to reveal/evaluate the impact of the simulation model of agro-development on the change in the skills of agro-entrepreneurship. The decision to adopt this research design strategy was motivated by the desire to assess the phenomenon/object under study in a multifaceted way. The case chosen for the study is a simulation-based practice of entrepreneurship skills building, which aims to deepen the accumulated knowledge, develop students' entrepreneurial skills and general and specific competencies, and strengthen entrepreneurial motivation. A questionnaire survey was carried out to assess the overall situation and a content analysis of the reflections was carried out to broaden the interpretation of the data. It is particularly important to note that simulation practices are being carried out by new students. However, in the three-year study, there is a tendency for situations to repeat themselves. Therefore, further research can be carried out on the basis of this study and have a broader comparability.

The questionnaire survey was carried out in 2019-2020, with a response rate of around 60% of the students who participated in the internship, with a total number of respondents of N = 98. One-third of the respondents were male, and the rest were female. Slightly more than 70% of the respondents had work experience. Less than a fifth of the respondents had experience in their own businesses. Thirty reflections were analysed at random. Their content analysis focused on the following key questions: What tasks did they perform? What and how did they learn? What anthropogenic competencies and skills did they improve? How did they feel? What went well and what went less well, what difficulties or problems did they encounter and how did they solve them?

The results suggest that although the model used to develop intrapreneurial skills does not enhance all intrapreneurial qualities and skills in the same way, it is significant for enhancing both personal qualities and skills. According to the respondents, the application of this model contributed most to the development of teamwork, problem-solving, and the ability to react flexibly to changes in the situation. And also, to the development of activity and creativity skills. The questionnaire survey also helped to identify the different impacts of the activities/practices used. The differences obtained suggest that one of the main reasons for this is the different objectives, motives, and motivations of the participants, as well as the different experiences and lengths of time the respondents have been working professionally or in their own businesses.

The content analysis of the reflections leads to the following conclusions: 1) the autonomy of the teams, the independent distribution of the assigned roles of "leader" and "doer" in the teams, and the assumption of responsibility for the decisions taken and implemented, have created the preconditions for the development of the skills and abilities of creativity, representation, cooperation, trust, and responsibility; 2) the inclusion of different areas of the company's activities such as marketing, finance, human resource management, purchasing and sales in the model allowed the participants to understand more clearly the interrelationships between the different areas/departments of the company, the importance of internal communication, the role of the company's manager and his/her team members, the essence and meaningfulness of goal setting, planning and coordination; 3) the inclusion of unplanned activities contributed to a more cohesive team. However, this often increased tensions within teams, stress levels and internal conflicts between team members. On the other hand, the inclusion of such (unplanned) tasks has broadened the perception that often in business management

processes you cannot plan and prepare everything in advance. This in turn contributed to the development of skills such as stress management and inspiration for action. However, the topic is quite new and requires more research. In particular, the structure of start-up teams, their longevity and the challenges they face. Secondly, start-ups are highly dependent on external funding and need to actively participate in hackathons, accelerators, other idea pitch competitions and actively seek investors. A third avenue could look at the level of innovation of start-ups in relation to the agricultural sector. It is particularly important to find out to what extent start-ups have an impact on the growth of this sector and on its development.

Keywords: agro-startups, entrepreneurship, simulation.

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CALIDAD DE VIDA Y EMPRENDIMIENTO: UN ANÁLISIS DESDE EL PARADIGMA DEL DESARROLLO HUMANO

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Desde la década de 1990, el estudio de las causas del emprendimiento se ha orientado principalmente al enfoque de la nueva teoría económica institucional (Urbano & Alvarez, 2014), cuyo principal exponente fue Douglas North (North, 2006), por lo que se ha investigado cómo inciden los condicionantes institucionales en la decisión de una persona para convertirse en emprendedor (Urbano et al., 2018). Desde la perspectiva de las teorías del desarrollo económico, las investigaciones se han enfocado en demostrar cómo impacta el crecimiento económico en las tasas de emprendimiento de los países (Urbano et al., 2016).

De igual forma, desde la perspectiva del paradigma del desarrollo humano, el Programa de las Naciones Unidas para el Desarrollo, resalta la importancia del apoyo a las actividades de emprendimiento como mecanismo para que las personas mejoren sus condiciones de vida y consigan hacer y ser lo que realmente desean (UNDP -United Nations Development Programme-, 2015). Sin embargo, aunque las políticas públicas de apoyo al espíritu empresarial se encuentran en el marco del desarrollo humano, se evidencia la carencia de estudios que faciliten la comprensión sobre cuáles son los factores necesarios para que se lleven a cabo actividades de emprendimiento que faciliten a las personas llevar la vida que realmente desean (Gries & Naudé, 2011).

De acuerdo con lo anterior, el principal objetivo de este estudio fue aportar nueva información sobre cómo y a través de qué elementos se puede incentivar al emprendimiento desde la perspectiva del desarrollo humano. Para ello, se tomó como marco de referencia teórica el Enfoque de Capacidades Humanas (ECH) , como una disciplina intelectual, que otorga un papel central a la evaluación de los logros y libertades de una persona en términos de su capacidad real para hacer las diferentes cosas que tiene razones para valorar hacer o ser (Robeyns, 2017).

Los conceptos básicos del ECH son: capacidades, funcionamientos y agencia. Las capacidades, son lo que las personas pueden ser y hacer o, lo que las personas son libres de hacer; los funcionamientos, se refieren a las actividades que realmente hacen y; la agencia, se refiere a la capacidad de ejercer un rol determinado en función de lo que realmente se quiere hacer y ser. Una persona sin agencia es que aquella que realiza actividades transcendentales por obligación (Robeyns, 2017)

La comprensión de los funcionamientos a partir de las actividades efectivamente realizadas y de las capacidades como las libertades para alcanzar dichos funcionamientos, permite distinguir las dimensiones en las que se realizan comparaciones interpersonales de ventajas y, constituyen las características más importantes de los análisis en el marco del ECH (Robeyns, 2017). En ese sentido, el acto de emprender, al tratarse de una actividad humana, es un funcionamiento.

En las acepciones del emprendimiento se evidencian diferencias de acuerdo con la época y la escuela de pensamiento (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000). Sin embargo, existen elementos comunes en dichas definiciones que indican que un emprendedor es una persona que crea una empresa para producir bienes o servicios, que tienen un mercado o pueden ser intercambiados en la sociedad. Por lo tanto, el acto de emprender es un funcionamiento que depende tanto de las habilidades y aptitudes de quien lo ejerce, como de las circunstancias sociales e institucionales en las que se ejecuta dicha actividad (Urbano et al., 2018). En ese sentido, ser emprendedor es un funcionamiento dependiente del contexto.

Una vez, identificado el emprendimiento como un funcionamiento, es posible estudiar esta actividad humana desde el punto de vista normativo. El análisis normativo implica establecer juicios de valor en torno a que algo es mejor o peor que otra cosa. El ECH constituye una teoría del bien, por lo tanto, todo estudio que se desarrolle en el marco de este enfoque debe propender al bienestar (Nussbaum & Sen, 1993). En ese sentido, se infiere que el emprendimiento, que favorece a las personas llevar la vida que realmente desean, debe tener las características de un funcionamiento refinado, es decir, que se elige sobre un listado de posibilidades; asimismo, debe ser productivo (Baumol, 1990) y el resultado de su actividad debe propender por el bienestar de la sociedad.

En la práctica, la medición y seguimiento del emprendimiento, desde la primera década del siglo XXI, la realiza principalmente el Monitor Global de Emprendimiento (GEM, por sus siglas en inglés) (Álvarez et al., 2014). Esta organización clasifica a los emprendedores de acuerdo con sus motivaciones a emprender, es decir, por oportunidad o por necesidad. Los primeros explotan oportunidades detectadas para obtener beneficios económicos y no económicos y, los segundos, ante la dificultad de insertarse al mercado laboral como empleados, se ven obligados a realizar actividades económicas de autoempleo como mecanismo de subsistencia (Bosma et al., 2017).

En el emprendimiento por oportunidad medido por el GEM, se encuentran los emprendedores innovadores que han creado su empresa en los últimos 42 meses y están comercializando productos o servicios que son nuevos para la mayoría de sus clientes, además, ante la existencia de pocos o ningún competidor (Bosma et al., 2017). Al analizar las características de este tipo de emprendimiento se observa que es a fin a la definición planteada en el presente estudio.

Por otra parte, es posible afirmar que el emprendimiento por necesidad es un funcionamiento, porque denota la realización de una actividad humana. No obstante, desde el punto de vista normativo del ECH, la valoración de este funcionamiento no puede ir más allá de su definición, es decir, como un medio de subsistencia para la persona que lo realiza (Reynolds et al., 2005). Similarmente, se ha evidenciado que el emprendimiento por necesidad tiene un impacto cuestionable sobre la felicidad de las personas que lo ejercen (Harbi & Grolleau, 2012).

De acuerdo con la fundamentación teórica del ECH, el apoyo para que las personas mejoren sus niveles de bienestar se debe realizar a través de la ampliación de sus capacidades (M. C. Nussbaum & Sen, 1993), las cuales pueden ser medidas con los indicadores de acceso real a las libertades que permiten a las personas lograr el estilo de vida que desean. Existe una amplia lista de libertades instrumentales que contribuyen a que las personas lleven la vida que realmente desean. No obstante, las libertades políticas, los servicios económicos, las oportunidades sociales, las garantías de transparencia y la seguridad protectora pueden ser consideradas como las libertades instrumentales básicas, porque inciden en la mayoría de los aspectos que involucran la toma de decisiones de las personas (Sen, 1999).

A partir de lo expuesto y, teniendo en cuenta que el emprendimiento de innovación medido por el GEM es un emprendimiento que tienen las características de un funcionamiento refinado, sobre la base que se elige realizar dicha actividad porque facilita a la persona que lo ejecuta llevar la vida que realmente desea, se sugiere la siguiente Hipótesis:

Hipótesis H1: Las tasas de emprendimiento de innovación se incrementan en la medida en que las personas pueden acceder efectivamente a las libertades instrumentales relacionadas con: los servicios económicos, las oportunidades sociales, las garantías de transparencia y la seguridad protectora.

Por otra parte, dado que el emprendimiento por necesidad medido por el GEM es una actividad que se realiza como mecanismo de subsistencia y no es de libre elección, se sugiere la siguiente Hipótesis:

Hipótesis H2: La tasa de emprendimiento por necesidad, disminuye en la medida en que las personas pueden acceder efectivamente a las libertades instrumentales relacionadas con: los servicios económicos, las oportunidades sociales, las garantías de transparencia y la seguridad protectora.

En el presente estudio se utilizan dos técnicas estadísticas: el Análisis de Componentes Principales (ACP), que permite reducir un conjunto de variables correlacionadas en un grupo más pequeño de variables no correlacionadas, a las que se denominan componentes (Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, 1999), para lo cual se realizó una búsqueda de información estadística sobre medidas de desarrollo en las bases de datos publicadas por organizaciones internacionales, como el Banco Mundial y la Organización de las Naciones Unidas, con el objeto de identificar indicadores de desarrollo que estuviesen, conceptualmente relacionados, con las definiciones de las libertades instrumentales básicas. Se identificaron 7 indicadores y se aplicó el ACP que permitió la construcción de un índice de desarrollo humano denominado Índice de Libertades Instrumentales Básicas (ILIB).

Después de calcular el ILIB, se observó la disponibilidad de información para continuar con una técnica estadística que permita contrastar las hipótesis propuestas (Canarella & Gasparyan, 2008). Por lo tanto, se construyeron 2 muestras. La primera, con información de las tasas de emprendimiento por necesidad y la segunda con información de tasas de emprendimiento de innovación. La información secundaria disponible, permite regresiones a través de la técnica de panel de datos (Wooldridge, 2002).

Los resultados de la estimaciones evidencian que, en la medida en que se incrementan las posibilidades reales para que las personas puedan acceder a las libertades instrumentales básicas, se incrementan las tasas de emprendimiento de innovación. Por lo tanto, se acepta la Hipótesis 1. De igual forma, se corrobora el planteamiento teórico que afirma que el emprendimiento de innovación, al ser un funcionamiento refinado, se incrementa en la medida en que las personas tienen las libertades y capacidades de elegir qué hacer para disfrutar la vida que realmente desean. De igual forma, las estimaciones revelan que en la medida que se incrementa el ILIB disminuyen la tasas de emprendimiento por necesidad, lo que permite corroborar la 2 hipótesis.

En la revisión de la literatura realizada, no se evidenciaron estudios que analicen directamente cómo las libertades instrumentales básicas pueden incidir en el espíritu empresarial. Sin embargo, existen múltiples investigaciones sobre el impacto de los factores institucionales en el espíritu empresarial (Urbano et al., 2018), dichos factores se encuentran relacionados conceptualmente con las libertades instrumentales. En ese sentido, los resultados encontrados en el presente estudio constituyen nuevas evidencias sobre los factores asociados al bienestar o la calidad de vida, que inciden para que se desarrolle el espíritu empresarial.

Palabras clave: emprendimiento de innovación; emprendimiento por necesidad; calidad de vida; desarrollo humano.

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BÚSQUEDA DE PATRONES EN LA LITERATURA: UNA INTERSECCIÓN ENTRE ECO-INNOVACIÓN Y SISTEMAS DE INNOVACIÓN

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La sostenibilidad forma parte de todos los ámbitos de la sociedad actual y se ha convertido en la piedra angular de la prosperidad económica, social y medioambiental (Díaz-García et al., 2015). La creciente importancia de la sostenibilidad implica que también ha influido en el proceso de innovación. La colaboración y participación de los agentes del sistema de innovación juegan un papel crucial en dicho proceso (Doloreux & Parto, 2005). Gracias a esta participación y colaboración, la información, los conocimientos y el *know-how* fluyen entre los agentes de los diferentes sistemas de innovación con mayor rapidez y facilidad. Esto fomenta la integración del bienestar económico, social y medioambiental en el desarrollo de innovaciones. Un sistema de innovación es un conjunto de interrelaciones entre agentes institucionales y económicos que influyen tanto en los resultados de innovación como en el comportamiento innovador de los individuos (Freeman, 1987; Lundvall, 1992; Nelson, 1993). Los sistemas de innovación tienen características únicas que configuran las actividades, las acciones y las decisiones. Tödtling and Trippl (2005) sostienen que no existe un modelo único de política de innovación, sino que cada política debe adaptarse al contexto económico, político, social, cultural, institucional y medioambiental de la región donde se aplica. El concepto de política de innovación y su posterior aplicación ponen de manifiesto su importancia para impulsar y apoyar el proceso de innovación (López-Rubio et al., 2021c).

En la literatura se han utilizado numerosos términos para referirse a las innovaciones relacionadas con una o más de las dimensiones de la sostenibilidad. Sin embargo, muchos académicos no han llegado a un consenso sobre qué términos emplear para describir este tipo de innovaciones (Zubeltzu-Jaka et al., 2018). Entre estos términos se encuentran la innovación verde (Driessen & Hillebrand, 2002), la innovación medioambiental (Porter & van der Linde, 1995), la innovación sostenible (Brundtland, 1987; Schiederig et al., 2012), y la eco-innovación (Fussler & James, 1996; Rennings, 2000). Aunque algunos autores utilizan estos términos como sinónimos (Hsu et al., 2021), otros hacen una distinción (Schiederig et al., 2012; Díaz-García et al., 2015). En este documento, los términos innovación "verde", "medioambiental", "sostenible" y "eco-innovación" se utilizan indistintamente debido a la falta de consenso entre los académicos para definir y conceptualizar las innovaciones relacionadas con la sostenibilidad.

La literatura sobre eco-innovación y sistemas de innovación es extensa cuando se considera por separado, pero la literatura relacionada con la intersección de estos dos temas es limitada. Hasta diciembre de 2021, se habían publicado 5.469 documentos sobre eco-innovación y 2.789 sobre sistemas de innovación. Sin embargo, la investigación que combina estos temas es escasa. Según la *Web of Science Core Collection*, la literatura sobre ambos temas en conjunto consta de sólo 42 documentos, lo que es considerablemente menor que la literatura sobre cualquiera de estos temas de forma aislada. Dada la escasez de literatura que aúna en eco-innovación y sistemas de innovación de manera conjunta, este documento pretende analizar en profundidad la relación existente entre ambos términos de manera simultánea. Este documento ofrece una visión general de la literatura científica sobre el área en la que confluyen la eco-innovación y los sistemas de innovación. Además, al analizar las vías de investigación de la literatura sobre eco-innovación y sistemas de innovación simultáneamente, se espera identificar las referencias teóricas (autores y documentos) que sustentan esta literatura.

Se utilizaron métodos bibliométricos para proporcionar una visión general de la literatura sobre eco-innovación y sistemas de innovación. En primer lugar, se realizó un análisis de co-ocurrencia para captar la co-ocurrencia de las palabras clave de los autores (van Eck & Waltman, 2010). Este análisis se realizó dos veces: una para la investigación sobre eco-innovación y otra para la investigación sobre sistemas de innovación nacionales y regionales. El objetivo era identificar las palabras clave de cada uno de los grandes bloques. Este análisis ayuda a explicar el estado actual de la investigación en este ámbito, ya que muestra los vínculos entre los temas de forma gráfica y de manera que puedan identificarse fácilmente (Callon et al., 1983; López-Rubio et al., 2021c). En segundo lugar, se realizó un análisis de co-citación. El propósito del análisis de co-citación es identificar la literatura común que proporciona el marco teórico de cada publicación. Cuando uno o más documentos citan a dos artículos o autores, los dos artículos o autores quedan co-citados (Small, 1973; López-Rubio et al., 2021a). Ambos análisis se realizaron en VOSviewer.

Los resultados muestran que se espera un aumento de la investigación científica tanto sobre la eco-innovación como sobre los sistemas de innovación en los próximos años. Los conocimientos teóricos se agrupan en cuatro grupos según las áreas temáticas: Grupo 1 relacionado con la eco-innovación, Grupo 2 relacionado con los sistemas de innovación, y Grupos 3 y 4, que incluyen los elementos que constituyen e interactúan dentro de los sistemas de eco-innovación. Según el análisis de co-citación basado en las referencias

citadas, el único artículo sobre eco-innovación con más de 1.000 citas es el de Rennings (2000). Por tanto, este artículo puede considerarse un estudio seminal en el ámbito de la eco-innovación.

Los 26 artículos utilizados para el análisis bibliométrico se seleccionaron de un total de 42 documentos obtenidos de la búsqueda de investigaciones sobre estos dos temas. Se seleccionaron estos 26 artículos porque correspondían al 67% de la muestra. Además, el resto de los documentos (el 33% restante) no había recibido ninguna cita. La producción científica en materia de eco-innovación y sistemas de innovación es escasa, indicando que este campo de investigación está inexplorado. No obstante, la

sostenibilidad se ha incorporado en todos los ámbitos de la sociedad incluyendo los sistemas de innovación. Esto demuestra la urgencia de analizar y comprender las características y el funcionamiento de los sistemas de eco-innovación. Los sistemas de eco-innovación podrían ofrecer a los responsables políticos, naciones y organizaciones internacionales las competencias e instrumentos adecuados para lograr el desarrollo sostenible a través de la eco-innovación. El éxito de la eco-innovación dependerá de la consideración de las características nacionales.

Palabras clave: eco-innovación, sistema de innovación, sostenibilidad, desarrollo sostenible, sistema de eco-innovación

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TRAINING IN SUSTAINABILITY IN AGRI-FOOD AREA DEGREE PROGRAMS

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One of the greatest challenges we will face in the coming decades is to meet the food needs of all humankind. This is a global challenge, as the world's population is expected to grow considerably, reaching 10 billion inhabitants by 2050. At the same time, the pandemic caused by Covid-19 has brought about changes in our lifestyles, starting to give priority to health, safety and the preservation of the environment, which is already reflected in our habits and in the act of shopping (Aday y Aday, 2020; Toussaint et al., 2021). For all these reasons, new models of food production, distribution and consumption are currently being discussed in order to achieve a more rational and sustainable system. Therefore, it is necessary to transmit to our students of the different degrees of the agronomic and food area that all the agents involved in the chain must modify their attitudes and actions.

Indeed, for several years now, many voices are calling for the introduction of sustainability content in university curricula (Aznar et al., 2014; Sánchez Carracedo et al., 2017; Geli de Ciurana et al., 2019; Serrate González et al., 2019). Nevertheless, it still has a long way to go. As Lozano Diaz & Figueredo Canosa (2021) maintain, the inclusion of such contents in the learning guides is, for the time being, slow and insufficient.

In line with this goal, a team of teachers set out to develop the environmental respect competence among our students. In particular, to encourage responsible production and consumption, one of the objectives included in the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) proposed by the UN General Assembly for 2030. This educational experience is developed within the framework of official undergraduate and postgraduate courses from School of Agricultural, Food and Biosystems Engineering, of the Universidad Politécnica de Madrid. The teaching activities were adapted to the profile of the students, paying special attention to the course in which the subject was being taught. The task carried out with second grade students consisted of developing academic projects related to the circular economy. Meanwhile, master's students were challenged to identify an environmental problem, come up with proposals to solve it, and devise a marketing plan to publicize their solution.

Once the activities had been carried out, a survey was conducted to determine the students' degree of satisfaction with the different tasks. The vast majority expressed their satisfaction with the activity. We can conclude that the tasks proposed have fulfilled the proposed objective: the acquisition of knowledge and the improvement of personal conduct, increasing individual commitment to the values of sustainability. In short, they have contributed to develop one of the most demanded competencies in university graduates: respect for the environment.

Keywords: Higher Education; sustainability; responsible consumption; learning experience.

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OPPORTUNITY TYPES AND MOTIVATIONAL MIXES: A GENDERED PERSPECTIVE

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The aim of this conference paper is to analyse differences between females and males in relation to their perceptions of opportunity type (different forms of entrepreneurial intention) and the motivational mixtures of antecedents that are taken to precede each type.

Career-based decisions are commonly made through a holistic evaluation of internal motivations interacting with external circumstances (Douglas et al., 2021). Much research on entrepreneurial motivation, and in particular entrepreneurial intention, tends to marginalise a highly complex social phenomenon through reducing it to a commercialised form (Douglas et al., 2021). In this respect, the assessment of whether or not to engage in entrepreneurship has been studied through a utility gains framework in which the driving motivation is deemed to be the hope of generating future economic returns. This can become problematic as a generational shift has seen young adults place increasing importance toward non-financial goals; for example, a positive work-life balance or helping others who are less fortunate. This shift is amplified through direct experiences with disruptive events, combined with contemporary perceptions of work as a means for career progression and self-realisation (Lepisto & Pratt, 2017; Stephan et al., 2020)

Thought processes are not expected to be the same within all individuals as socialisation experiences can lead to the formation of varying beliefs and values that act as causal antecedents to an entrepreneurial intention (Carter et al., 2003). Potential differences between females and males have been discovered across all entrepreneurial intention model precursors. For example, when starting a business, women entrepreneurs are considered to have lower perceptions of their capabilities than men (e.g., (Austin & Nauta, 2016). Feelings of lower ability in females to accomplish tasks can generate cognitive barriers to entrepreneurship thus resulting in a fear of failure (Shinnar et al., 2012).

In similar fashion, cultural conditions can shape role expectancies with research showing that subjective norms supportive of entrepreneurship are higher for men than for women. Male-dominant stereotypes can discourage specific forms of careers for certain demographics (Gupta et al., 2008). Given limited opportunities for vicarious learning from entrepreneurial roles models, and a perceived lack of entrepreneurial-fit, this can lead to the view that females have a greater likelihood of experiencing failure when compared to males - something which has arguably helped contribute to a widely accepted belief that females display a greater risk-adversity that subsequently impacts negatively on success (Rey-Martí et al., 2015). However, when society is supportive of female entrepreneurship there is greater involvement of women in entrepreneurial activity (Turro

et al., 2020). In fact, female entrepreneurs often successfully compete in different industries and for differ motives which is often overlooked.

The context of venture type (which type of entrepreneur do you want to become?) provides a lens for the present work to interpret how EIs emerge for both female and male students given that sex-role stereotypes can differ based on specific entrepreneurial activity. For example, females have been found to demonstrate lower entrepreneurial intention when entrepreneurship is described through masculine-typed language yet when the wording is gender neutral differences between sex disappears (Gupta et al., 2008).

We make our comparison grounded in four types of entrepreneurial intention that are perceived to cover the main driving motives to be an entrepreneur (Douglas et al., 2021): (1) High Growth (2) Social (3) Lifestyle (4) Intrapreneurship. We generated several hypotheses and tested these using SPSS statistical analysis software. A descriptive analysis and mean comparisons were made between female and male undergraduate students (n = 140) studying entrepreneurship. Results (Table 1) demonstrated significant differences between female and male students in all entrepreneurial intention types except for intrapreneurial intention. Interestingly, we also found no differences between females and males regarding their levels of entrepreneurial self-efficacy.

Advancing the holistic view of entrepreneurial motivation, we highlight the importance of a nuanced and contextualised approach to the study of entrepreneurial intention. This has important implications for the ways in which we approach entrepreneurship education and seek to encourage more females into an entrepreneurial career pathway.

Table 1 Mean comparisons of EI types

Entrepreneurial Intentions Types	Female	Male	P Value
High Growth Entrepreneurial Intentions	4.58	5.00	.011*
Social Entrepreneurial Intentions	6.04	5.32	.000*
Lifestye Entrepreneurial Intentions	6.00	5.47	.004*
Intrapreneurial Intentions	5.82	5.72	.735

Keywords: Entrepreneurial Intention, Opportunity Types, Motivation, Gender

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SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURS: THE CASE OF THE BLUE LAGOON, ICELAND

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Social Entrepreneurship

The vision of sustainability is long-term use of natural resources for human consumption and welfare in an open society based on creativity and security, where all individuals take part and belong. In a sustainable society all stakeholders work together to build up and invest in the local environment in a sustainable manner (Rogers and Ryan, 2001; Taylor, Fletcher and Peljo, 2006). There is an ongoing development towards new responsible business solutions with foundations of cooperation and strong relationship with customers and network partners. The Social Entrepreneurship concept incorporates a strong network lens and strengthens the perspective that innovative actors can be anywhere in the network of the potential organization. Social entrepreneurs innovate to solve social problems, often health related. There is an opportunity for expansion of the concept looking more closely at the impact and evolution of the health and spa organizations that start with a community based non-profit mission. The research method is a case-study using historical data from Iceland and interviews with managers and network partners of a recent important geothermal destination, the Blue Lagoon spa. The case provides an interesting opportunity to apply the Social Entrepreneurship lens to explore the history of a health & spa destination. In the start the idea came from trials of psoriasis patients and their Spoex foundation that tried the wastewater mead from a geothermal power plant, and that evolved in 25 years into a world leading health clinic. The healing effects of the water scientifically confirmed. Parallel to this innovative route the organization developed a mass tourism spa with more than 1 million visitors yearly. Another increasing field for the Blue Lagoon has been skincare and anti-aging products using the mead from the lagoon as substance. Tourism spa & health destination history could gain being analysed by the perspective of Social Entrepreneurs.

Social entrepreneurs are social innovators (Casson, 2005; Certo & Miller, 2008). The active ingredients of social entrepreneurship are not new but the concept has gained momentum recently because of shortcomings of other business models. There are many descriptions and definitions of social entrepreneurs. The social entrepreneur combines his passion with discipline to solve social problems, pursuing both financial and social return

on investment. It has been called '*double bottom line*' where social impact and profitability are balanced. This is connected to the sustainability triangle and the '*triple bottom line*' concept. Social entrepreneurs tend to balance the interests of multiple stakeholders. The social entrepreneur can go over the boundaries of classic rigid business models, using new important structures (Dees, 1998; Fowler, 2000; Mort, Weerawardena & Carnegie, 2003). The profits can be used to help a disadvantaged group. Social entrepreneurship is defined that if a group (or a person) creates social value by taking an advantage of an opportunity with resourceful innovation processes and risk taking (Leadbetter, 1997; Peredo & McLean, 2006). The importance of the entrepreneurial network means the entrepreneur is socially constructed in a network of stakeholders. The mission is to grab opportunities to solve problems with innovative solutions that will earn the entrepreneur legitimate status over time (Neck, Brush & Allen, 2009; Mair & Noboa, 2003; Uzzi, 1997). Many social entrepreneurs have impressive leadership skills and passionate personalities that are fit to seek a long-term vision (Thompson, Alvy, & Lees, 2000). Green social entrepreneurship uses opportunity spaces that can be based on environmental or sustainability trends (Cohen & Winn, 2007; Dean & McMullen, 2007). Environmental issues are important social problems. The sustainable entrepreneur (ecopreneur) often makes his living through sustainable use of outputs aiming for zero waste, or better natural resource use (Linnanen, 2005).

Methods

The research method is a qualitative research, a case-study using observation, historical data and interviews with managers and network partners. The aim of the study is to: Examine the innovation start-up process and development of the case company with the social entrepreneur lens. The case was chosen with a two-step selection process. The first step was to consult with reference groups of experts from the tourism & travel field in Iceland about the most innovative organization in the country. Then the author took formal interview with target cases to find out which companies would be the most pertinent case studies. A total of 27 interviews are used from the target case in the data analysis. The interviews were all in the form of semi-structured interviews digitally recorded. The data is organised into topic themes and analyzed with coding.

Findings and Discussion

There are limitations to findings by using one case. More data is needed to evaluate social entrepreneurship for a more thorough analysis in a broader set of various organizations. It could be fruitful to analyse more diverse organisations in different fields to get richer data to evaluate the concepts and how they connect and interact.

A good example of how Social entrepreneurship can shed a new light on the innovation process is to look at the skin products in the Blue lagoon case. Originally the psoriasis patients came to the lagoon to use the mead and some of them took specimens into jars to bring home with them for bathing. Around the year 1993 the treatment patients were the customers who inspired the creation of the first skin product, the moisturizing cream, which was fully developed and put for sale in 1995. After some testing period of the product the patients started asking for bigger tubes of silica and moisturizing crème to take home, even abroad. As a result, the products were put for sale in the store. Treatment patients have repeatedly since been contributing to ideas of skin products and continuous improvements of treatments. The pioneer Mr. Margeirsson the skin patient in this case experienced extreme health need that later led to mass tourism. He also mobilised the SPOEX foundation, his fellow patients to build up the first facilities that later formed the company.

The Social entrepreneur lens views various stakeholders as possible social innovators and even as ecopreneurs that help society to solve social problems. From this point of view the social entrepreneur can take risk and use limited resources from any external environment to create a new venture. The CEO of the Blue Lagoon has many features of the classification of social entrepreneurs by (Zahra, Gedajlovic, Naubaum & Shulman, 2009). He is partly overlapping the classification: *social bricoleurs*, *social constructionists* and *social engineers*. He has leadership skills and a passionate personality that seeks a long-term strategic vision in line with Thompson, Alvy, & Lees (2000). He is an ecopreneur in line with Linnanen (2005) that creates his successful organization through sustainable use of wastewater of a geothermal plant for better use of the natural resource for patients and tourists.

There are many fruitful research opportunities that are waiting for more thorough testing and comparison.

Keywords: entrepreneurship; social entrepreneurs; health and spa; Blue Lagoon

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EFFECTOS DEL FENÓMENO DE LA IMPOSTORA Y AUTOEFICACIA EMPREENDEDORA SOBRE LA SATISFACCIÓN VITAL DE PROFESIONALES VALENCIANAS

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Resumen

Introducción

El *fenómeno del impostor/a* (FI, Clance y Imes, 1978), conocido popularmente como *síndrome del impostor/a* (Bravata et al., 2020), se define como una experiencia

psicológica generalizada basada en la autopercepción de insuficiencia intelectual, fracaso anticipado, dudas sobre sí mismo y por un miedo constante a ser descubierto como impostor, a pesar de las evidencias objetivas de sus éxitos (Clance y Imes, 1978; Hoang, 2013). Recientes estudios en el ámbito laboral apuntan a que el FI es una barrera interna que obstaculiza el avance y desarrollo profesional (Bravata et al., 2020; Neureiter y Traut-Mattausch, 2016). Por ejemplo, el FI afecta negativamente al desempeño profesional, a la motivación por liderar, al compromiso en el trabajo y a la satisfacción laboral, entre otros (Neureiter y Traut-Mattausch, 2016; Vergauwe et al., 2015). También, contribuye positivamente al burnout, al estrés y ansiedad laborales y está relacionado con estilos de trabajo inadecuados como la procrastinación y el perfeccionismo maladaptativo (Bravata et al., 2020; Neureiter y Traut-Mattausch, 2016).

A pesar de sus consecuencias, lejos de ser un trastorno o enfermedad, el FI se concibe como síntoma subclínico y se ha estimado que el 70% de las personas lo experimentan al menos una vez en la vida (Gravois, 2007), independientemente de la edad, sexo y cultura. Sin embargo, Feenstra et al., (2020) plantean que las raíces del FI sí dependen del contexto específico en el que se sitúa la persona y, es aquí, donde cobran importancia los roles de género. En base a la Teoría de la Congruencia de Rol de Género de Eagly y Karau (2002), los sentimientos impostores pueden encontrarse más frecuentemente en las mujeres en entornos laborales estereotípicamente masculinizados, como el emprendimiento y los puestos directivos de las empresas (Hmieleski y Sheppard, 2019; Hoang, 2013; Ladge et al. 2019). Sin embargo, según la literatura revisada, no se encuentran estudios empíricos sobre el FI y su efecto en la satisfacción con la vida en mujeres empresarias, profesionales y directivas, lo cual conforma el objetivo principal de este estudio.

Para abordar esta cuestión, es importante considerar el papel de la autoeficacia y su relación con el FI, ya que ambos son constructos intimamente relacionados, tanto conceptualmente como empíricamente. Conceptualmente porque la autoeficacia se considera la antítesis del FI, ya que es definida como la capacidad autopercibida para lograr una tarea determinada de forma exitosa (Bandura, 1977). Consecuentemente, investigaciones previas han encontrado relaciones negativas entre el FI y autoeficacia investigadora en estudiantes de doctorado (Jöstl et al. 2012) y entre FI y autoeficacia organizacional en trabajadores por cuenta ajena (McDowell et al., 2015). Además, la autoeficacia es uno de los factores psicosociales más relevantes para el emprendimiento de mujeres, sobre todo en época de crisis en España (Noguera et al., 2013), pero aún no se han encontrado estudios sobre la relación entre autoeficacia emprendedora y FI.

Por tanto, el objetivo de este trabajo es estudiar el efecto de la autoeficacia emprendedora y el FI en la satisfacción con la vida, atendiendo a diferentes ámbitos de la vida (familiar, profesional, como emprendedora y personal), de mujeres directivas, profesionales y emprendedoras en el contexto español, concretamente en la Comunidad Valenciana.

Método

Participantes y procedimiento. Los datos utilizados en esta investigación forman parte del estudio “Valores y actitudes de las empresarias, directivas y profesionales valencianas” impulsado por la Confederación Empresarial de la Comunitat Valenciana (CEV) y por la Asociación de Empresarias y Profesionales de Valencia (EVAP).

La muestra se recogió entre octubre de 2021 y enero de 2022 y se compuso de 147 mujeres entre los 27 y los 78 años ($M=50,6$ $SD=8,04$). El 33,1% eran empresarias, el 18% eran directivas de empresa, el 39,1% eran autónomas y el 9,8% pertenecían a otra categoría (funcionaria, profesora...). En cuanto a su nivel de estudios, el 2,3% de la muestra tenía estudios primarios, el 18,9% tenía estudios secundarios o de formación profesional, el 28,8% tenía estudios universitarios y el 50% tenía además un máster o un doctorado. Recibieron formación en diferentes áreas, principalmente el 43,0% en economía y negocios, el 25,8% en ciencias sociales y humanas, el 13,3% en ciencias de la salud y experimentales, el 4,7% en ingeniería o arquitectura. Una gran parte de la muestra (79,7%) afirma haber creado una empresa, organización o acción social.

Instrumentos. La satisfacción con la vida se midió preguntando a las encuestadas si estaban satisfechas con diferentes ámbitos de su vida, concretamente: ámbito personal, familiar, profesional y su vida como emprendedora, puntuando en una escala Likert de 1 'Nada' a 5 'Completamente'. Esta medida está adaptada de la Escala de Satisfacción con la Vida (SWLS) de Diener et al., (1985) y de Van Dyne y Pierce, (2004) y de Shir (2105), la fiabilidad interna fue adecuada ($\alpha = .85$ $\omega = .84$). Para el fenómeno de la impostora (FI), se utilizaron cuatro indicadores tomados de la escala CIPS de Clance (1985), puntuados en una escala Likert de 5 puntos donde puntuaciones más altas indicaban más fenómeno de impostora. La fiabilidad en este análisis fue $\alpha = .79$, $\omega = .79$. Como medida de autoeficacia, una versión corta de la escala de autoeficacia emprendedora (ESE) de seis ítems de De Noble (1999), en escala Likert de 7 puntos que oscila entre 1 'Muy baja competencia' y 7 'Muy alta competencia', su fiabilidad fue de $\alpha = .90$, $\omega = .91$.

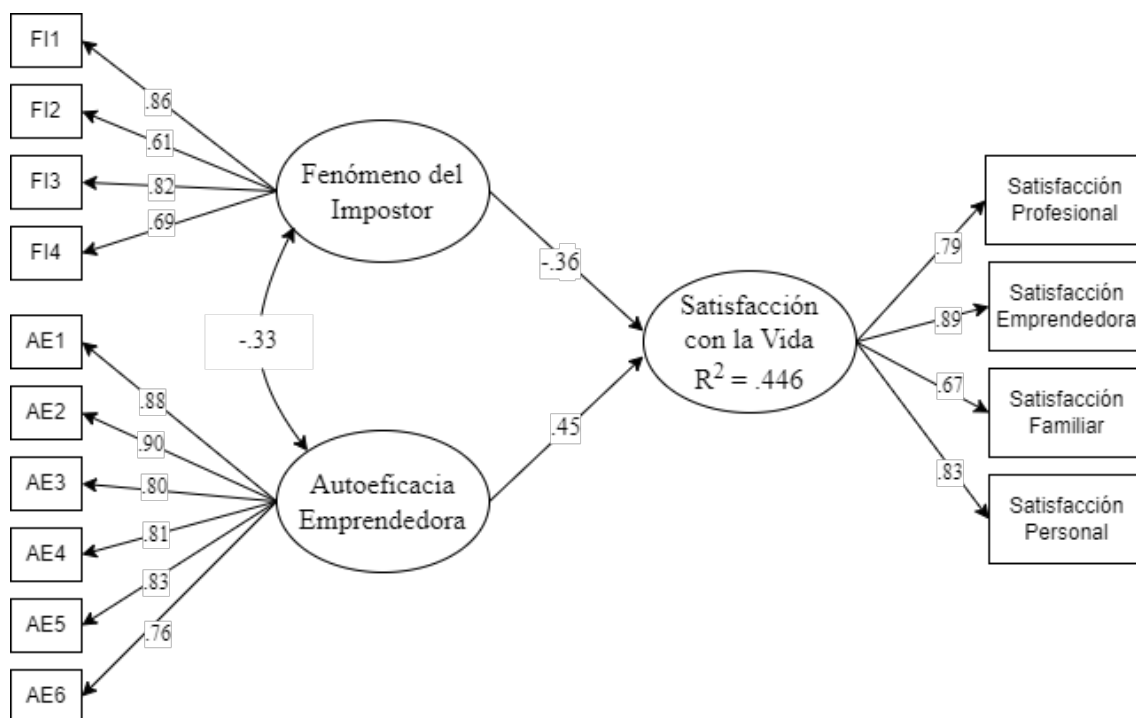
Análisis estadístico. Para los propósitos de este estudio, se estimó un modelo de ecuaciones estructurales (SEM) completo utilizando MPlus 8.7 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017) para probar un modelo de predicción de la satisfacción con la vida a partir de las variables FI y autoeficacia. El ajuste del modelo se evaluó con los índices recomendados por Marsh et al. (2004).

Principales resultados y discusión

El modelo estructural plantea teóricamente que la autoeficacia y el fenómeno de la impostora son predictores potenciales de la variable satisfacción con la vida. El modelo mostró el siguiente ajuste a los datos: $\chi^2(74) = 162.528$, $p < .001$; RMSEA= .095, 90% CI [.075, .115]; CFI= .960; SRMR= .060.

Las estimaciones estandarizadas de los parámetros se presentan en la Figura 1, donde la autoeficacia ($\beta = .45$, $p < .01$) y el FI ($\beta = -.36$, $p < .01$) tuvieron un impacto sustancial para predecir la satisfacción con la vida. Ambas consiguen predecir el 44,6% de la variabilidad de satisfacción con la vida. Por lo que respecta a relación que mantienen entre ellas, vemos que la autoeficacia emprendedora se relacionó de forma significativa y negativa con el FI ($r = -.33$, $p < .01$). Este resultado sigue la misma dirección que estudios previos que encontraron relaciones negativas y moderadas entre autoeficacia y FI (Jöstl et al. 2012; McDowell et al., 2015).

Figura 1. Estimaciones estandarizadas de los parámetros del modelo estructural para predecir la satisfacción con la vida.



Nota. Ítems del Fenómeno del Impostor son FI1-FI4. Ítems de Autoeficacia Emprendedora son AE1-AE6. Todos los parámetros son estadísticamente significativos ($p < .001$). Por mayor claridad, los errores y varianzas no se muestran en la figura.

En conclusión, este estudio arroja luz sobre la relación entre la autoeficacia emprendedora, el FI y la satisfacción con la vida. Los resultados mostraron que el FI puede ser una barrera, no solamente para el desarrollo profesional y la satisfacción laboral como indican estudios anteriores (Bravata et al., 2020; Neureiter y Traut-Mattausch, 2016), sino también para la satisfacción, atendiendo diferentes ámbitos de la vida (personal, familiar, profesional y la vida como emprendedora) de las mujeres empresarias y profesionales valencianas.

Según Feenstra et al (2020), las raíces de los sentimientos impostores se encuentran en el contexto, y no de forma individual en las mujeres. Por tanto, consideramos interesante que futuras investigaciones profundicen el estudio del origen del FI en contextos masculinizados, como el emprendimiento y altos puestos directivos (Hmieleski y Sheppard, 2019; Ladge et al., 2019), con tal de abordar las raíces contextuales de los sentimientos impostores de las mujeres emprendedoras y directivas desde un enfoque estructural e institucional. Además, a partir de estos resultados, sugerimos que, tanto a nivel individual como organizacional, las intervenciones centradas en trabajar y potenciar la autoeficacia emprendedora pueden ser beneficiosas para incrementar los niveles de satisfacción en la vida, dado que pueden estar siendo afectados negativamente por el FI. Otra futura línea de investigación con perspectiva de género, es abordar el estudio del FI en el contexto emprendedor y directivo, incluyendo tanto hombres como mujeres y considerando las distintas fases del proceso emprendedor.

Palabras clave: fenómeno del impostor; autoeficacia; emprendimiento; satisfacción con la vida; bienestar.

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FUNCTIONAL DIVERSITY, LEADER EXPERIENCE, AND NASCENT VENTURE EMERGENCE

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Principal topic

In the process of venture creation, nascent entrepreneurs face significant resource constraints. One way to overcome resource scarcity is to proactively seek new venture team members with diverse and complementary skills (Ucbasaran et al., 2003). However, overreliance on resource-seeking strategy may also result in a failure to develop shared understandings, trust, and cohesion among new venture team members. Research has affirmed a common tendency for homophilous selection of team members in the earliest stages of the venture (Forbes et al., 2006; Ruef et al., 2003; Barbini et al. 2020). Indeed, the team at the nascent stage is still fragile and at high risk of disbandment unless it can establish shared identity, processes, commitment, and trust (Foo et al., 2006). Thus, it seems that there are advantages of homophily, as it is otherwise unclear why founders would not want to pursue widely known long-term benefits of diversity in terms of funding, growth, and reaching IPO (Beckman et al., 2007; Franke et al., 2008).

Despite the role of founding teams in forming new ventures one individual often emerges as the distinct leader (Ensley et al., 2000). Furthermore, having a clear leader can benefit venture teams at the nascent stage (Foo et al., 2006). Team homophilous socialities may favor the emergence of a new venture, but similarly important is the experience of a leader in start-up creation. In line with Thiess et al. (2016), we study the role of diversity of different types of experiences of the founding team in the transition

of early entrepreneurial ideas into new ventures and add the dimensions of heterogeneity of members' age and education.

Several studies showed that new venture teams are more likely to be composed of age homogeneous members (Ruef et al., 2003). Age similarity improved the perceived value of the potential cofounder by nascent entrepreneurs (Grossmal et al., 2012). However, age diversity has been shown to positively affect performance for new ventures, though after a long time when emotional conflict triggered by age diversity is largely overcome (Steffens et al., 2012).

Like age, occupation and education also exhibit significant homophily in networks (McPherson et al., 2001). Individuals are more likely to form ties with others who share the same educational level (Kalmijn, 1998). Moreover, Hellerstedt et al. (2007) showed that educational diversity increases the likelihood team member exits from entrepreneurial teams.

In an organizational setting, team members with different functional backgrounds may have difficulties exploiting their diverse expertise due to cross-functional communication issues (Bunderson & Sutcliffe, 2002). We expect these diversities to decrease the likelihood of meaningful interactions and interpersonal understanding, bringing frictions and lower performance of nascent venture teams.

If the breadth of fields and experiences may limit the possibility that an entrepreneurial idea translates into a new venture, the depth of experiences of the leader compensates for this negative impact. One of the key indicators of general human capital is the amount of formal education attained (Hmieleski et al., 2015). Irrespective of the field being studied, formal education tends to amplify the logic-based and analytical way of thinking, the entrepreneurs' ability to get formal sources of funding (Slavec & Prodan, 2012), and creativity, curiosity and ambition (Hmieleski et al., 2015). Those qualities tend to be particularly useful in high uncertainty, which is a fundamental feature of the nascent stage. For these reasons, we expect that leaders having a higher level of formal education may be more efficient at leading their team to the operational stage.

Method

We use data on 155 teams of participants in a business plan competition organized annually by territorial institutions in Romagna in 2010-2019 (data sources: business plans, Orbis, Italian Chamber of Commerce). We used logit models to run preliminary estimations. Our dependent variable is a dummy measuring if the new venture was formally established.

Independent variables include:

Age diversity, calculated using the coefficient of variation; *Functional diversity and Educational diversity* are calculated with the Blau's index. To measure functional diversity we identified the functional areas in which members had most months of occupational experience. For educational diversity, we use the educational field.

Educational attainment of the leader was measured as its highest academic degree. We also preliminarily included measures of S&T and management fields or functional experience of the leader to characterize their capacity to integrate diverse people and knowledge and pursue cognitive alignment and communication in the nascent stage.

We control for the *team size*, the high/low *degree of R&D intensity* of the sector and the presence of at least one team member with *entrepreneurial experience*.

Results

Table 1 reports the preliminary results. Age diversity is positively associated with new venture emergence, denoting the beneficial presence of older members in teams with mates of diverse and minor ages. By contrast, teams showing high levels of functional and educational diversity are less likely to establish a company.

We also find that the team leader educational attainment increases the likelihood of new venture emergence. Technical experience has a negative impact, while managerial experience has weak effects.

The full version of this paper will deepen the analysis of managerial and technical education and develop conceptual and empirical analyses focused on the interactions between education and experience of the leader and team diversities.

Keywords: nascent entrepreneurship, leader, functional diversity, education, team

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ENTREPRENEURIAL TEAMS' CULTURAL DIVERSITY AND START-UPS INTERNATIONAL STRATEGIES

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As the assertion that the actions required to establish and grow a new venture are more taken by entrepreneurial teams (ETs) than solo entrepreneurs is now generally absolute (Gartner et al., 1994), the traditional view that considers the "lone entrepreneur" as a hero has become one of the great myths in entrepreneurship (Cooney, 2005). The increasing number of new ventures founded and managed by ETs (Reynolds, 1997; Seeger & Nurick, 1990) has led entrepreneurship research to primarily focus on the influence of ETs on the development of new ventures (Bolzani. D et al., 2019; Klotz et al., 2014). likewise, the last decade has witnessed an increase in start-up internationalization. Research affirmed that internationalization is typically related to ETs (Baier-Fuentes et al., 2018). Despite the monistic role of ETs in the internationalization of start-ups, studies dealing with ETs in the internalization context have been rarely considered (Bolzani. D et al., 2019). Research on ETs has taken several forms (i.e., formation, composition, and process); however, ETs composition or diversity has received a particular interest (Klotz et al., 2014). Although research about ETs diversity has burgeoned, we still know very little about the national diversity of ETs (Lalonde, 2017). The national origin is an important element of ETs' diversity because it represents a proxy of the team's cultural composition. The cultural background affects individuals' values, attitudes, and behavior (Ronen & Shenkar, 1985), which in turn reflects the basis for strategic choices (Shaw, 1990). Studies about teams' cultural heterogeneity have dominantly perused a corporate lens by focusing on top managerial teams (TMT) (e.g., Nielsen *et al.*, 2009; Nielsen & Nielsen, 2011; Nielsen & Nielsen, 2013; Dahms & Kingkaew, 2019), resulting in a large gap between two fields of study (Entrepreneurship and strategic management) (Wise et al., 2022).

Various differences between large established firms and start-ups limit the applicability of the previous studies to the concept of ETs (Patzelt et al., 2021). A crucial difference between TMT and ETs is ownership prosperity. ETs are usually the firm's founders, whereas management teams consist of hired executives and top managers. The ownership element of ETs impels a stronger motivation and commitment to achieve the firm's goals and objectives (Patzelt et al., 2021). Another critical distinction is teams' formation. A unique feature of ETs is their endogenous formation (Lazar et al., 2022), where entrepreneurs select both the idea and the people with whom to work (Hamilton, 2013). TMTs are exogenously assigned by the CEO. Based on the previous proceedings and the research gaps, we strive to dig deeper into understanding how the cultural diversity of ETs' members can influence their decisions about international strategies (i.e., Market and entry mode choice).

Our study offers several contributions. First, we expand the entrepreneurship literature by shedding light on ETs' cultural diversity and strategy. Understanding ET dynamics and strategy has long been an emergently needed in entrepreneurship (Zhou, 2015; Lazar et al., 2020). Our focus on the cultural background of the team members rather than individual entrepreneurs adds to the existing knowledge of ET composition and decision-making research. Second, we extend research about teams' cultural diversity to the entrepreneurship field; studies about cultural diversity have been concentrated in the context of a large established organization. Third, we provide new insights into the influence of ET composition on start-ups' international development, as there is a pressing need to understand how ET influences internationalization strategies (Laone et al., 2014).

In order to overcome the lack of evidence and the boundaries between a phenomenon and context, Yin (1994) suggested employing a case study approach. Thus, we followed a multiple case study approach (Eisenhardt, 1989) by relying on six Italian international start-ups to answer our research question. We based our analysis on the three dimensions (Hall & Hall, 1990)—context, space, and time. We picked Hall & Hall's (1990) cultural dimensions out of several cultural models because they present a good fit for the in-depth business context and work behavior analysis (Bouncken, 2004). Our investigation resulted in the following propositions:

1. In nationally diversified ETs, the combination of polychronic/high context/low-space and monochronic/ low-context/high-space cultures is positively related to

rational decision-making, risk-taking behavior of international development, and innovativeness.

2. In nationally diversified ETs, the combination of either polychronic/high context/low-space or monochronic/low-context/high-space is positively related to task conflict leading to a hybrid strategy.
3. In nationally homogenous ETs, the combination of polychronic/high context/low-space is positively related to bounded rationality and risk-neutral behavior of international development.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial teams, entrepreneurial teams' diversity, cultural diversity, startups, internalization strategies, decision-making

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SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN THE INTRAPRENEURIAL INTENTIONS OF SPANISH AND COLOMBIAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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In recent times, we have been coexisting in a context of uncertainty that is very pronounced and enormously changing. In addition, together with the acceleration of globalization, the advance of technology in general, and the important economic, social, political, and environmental concerns of today's society, we are living in a context of uncertainty, which is very pronounced and enormously changing (Dovey & Rembach, 2015; Soncin & Arnaboldi, 2021). In this context, society increasingly requires, within the different agents involved in economic and social development, people not only with a high level of qualification, a clear orientation towards an entrepreneurial vision of their actions, innovation, and the ability to take risks both individually and as part of a group (Baena-Luna, Sánchez-Torné, Pérez-Suárez, & García-Río, 2022). Undoubtedly, these traits are characteristic of people identified as intrapreneurs.

Universities play a relevant role in promoting the development of entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial people since, through their educational intervention, they can favor the improvement in the acquisition of knowledge but also of certain competencies and skills directly connected with the entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial profile of their students. Evidence of this potential can be seen in the increasingly relevant role played by entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial education in the priorities within the policies (Stephens, 2020).

The main objective of this work is the comparative study and analysis of the levels of intra-entrepreneurial intention among undergraduate university students in the field of economic and business sciences in the countries of Spain and Colombia in the context of transition to Covid-19. Exploring and knowing the reality of intrapreneurial intention and its relationship with the different university programs aimed at favoring entrepreneurial and intrapreneurial behaviors contribute in some way to understanding the necessary investment in human capital (Kansikas & Murphy, 2010).

It should be emphasized that in research in the field of Intrapreneurial Intention there are still theoretical gaps that require the promotion of research to corroborate relationships in practical contexts that have not yet been validated. Therefore, the validation of processes and scales for measuring EI is required to promote longitudinal studies, as well as the

evaluation of strategies and educational programs aimed at promoting entrepreneurial behavior (Valencia, Montoya, & Montoya, 2016).

The research questions linked to the achievement of the main objective of this work are:

1. Are there significant differences in intrapreneurial intentions between undergraduate students at universities in Colombia and Spain?
2. What are the divergences and similarities between the factors that determine the intrapreneurial intentions of undergraduate students at universities in Colombia and Spain?
3. What are the best guidelines for strengthening intra-entrepreneurial intentions in undergraduate students at universities in Colombia and Spain?

Concerning the potential sample of this research work, in the case of the Spanish students, it will be formed by the students of the Degree in Economics and the Double Degree in Law and Economics of the University of Seville during the 2021-2022 academic year, for a total of 885 people. In the case of Colombia, the population is made up of a total of 2,731 students with degrees in Business Administration, Industrial Administration, Economics, and Public Accounting at the University of Cartagena enrolled in the year 2022.

The instrument for measuring Intrapreneurial Intention corresponds to a structured questionnaire based on two previously validated structured questionnaires, based on two previous works with validated scales on the modeling of the appropriate variables to measure Entrepreneurial Intention, using a five-position Likert scale (where one means strongly disagree and five means strongly agree) to measure the constructs of Entrepreneurial Intention, Subjective Norm, Attitude towards Entrepreneurship and Perceived Behavioral Control. Second, the studies by (González-Serrano, Calabuig-Moreno, Valantine, & Crespo-Hervás, 2019) identify intrapreneurs and measure propensity toward innovation and taking risks. In both cases, measured through a series of statements rated according to a seven-position Likert scale (with an orientation from least to most identification with the question posed).

For the processing of the data obtained from the questionnaires applied using electronic surveys, descriptive and descriptive statistical techniques will be applied electronic surveys, descriptive and inferential statistical techniques will be applied. inferential statistics will be applied. The processing will also involve the post-coding of open-ended questions. open-ended questions. For the descriptive analysis (measures of central tendency and dispersion) and inferential (parametric and/or non-parametric tests of association, as appropriate, to determine significant differences between both groups of universities) of the data obtained from the application of the data obtained from the application of the questionnaire, using Stata software, version 15. Stata, version 15. Blank answers or Ns/Nc will not be considered. The inferential analysis will take into account a confidence level of 95% and an error of 5%.

The proposed model for the assessment of intrapreneurial intentions for Colombia and Spain will be solved using the Partial Least Squares (PLS) method. The Partial Least Squares (PLS) method for Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) (Chin, 1998), is considered a second-level multivariate statistical technique (Sarstedt, Hair, Ringle, Thiele, & Gudergan, 2016).

Keywords: intrapreneurial intentions, university students, intrapreneurship, Spain, Colombia

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SOCIAL INNOVATION: BEYOND SOCIAL AND GREEN

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Social innovation (SI) field is characterized by its conceptual ambiguity and lack of a clear concept and definition (van der Have & Rubalcaba, 2016). Nonetheless, different attempts to provide a theoretical framework have been done.

For instance, in the context of the SI-DRIVE EU funded project, a definition was proposed: *‘a new combination or figuration of practices in areas of social action, prompted by certain actors or constellations of actors with the goal of better coping with needs and problems than is possible by use of existing practices’* (Butzin et al. 2014).

Other relevant works such as Howaldt, & Hochgerner’s (2018) focused on identifying the dimensions of SI, namely: Process dynamics; Governance, networks and actors; Resources, capabilities and constraints; Addressed societal needs and challenges; and Concepts and understanding.

This work will specifically focus on one key aspect of one of the dimensions (“Concepts and understanding”) of the Social Innovation concept, that also plays a key role in the selected definition of SI: Practices. In particular, social and environmental practices and their association and influence on the relationships with two stakeholders: Customers and suppliers.

Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and SI are intimately related, as CSR comprises all the activities developed by a company to meet the society needs, and if is properly integrated into corporate strategy it can be considered as a social innovation (Szegedi et al., 2016).

Previous works have analyzed the effect of CSR practices on the relationships with these stakeholders. For instance, the implementation of innovative social and sustainable practices has been found to have a positive impact on companies from the customer point of view such as: Competitive advantage, reputation, customer satisfaction (Saeidi et al., 2015), loyalty ((Nareeman & Hassan, 2013) and very importantly, purchase intention (Dutta & Singh, 2013).

As for the influence of social and sustainable practices on suppliers’ relationships, has been reported as positive as well. For example, the adoption of strategic CSR increases the suppliers trust, that translates into practical implications such as having more trade credit financing from suppliers (Zhang et al., 2014) or improve sales performance (Jia et al., 2021).

Interestingly the positive effect of CSR, benefits both dead ends on supplier’s relationship. Corporations are selecting their supplier pounding in the decision process CSR indicators (Wong et al., s. f.), and thus suppliers are taking the initiative into complying with CSR directives (Hultman & Elg, 2018) to promote their selection.

All in all, we can conclude that adopting social and environmental practices has a positive effect on both stakeholders relationship, but also has a positive effect on the company results as they contribute to reduce financial distress (Al-Hadi et al., 2019) among other aspects.

The sample was collected from 156 companies from the textile manufacture sector in Valencia Community (Spain). The questionnaire included the items included in Table 1, to analyze the relationship with Customers, and the items displayed in Table 2 to study their rapport with Suppliers.

CUSTOMERS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree	N/A
C.1. Your company complies with quality criteria in production and/or service.						
C.2. Your company records and responds to customer complaints in an efficient way.						
C.3. Your company's catalogue and labelling provides clear and accurate information, including after-sales service.						
C.4. Your company tries to raise customer awareness on social and environmental responsibility issues.						
C.5. You take measures to reduce energy consumption						
C.6. Your company takes into account accessibility for customers with disabilities						
C.7. Social and environmental responsibility policies are relevant for customer acquisition and/or customer loyalty						

Table 1: Items to analyze the companies' relationship with customers

SUPPLIERS	Very low	Low	Medium	High	Very High	N/A
S.1 Monitor your suppliers' compliance with environmental standards						
S.2. Establish or maintain an effective complaint process with your suppliers						
S.3. Promote the social and environmental responsibility of your suppliers						
S.4. Follow the same social and/or environmental responsibility guidelines as its suppliers						
S.5. Convey your social and/or environmental responsibility guidelines to your suppliers						

Table 2: Items to analyze the companies' relationship with suppliers

Fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis (fsQCA) will be carried out to elucidate the practices implemented by companies with their customers and suppliers (causal relationships) that promote and lead to social innovation.

Preliminary descriptive results (Table 3) showed that in both cases companies with environmentally friendly products (1) exhibited a higher mean value in their relationship

with both customers (Figure 1) and suppliers (Figure 2) than those companies lacking environmentally friendly products(0).

	Environmentally friendly products	Suppliers	Customers
N	0	70	70
	1	86	86
Mean	0	2.89	3.68
	1	3.15	4.11
Median	0	2.80	3.71
	1	3.20	4.00
Standard deviation	0	0.835	0.528
	1	0.857	0.490
Minimum	0	1.00	2.43
	1	1.40	3.29
Maximum	0	5.00	4.86
	1	5.00	5.00

Table 3: Descriptive statistics. Note: no missing values are present; Suppliers and Customers values were calculated as the average of the items presented in tables 1 and 2.

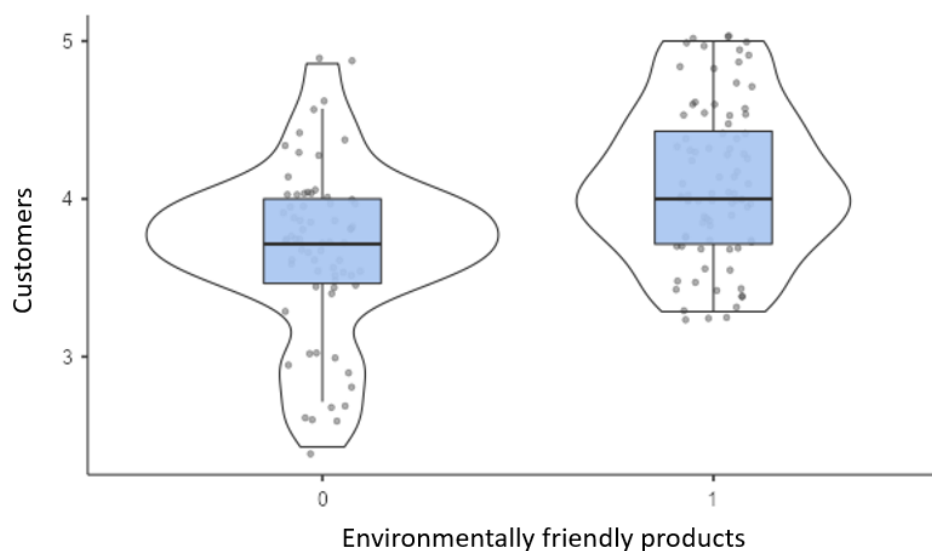


Figure 1: Box plot relation between customers and firms that produce environmentally friendly products.

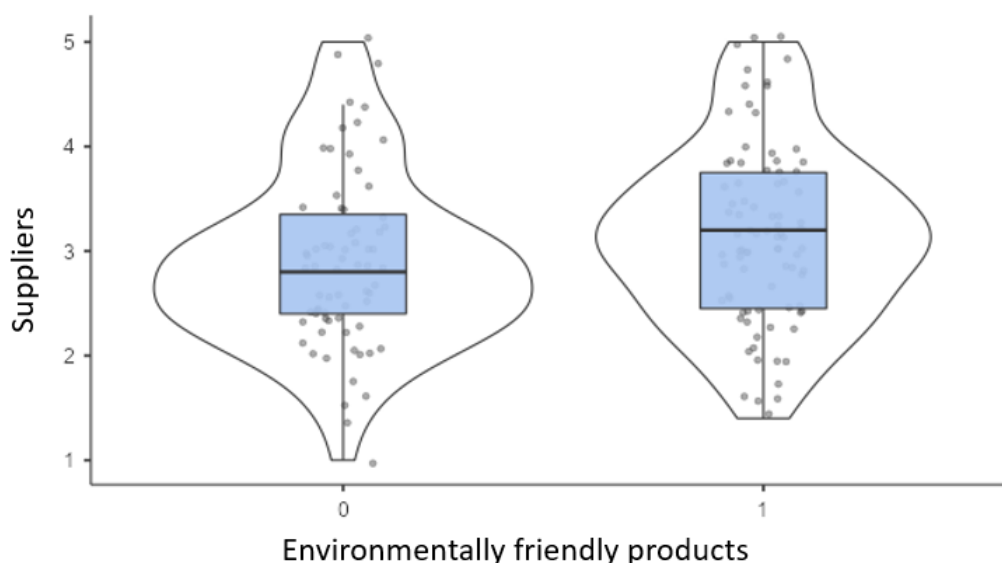


Figure 2: Box plot relation between suppliers and firms that produce environmentally friendly products.

We can conclude from this pilot analysis, that firstly the employed database is suitable to conduct the foreseen analysis, and secondly that developing environmentally friendly products impacts positively on their relationship with both Customers and Suppliers.

The future work will comprise (aside from fsQCA) analyzing by cluster or geographical region, and sizing the effect of internal and external barriers to the adoption of innovative social and environmental practices.

Keywords: social innovation; CSR; stakeholders, fsQCA

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ECONOMÍA DEL DATO Y TRANSFORMACIÓN DIGITAL

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Antecedentes

En tan solo unos años se ha pasado de hablar de necesidad de digitalización de las empresas a transformación digital. Son numerosas las apuestas de la Comisión Europea por la transformación digital no solo de las empresas sino de las personas. En esta línea, la Comisión establece diversas metas digitales para 2030 y propone una Brújula Digital para la Década Digital de la UE en torno a cuatro puntos cardinales: capacidades, infraestructuras, Gobernanza y Transformación Digital de las empresas. En el marco de esta década digital una de sus apuestas clave se basa en conseguir una sociedad impulsada por datos.

En este contexto, términos como inteligencia artificial, machine learning y big data han pasado a formar parte del vocabulario económico. No se trata de conceptos nuevos, la importancia de los datos para la toma de decisiones inteligentes en la empresa no representa una novedad en sí misma. El análisis de los datos no solo permite un incremento de la productividad y una mayor eficiencia en el uso de los recursos en todos los sectores, sino que los datos son un elemento fundamental para la generación de nuevos productos y servicios.

Los datos son un recurso esencial para el crecimiento económico, la competitividad, la innovación, la creación de empleo y el progreso social en general. Si bien Europa presenta debilidades en su capacidad de disrupción tecnológica, la UE tiene la

oportunidad de posicionarse en el ámbito de la economía del dato mediante la puesta en marcha de un mercado único de datos que garantice la competitividad mundial y la soberanía de los datos en Europa. Plantea para ello un instrumento: los espacios comunes europeos de datos. La soberanía, autonomía estratégica y liderazgo de la Unión están en juego.

La valoración de los datos es un proceso complejo, pero resulta crucial no solo para la toma de decisiones informadas por parte de los *policy makers* en relación con inversiones en infraestructura y capital humano, sino también para la toma de decisiones de carácter empresarial (Coyle y Li, 2021).

Estado actual de la investigación sobre economía del dato

La literatura sobre economía del dato se encuentra en pleno proceso de crecimiento, pero muestra todavía un estado incipiente, poco consolidado y con un cierto predominio de la literatura gris. Pese a ello, en estas primeras etapas de la investigación se está realizando un esfuerzo de cara a la definición del marco conceptual, clasificatorio y de caracterización de los datos desde una perspectiva económica.

El auge de la economía digital está otorgando un papel creciente y fundamental a los datos. La multiplicación de datos en la estructura económica supone una notable oportunidad para impulsar la competitividad de empresas y territorios mediante mejoras de eficiencia. Especialmente, los datos se han convertido en un activo clave para la innovación (Niebel et al., 2018). De hecho, las tecnologías digitales están modificando la forma de tomar decisiones económicas al alterar los costes de búsqueda, duplicación, transporte, seguimiento y verificación de los datos (Goldfarb y Tucker, 2019).

Definición y clasificaciones

En un informe del Fondo Monetario Internacional los datos han sido definidos como una “representación fáctica de una característica, acción o evento natural” (Carrière-Swallow y Haksar, 2019: p.7). Pero si algo caracteriza a los datos es su falta de homogeneidad; por el contrario, los datos son diferenciables en función de una gran cantidad de atributos: a quién y qué describen, cuándo y dónde se recopilaron, qué nivel de estructuración tienen y si unos determinados datos se pueden fusionar con otras variedades de datos. Dentro de clases estrechas de variedades de datos resulta posible definir mercados significativos

para datos con un precio único, que variará significativamente entre variedades y con el transcurso del tiempo (Carrière-Swallow y Haksar, 2019).

Esta falta de homogeneidad ha dado lugar al surgimiento de diversos criterios de categorización de los datos (Cremer et al., 2019; Wdowin y Diepeveen, 2020). Una primera distinción que utilizaba como criterio de clasificación la forma (analógica o digital) en que se almacenan los datos ha ido perdiendo vigencia a medida que ha crecido de forma exponencial la digitalización como forma preferente de almacenamiento de los datos (Hilbert y López, 2011). Otras clasificaciones diferencian entre datos personales y no personales, entre datos cualitativos y cuantitativos o, según el método utilizado para conseguir tales datos, los catalogan como observados, voluntarios o inferidos. Algunas taxonomías (El-Dardiry et al., 2021) proponen distinguir entre cuatro tipos de uso de los datos; los estudios e investigaciones pueden hacer uso de datos de ámbito individual, datos de nivel individual agrupados, datos de nivel agregado o datos de carácter contextual.

Características económicas de los datos

Desde una perspectiva económica la literatura reciente (Carriere-Swallow et al., 2019; El-Dardiry et al., 2021) ha destacado determinadas características de los datos que significan notables desafíos para las políticas públicas. Entre estas características destacan tres.

Primero, los datos no son rivales. De un lado, la digitalización de datos y, de otro, la capacidad de transferirlos a través de redes ha determinado que los datos sean cada vez menos rivales al eliminar virtualmente los costes de duplicación y transferencia. A diferencia de la mayor parte de los productos, pero al igual que otros tipos de información, el uso de datos por parte de un determinado agente no disminuye la capacidad de otros para usarlos, incluso simultáneamente. La no rivalidad de los datos y el hecho de que se puedan replicar por sus rendimientos de escala permitiría realizar una cierta equiparación entre crecimiento tecnológico y crecimiento en el uso de datos (Farboodi y Veldkamp, 2021).

La no rivalidad de los datos significa que en pocas ocasiones estos se intercambian en el mercado; más bien se suelen licenciar para usos específicos (Varian, 2018). Sin embargo, y como señalan Carriere-Swallow et al., (2019), aunque la tecnología hace posible la no rivalidad de los datos, en realidad las políticas y las decisiones empresariales pueden

impedir que esta “no rivalidad” tenga una traslación práctica. Así, según estos autores, las regulaciones existentes hacen poco probable que las empresas privadas tengan incentivos para facilitar a los competidores el acceso a los datos que han recopilado, de modo que las prácticas de acumulación de datos no solo pueden estar limitando la competencia del mercado, sino también los beneficios sociales que podrían derivarse del acceso a los datos.

En segundo lugar, y en términos generales, los datos solo se pueden excluir parcialmente. Algunos tipos de datos son excluibles; es decir, denegar el acceso a terceros no es excesivamente costoso. Sin embargo, en el caso de que no se pueda evitar que otros accedan a los datos, los datos no son excluibles por lo que podrían llegar a considerarse un bien público (El-Dardiry et al., 2021). Un ejemplo de datos en los que resulta fácil la exclusión son los datos de carácter administrativo, como por ejemplo los relativos a declaraciones de impuestos o registros de pacientes, que tienen un carácter confidencial y deben estar adecuadamente protegidos. Por el contrario, los datos de fenómenos observables públicamente (como, por ejemplo, los datos ambientales: lluvia, etc.) son accesibles libremente, aunque la barrera puede estar en los costes privados que comporta la medición. Una forma común de hacer que los datos sean de difícil acceso, y por tanto excluibles, es situar los datos detrás de un muro de pago (a menudo vinculado al registro de la cuenta), como puede ser el caso de artículos de periódico o conjuntos de datos para investigadores (Coyle et al., 2020).

En tercer lugar, los datos comportan externalidades. La compilación, comercialización y procesamiento de datos, especialmente de carácter personal, puede suponer costes en términos de privacidad. La posible existencia de externalidades negativas supone un importante desafío para la política pública en la definición de derechos y obligaciones de los participantes en los mercados de datos

Líneas de investigación en curso

El objeto de la investigación en curso es evaluar la implantación de la economía del dato como clave para la transformación digital de las empresas identificando tanto modelos y barreras, así como posibles facilitadores y realizando propuestas de recomendaciones para su implantación.

Para lograr el objetivo marcado se realizará una aproximación sistémica combinando el uso de metodologías de análisis tanto cuantitativo como cualitativo. Durante el estudio se realizará una caracterización de los sectores económicos y se llevarán a cabo cuestionarios a empresas de los ámbitos industria, turismo y salud y se desarrollarán dinámicas de grupo.

Con carácter provisional, se plantean dos hipótesis de partida:

- El desarrollo de la economía del dato está directamente relacionado con la madurez digital de las empresas.
- La adopción de tecnologías habilitadoras basadas en datos varía en función del sector, tamaño y ubicación de la empresa.

Estas hipótesis irán precisándose de forma más detallada a medida que se realice un análisis más exhaustivo de la literatura y se avance en el proyecto de investigación.

Palabras clave: Economía del dato; Transformación Digital; Innovación; TIC

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FUNCIONES Y BLOQUEOS TRANSFORMATIVOS EN EL SISTEMA REGIONAL DE INNOVACIÓN DEL BIOBÍO

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El enfoque de sistemas regionales de innovación se ha desarrollado en el marco de la economía evolucionaria, lo que implica entender la innovación como un proceso de aprendizaje interactivo (Edquist, 2005; Lundvall, 1988, 2016b), vinculándola tanto al sistema de producción como al sistema de ciencia y tecnología (Lundvall, 2016a). Esta perspectiva teórica ha desarrollado relaciones sinérgicas con otros marcos conceptuales, en especial con la “triple hélice”, la que pone énfasis en la relevancia de los actores y sus roles, así como en la interacción entre ellos que permite la evolución del sistema en su conjunto en torno al conocimiento (Cooke & Leydesdorff, 2006; Leydesdorff, 2018; Leydesdorff et al., 2017). Es decir, la actividad de los actores tiene que ver con la generación de conocimiento (“oferta”), la generación de riqueza/bienestar (“demanda”) y la regulación (“control”), en el marco de arreglos institucionales que evolucionan a partir de las decisiones tomadas por estos mismos agentes, conocidos tradicionalmente como la universidad, la empresa y el gobierno (Leydesdorff et al., 2017).

Por su parte, este punto de vista de los sistemas regionales de innovación entiende las regiones como territorios con cierta capacidad de gobernanza y cohesión, que entre muchas otras funciones pueden desarrollar políticas y generar organizaciones de apoyo para la innovación con enfoque territorial (Cooke et al., 1997). Es por lo mismo que este marco conceptual ha tenido una notable influencia en las últimas décadas, expresada a través de varias propuestas de política, como las estrategias regionales de innovación o la especialización inteligente (B. T. Asheim, 2019; B. T. Asheim et al., 2020; Tödtling et al., 2021; Uyarra et al., 2017). Ello además ha incluido la noción de desafío, propósito o misión como un elemento central, en línea con los postulados de las actuales políticas transformativas, es decir, las que promueven cambios en la sociedad (desarrollo) con un enfoque más sostenible en términos sociales, ambientales y económicos (Fagerberg, 2018; Foray, 2018; Tödtling et al., 2021; Veldhuizen, 2020).

A su vez, en el último tiempo y a partir de la idea que el objeto general de un sistema de innovación es desarrollar, difundir y utilizar nuevos productos y procesos (innovaciones), se ha propuesto que existirían unas **funciones generales** que contribuyen a ese objetivo general, una cuestión planteada en el ámbito de los sistemas de innovación tecnológicos, pero reconociéndose su transversalidad para los demás tipos de sistemas de innovación, incluyendo los regionales (Bergek, 2019; Bergek et al., 2015). En este sentido, cabe subrayar que se trataría de funciones del sistema en su conjunto (“overall functions”), por lo que ningún actor las ejecuta en particular, pero que definirían la dinámica del sistema mediante la interacción de los diferentes tipos de agentes (Bergek, 2019; Bergek et al., 2008, 2010).

Más concretamente, esta noción de procesos claves está referida a un conjunto definido por: 1) *el desarrollo del conocimiento formal*; 2) *la experimentación empresarial*; 3) *la formación de mercados*; 4) *la movilización de recursos*; 5) *el desarrollo de externalidades positivas*; 6) **la direccionalidad**, es decir la necesaria existencia de incentivos, e incluso presiones, para que los actores dirijan sus actividades en determinado sentido; y 7) **la legitimidad**, referido al proceso sociopolítico de formación de legitimidad mediante la interacción de los actores del sistema (Bergek, 2019; Hillman et al., 2011; Johnson, 2001; Ulmanen & Bergek, 2021).

Asimismo, se estima que los sistemas de innovación funcionan con cambios tecnológicos endógenos e incertidumbre y por ello no habría equilibrio ni optimalidad posible, lo que se explicaría por un conjunto de bloqueos o fallas de las funciones ya descritas (Edler & Fagerberg, 2017; Wieczorek & Hekkert, 2012). Dichos bloqueos serían de tres tipos: **de mercado**, vinculados con un nivel subóptimo de inversión en generación de conocimiento; los bloqueos **sistémicos estructurales**, que se relacionan con los mecanismos de apoyo o intervención; y, por último, se destacan los **bloqueos sistémicos transformacionales**, que se hacen cargo de los requisitos que impone las transformaciones (cambios) sistémicos (Hekkert et al., 2020; Schot & Steinmueller, 2018; Weber & Rohracher, 2012).

En particular, los bloqueos sistémicos transformacionales se refieren a: **las fallas de direccionalidad**, es decir, la falta de visión compartida sobre el objetivo y la dirección del proceso de transformación, que también podría explicarse como la incapacidad de coordinación colectiva o carencia de medios para tomar decisiones sociales sobre vías alternativas de desarrollo; **las fallas de coordinación**, esto es, la falta de habilidad para coordinar horizontalmente a los actores y que puede incluir falta de coordinación multinivel; **las fallas de articulación de demanda**, que dicen relación con espacios insuficientes para anticipar y aprender sobre las necesidades de los usuarios; y, finalmente, **las fallas de reflexividad**, relacionadas con la capacidad insuficiente del sistema para monitorear, anticipar e involucrar a los actores en los procesos de autogobierno, manifestándose en la imposibilidad de aprendizaje colectivo por parte de los actores (Schot & Steinmueller, 2018; Weber & Rohracher, 2012).

En último término, puede afirmarse que un **instrumento de gobernanza** es una herramienta para abordar un problema de política, introducido (principalmente) por un ente de gobierno, para lograr determinados objetivos (Rogge & Reichardt, 2016) y, en particular, ciertos instrumentos de gobernanza son diseñados e implementados para facilitar el cambio (Smits & Kuhlmann, 2004) y así permitir orientar la evolución del sistema de innovación en su conjunto (OECD, 2011), considerando las funciones y bloqueos ya descritos. Consecuentemente con lo anterior, se estima necesario que las intervenciones de política incluyeran por tanto una perspectiva sistémica (Pyka et al., 2019).

En concreto, este trabajo examina el caso de la Región del Biobío que es una de las más pobladas e industrializadas de Chile, con una importante presencia de universidades, que además posee un sistema de innovación de cierta complejidad (Sandoval-Nehme & Mas-Verdú, 2021) y que históricamente ha tenido varios modelos institucionales en el ámbito de la innovación. Lo que se pretende es analizar la evolución institucional y los ámbitos específicos que sirven de espacio para hacerse cargo de los bloqueos sistémicos transformativos, en el entendido que parece posible utilizar las herramientas analíticas anteriormente descritas (funciones, bloqueos e instrumentos de gobernanza) en los sistemas regionales de innovación (B. Asheim et al., 2015).

Por su parte, siendo una investigación en curso, el enfoque metodológico a utilizar es del tipo cualitativo, pues se propone un conjunto de preguntas que permiten explorar y describir un determinado fenómeno (Hernández-Sampieri et al., 2006) y, en específico,

se pretende utilizar el análisis de casos, pues permite incluir ciertas condiciones contextuales al dar cuenta de un fenómeno real y concreto (Yin, 2003), pudiendo además usarse datos de variados tipos de fuentes (Thomas, 2021). Para este cometido se examinará información secundaria, referida a los diferentes diseños institucionales que se utilizaron en su momento, a partir de literatura académica y de la normativa que fuera aplicable en cada caso; así mismo, se utilizará información primaria, mediante entrevistas semi estructuradas a actores clave que, en lo posible, hayan tenido una experiencia práctica en alguno de los diferentes instrumentos de gobernanza bajo análisis.

El caso estudiado está referido entonces a los diseños institucionales para la gobernanza de la innovación que han existido en la Región del Biobío, a saber: INNOVABIOBÍO, que operó desde 2001 al 2014 (Maggi, 2014); ARIDP, que operó desde 2008 al 2012 (Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo (BID), 2006); ERIBIOBIO, vigente desde el 2012 al 2016 (AliasGroup, 2012); Desarrolla Biobío, (CORPORACIÓN DESARROLLA BIOBÍO, 2019); el “Comité de Desarrollo Productivo Regional” (Ministerio de Economía & (CORFO), 2015); y el “Comité Regional De Ciencia, Tecnología, Conocimiento e Innovación para el Desarrollo” (República de Chile, 2018).

Al mismo tiempo, las preguntas de investigación, enfocadas a entender el diseño de los instrumentos, su vinculación con los procesos clave y su potencial impacto en los bloqueos, están referidas a:

- a) Cuál es el ámbito estratégico (transformacional) presente en los instrumentos de gobernanza usados en la Región del Biobío (organización, funciones y composición)
- b) Cómo es posible que ese ámbito estratégico se haga cargo de los procesos clave de la direccionalidad y la legitimidad
- c) Cómo es posible que ese ámbito estratégico se haga cargo de los bloqueos sistémicos transformacionales de direccionalidad y reflexividad.

Ello considerando que es posible que desde el diseño de los primeros instrumentos de gobernanza en la Región del Biobío se haya promovido más un énfasis operativo, relacionado principalmente con la movilización de recursos. Por esta misma razón es que puede que se haya ido perdiendo el enfoque en las funciones clave de direccionalidad y en especial legitimidad en los diferentes rediseños institucionales; y que, consecuentemente, dichos diseños no hayan logrado generar visiones compartidas sobre el futuro ni menos la capacidad de promover aprendizajes colectivos y, por tanto, no se han podido hacer cargo de los bloqueos de direccionalidad o reflexividad.

Palabras clave:

Política territorial; Regionalización; Innovación; Sistemas regionales de innovación; Gobernanza;

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CAPACIDADES DINÁMICAS COMO CONDUCTORES DE LA ADOPCIÓN AL MARKETING DIGITAL EN LOS AGRONEGOCIOS DURANTE EL COVID 19

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El estudio de las capacidades dinámicas de las empresas tomó importancia durante la pandemia COVID-19, en especial, las empresas del sector del agronegocios que tuvieron que adaptarse a nuevas formas de comercialización (Liu, 2022). En este sentido, se cuestiona sobre cuáles son las capacidades dinámicas que más efectos tienen en la adopción al marketing digital. Esta medición toma sentido debido a la necesidad de las empresas para poder atender las nuevas oportunidades del mercado desencadenadas por los cambios en las dinámicas de consumo en una economía Post-COVID.

Cuando se tiene una orientación emprendedora se exploran oportunidades para incrementar el valor agregado de los productos ofrecidos (Alshanty & Emeagwali, 2019). Estudios como el de Ma et al. (2017) discuten sobre como la capacidad emprendedora puede mejorar el pensamiento creativo y la flexibilidad cognitiva para desarrollar combinaciones de nuevos esquemas.

Asimismo, como señala Fan et al. (2021) que es necesario que las empresas desarrollen innovaciones que den soluciones a los nuevos comportamientos y necesidades de los consumidores, en donde el uso de las redes sociales podría jugar un papel en la estrategia comercial de las organizaciones o cualquier mejora en el uso de nuevas tecnologías que soporten las nuevas tendencias de los mercados.

Por lo que, debido a la importancia del sector agroalimentario en las economías de los países y del funcionamiento de la economía global, es importante que se dote de información a las empresas de este giro sobre recursos y capacidades internas para la búsqueda de nuevas oportunidades en el mercado a través de nuevos canales de comercialización y promoción que se adecuen a los procesos de digitalización que han tenido los mercados en todo el mundo.

Teniendo como base la teoría de los recursos y capacidades, se identificaron que tanto la orientación emprendedora y la innovación organizacional son detonantes para construir un escenario propicio de herramientas digitales para la promoción y publicidad de las empresas. En conjunto, la orientación emprendedora, la innovación organizacional y la adopción de actividades relacionadas con el marketing digital tienen efectos sobre el desempeño empresarial, es decir, lograr mayores ventas, mayor satisfacción con el cliente y una mejor relación con el cliente (Cho & Lee, 2018; Nurul Islami et al., 2020; Paudel, 2019).

En este sentido, se planteó como objetivo general determinar la influencia de la orientación emprendedora y la innovación organizacional sobre la adopción al marketing digital, a su vez, se determinaron los efectos directos e indirectos de las variables de estudio sobre el desempeño empresarial. A través de un estudio cuantitativo, explicativo, no experimental, transversal se determinan los efectos de cada variable con un modelo de ecuaciones estructurales a partir del método de mínimos cuadrados parciales utilizando el método de puntuación secuencial de variables latentes.

Se consideró como población objetivo a los agronegocios ubicados en el estado de Aguascalientes, México utilizando como base de datos el directorio agroalimentario de Aguascalientes (Secretaría de Desarrollo Rural y Agroempresarial del Estado de Aguascalientes, 2019). La muestra fue de 93 casos, el sexo que predominó fue hombre (68 casos). La escolaridad con mayor presencia fue la licenciatura (53 casos). El subsector más representativo fueron los agronegocios de segunda transformación (producción de leche, procesamiento de carne, tostados, salsas, etc).

Para calcular la fiabilidad y validez convergente de las escalas de medida se aplicaron los índices Alfa de Cronbach, fiabilidad compuesta y el valor de la varianza extraída promedio, los cuales fueron satisfactorios para la literatura estadística considerada (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2017; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Para la validez discriminante se satisficieron los test Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (Henseler et al., 2014) y Fornell-Larcker (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Con base en estos criterios, se demuestra que se tiene la fiabilidad y validez para realizar el modelo de ecuaciones estructurales.

La contrastación de la hipótesis de la relación entre orientación emprendedora y marketing digital fue significativa y positiva del 47.4%. Para la influencia de la innovación organizacional sobre el marketing digital se tuvieron valores significativos y positivos del 25.4%. Asimismo, tanto el marketing digital como la innovación organizacional tuvieron una influencia significativa y positiva sobre el desempeño empresarial, mientras que la orientación emprendedora no presentó efectos significativos, aunque sí positivos.

Los hallazgos más importantes son los efectos multimediadores de la innovación organizacional y la orientación emprendedora sobre el desempeño empresarial. Para el efecto mediador de la relación entre la orientación emprendedora, adopción al marketing digital y desempeño empresarial, la orientación emprendedora tiene un efecto indirecto significativo y positivo. De igual forma, para la relación orientación emprendedora, innovación organizacional y desempeño empresarial, el efecto indirecto de la orientación emprendedora fue significativo y positivo. Sin embargo, la relación de la innovación organizacional, adopción al marketing digital y el desempeño empresarial, la innovación organizacional no es un elemento clave debido a que no se encontró un efecto indirecto significativo. Los resultados indirectos se confirmaron a través del test del intervalo de confianza del sesgo bootstrapping (Zhao et al., 2010), por lo que se pudo concluir que fueron significativos.

Las implicaciones teóricas más relevantes son la generación de un modelo holístico que incluye en la discusión de la literatura la importancia de la innovación organizacional como principio de la adopción al marketing digital. La literatura que considera a la capacidad emprendedora como piedra angular de los análisis teóricos sobre el proceso de decisiones comerciales que se toman las empresas en momentos de crisis, como lo fue en este caso, la pandemia COVID 19 son incipientes, la contribución principal de este enfoque es remitir a la orientación estratégica hacia el mercado digital que ayudó a los agronegocios a mejorar su relación con el cliente y hasta desarrollar nuevos nichos de mercado.

Las implicaciones prácticas más importantes fueron encontrar que para tener mayor uso de herramientas digitales, se debe contar con una postura estratégica clara que lleve a los agronegocios a innovar, tomar decisiones de riesgo y ser proactivo en la actividad económica. Puesto que, la orientación emprendedora tiene influencia bidireccional de manera directa e indirecta sobre las capacidades dinámicas que ayudaron a los agronegocios a tomar una orientación estratégica que resolviera sus problemas del mercado tradicional, llevándolos al mercado digital.

El estudio concluye que, en general, las interacciones de los agronegocios con los clientes se volvieron más eficientes, rápidas y fluidas por diferentes canales de comunicación desde un nivel personal cuando implementaron estrategias comerciales digitales. Se identificó que el impacto del marketing digital no sería igual si no viniera acompañado de una capacidad proactiva, arriesgada e innovadora para comercializar desde varios sentidos no convencionales para los mismos.

Palabras clave: Orientación emprendedora, Innovación organizacional, Adopción al marketing digital, Desempeño empresarial, Agronegocios

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ODS RELACIONADOS CON LA PROSPERIDAD EN LOS PAÍSES DE AMÉRICA LATINA Y EL CARIBE, UNA APROXIMACIÓN A TRAVÉS, DE ANÁLISIS DE CONGLOMERADOS

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Las Naciones Unidas en el 2015 plantea el reto “Transformar nuestro mundo”, siendo un paso adelante para que los 193 países miembros aceptan el reto propuesto en la Agenda 2030 para el desarrollo sostenible, que integra 17 objetivos de desarrollo sostenible (ODS) y 169 metas (UN, 2015). Estos objetivos giran alrededor de cinco ejes denominadas en inglés las 5 P: Planet, People, Prosperity, Peace, Partnership.(DESA, 2020). Estos ejes contemplan no dejar a nadie atrás en el camino al desarrollo, erradicar la pobreza, luchar contra la desigualdad y la injusticia, hacer frente al cambio climático siendo respetuosos con el planeta y los recursos que ofrece.

La Agenda 2030 es universal, indivisible, integral, civilizatoria y transformadora , lo que hace que los 17 ODS sean posibles con la participación y apoyo de todos los actores (gobierno, academia, empresa y sociedad), si bien los objetivos son ambiciosos y el tiempo para cumplirlos se aproxima, los resultados demuestran que para el 2030 los esfuerzos realizados no son muy alentadores, no se ha avanzado a la velocidad ni en la escala necesarias (DESA, 2021), sobre todo en los dos últimos años por la pandemia que acabamos de atravesar y que afectó a todo el mundo, lo que imposibilitó abordar las 5 P y en algunos países hubo un retroceso, por lo que no fue posible conseguir un desarrollo sostenible (DESA, 2020).

La investigación está en curso, por lo que abordamos los ODS relacionados con la tercera P - Prosperidad, entendida como crecimiento económico, social y tecnológico, inclusivo, sostenible (Lara-Pulido, 2018) y compatible con el debido respeto a la naturaleza. 5 ODS son vinculados con prosperidad: acceso a energía no contaminante y asequible (ODS 7), trabajo decente y crecimiento económico (ODS 8), infraestructura resiliente, industrialización inclusiva e innovación (ODS 9), reducción de desigualdades (ODS 10) y ciudades y comunidades sostenibles (ODS 11). Estos objetivos buscan asegurar vidas

prósperas y satisfactorias en armonía con el entorno (DESA, 2020). A su vez, los ODS son una oportunidad para el emprendimiento sostenible (Benavides et al., 2021) y los ODS relacionados con la prosperidad como menciona Lara-Pulido,(2018) favorece el emprendimiento a partir de facilitar hacer negocios y elevar la capacidad de agencia de las personas, por lo que los 5 ODS relacionados con la prosperidad son visibles y aplicables. Como señala el Artículo 67 de la agenda, en el que se reconoce a la actividad empresarial como uno de los motores de la productividad, del crecimiento económico inclusivo y de la creación de empleo, siendo los emprendedores y sus emprendimientos partícipes de la construcción de un mundo sostenible, siendo el interés de nuestra investigación.

Para llevar a cabo este análisis se enfocó en los países de América Latina y el Caribe (ALC), protagonistas de la Agenda 2030, que ven una oportunidad y también desafíos para alcanzarlos, por tanto, el objetivo de esta investigación es analizar en qué países de ALC el crecimiento económico, social y tecnológico, inclusivo, sostenible y compatible con el debido respeto a la naturaleza, están mayormente determinados por los ODS 7,8,9,10 y11, para lo cual se realizó un análisis de conglomerados con una muestra de 25 países, a partir de la base del SDG INDEX 2020 (Sachs et al., 2020) que proporciona el informe sobre desarrollo sostenible (SDR antes SDG INDEX) y brinda una medición de la situación de cada país respecto al logro de los ODS en una escala de 0 a 100, donde 0 indica que ninguna de sus metas ha sido alcanzada y 100 indica que todos los ODS y sus metas han sido completamente alcanzados (Sachs et al., 2020). Además, se revisó la clasificación del Banco Mundial respecto al grupo de ingreso en los que se encuentran los países de ALC, también se buscó la clasificación realizada por la Organización de las Naciones Unidas que clasifica a los países miembros en tres categorías: economías desarrolladas; economías en transición y economías en vías de desarrollo (UN, 2015).

El estudio aborda estas clasificaciones para el año 2020, respecto a los 25 países de ALC que en su mayor parte son de ingresos medio-altos (ingresos comprendidos entre 4046 y 12535 dólares), para esta clasificación el Banco Mundial utiliza el ingreso nacional bruto (INB) per cápita en USD corrientes, mediante el método Atlas (Serajuddin & Hamadeh, 2020). A partir de los datos existentes en el SDR se realizó un análisis comparativo con el año 2010 respecto a la clasificación, para ese año la mayoría de los países de ALC eran “países de renta media” (Tezanos, 2012). Una década más tarde, se observa que 17 de los 25 países analizados se mantienen en la misma clasificación, además, Belice, Guatemala, Guayana, Paraguay cambiaron de ingresos medios bajos (LMIC) a países de renta media alta (UMIC) y países como Chile, Panamá y Uruguay cambiaron de UMIC a países de ingresos altos (HIC). Finalmente, Venezuela que el 2010 estaba dentro del grupo de UMIC, para el 2020 ha sido desclasificada temporalmente a la espera de la publicación de las estadísticas revisadas de las cuentas nacionales (WORLD BANK, 2021). De acuerdo con la clasificación de las Naciones Unidas estos países corresponden a economías en vías de desarrollo.

Después de identificar ODS relacionado con Prosperidad, analizar la base de datos e identificar los datos para ALC, se realizó un análisis de técnicas estadísticas multivariadas por conglomerados, que clasifica objetos o casos en grupos homogéneos llamados clústers, a fin de analizar los países que tienen similitud entre las políticas adoptadas y los desafíos a los que se ven expuestos a fin de dar trazabilidad para cumplir la agenda.

Se partió determinando la existencia de casos atípicos, Cuba para la variable ODS 8, Chile en la variable ODS 9 y Venezuela en la variable ODS 11. Respecto a los dos primeros países estos casos atípicos están localizados en la parte superior de la distribución lo que concluye que se trata de una distribución con asimetría positiva, y Venezuela presenta distribución con asimetría negativa, se procedió a realizar la simetría considerando la escalera de las transformaciones de Tukey, sustituyendo los datos recogidos por su raíz cuadrada. Además, antes de proceder con el análisis clúster se revisó que se cumplan tres requisitos básicos: (1) Ausencia de correlación entre las variables, (2) Número de variables no muy elevado y (3) Que las variables no se encuentren medidas en unidades diferentes (De la Fuente, 2016).

Los resultados obtenidos a través del clúster jerárquico fue 3 clústers. En el primer clúster encontramos a: Guatemala, Honduras, Guayana, Nicaragua, Belice y Paraguay. El segundo clúster compuesto por: Barbados, Ecuador, Colombia, Panamá, Surinam, Brasil, Costa Rica, Chile y Uruguay. Finalmente, en el clúster tres se encuentran: Venezuela, Bolivia, Trinidad y Tobago, Perú, El Salvador, Republica Dominicana, México, Argentina, Cuba y Jamaica.

Al realizar el análisis como se observa en la Fig. 1 se obtiene que los 25 países que integran los tres clústers han enfocado la prosperidad en términos del ODS 7, ODS 11 y ODS 8. El clúster dos sobresale por enfocar su política respecto a lograr 4 de los 5 ODS relacionados con la prosperidad, siendo bajo su participación en el ODS 10. Los países del clúster uno evidencia que su accionar no está centrado en el ODS 9 al igual que el clúster tres, el cual tiene una participación igual en el ODS 7 y ODS 8, sobresaliendo de los tres clústers en el ODS 10.

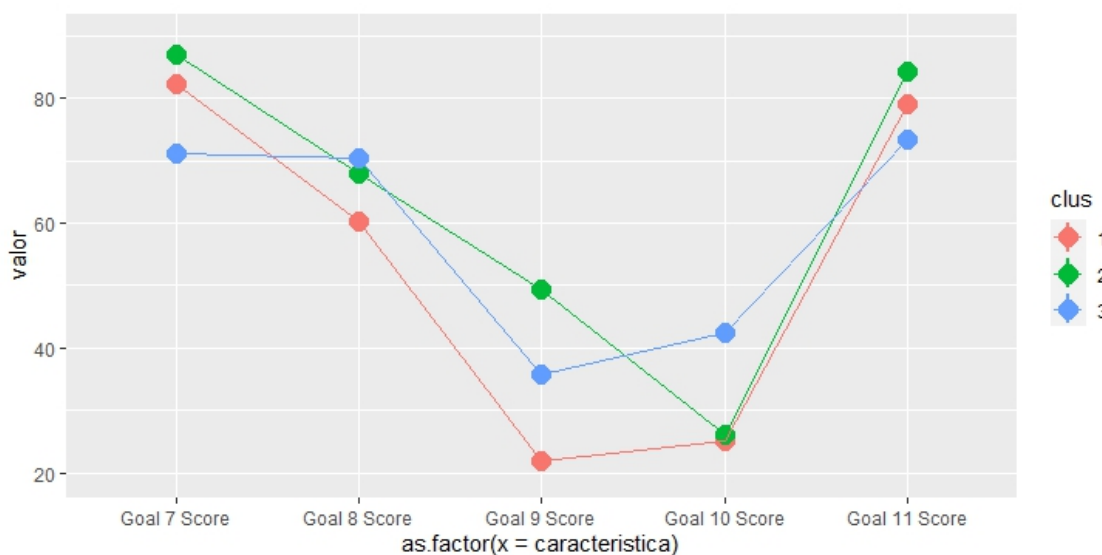


Figura. 1 ODS PROSPERIDAD- POR CLÚSTER

La literatura establece que cada vez es mayor el número de países que gestionan su política por alcanzar los ODS. El primer conglomerado, abarca 6 países que representan a naciones que han enfocado su política al ODS 7, ven en la energía sostenible una oportunidad que transforma vidas, economías y el planeta; respecto al ODS 11 los

gobiernos visualizan ciudades de oportunidades, con acceso a servicios básicos, energía, vivienda, transporte y más facilidades para todos y respecto al ODS 8 los 6 países ven un desafío en la creación de empleo de calidad. Este clúster deja de lado el ODS 9 y ODS10.

El segundo conglomerado abarca 9 países, representa las naciones con mayor participación en el cumplimiento de los ODS7 y 11, y baja contribución en los ODS 8 por la falta de oportunidades para generar trabajo decente; ODS 9 por la escasa inversión en infraestructura, piedra angular del desarrollo sostenible y ODS 10 por las grandes disparidades en el acceso a servicios básicos, así como a la desigualdad de ingresos entre países y en ellos.

El tercer conglomerado incluye 10 países, los que han enfocado su política al ODS 11, 7 y 8, con poca participación en el ODS 9. Es así como la agrupación realizada presenta homogeneidad interna y heterogeneidad externa, por lo que se concluye que es necesario políticas que fomenten la transformación económica, social, ambiental, entre otras.

Como implicaciones prácticas de los resultados y conclusiones obtenidos, a nivel de política pública en los países de ALC debe ser, tratar de fortalecer e incentivar cada uno de los ODS relacionados con la prosperidad, en especial el ODS 8 por las implicaciones directas que tiene con otros ODS, a su vez las políticas y programas de gobierno que se creen deben ser en post de asegurar el bienestar presente y futuro de las generaciones.

Una de las limitaciones es el hecho de realizar el análisis con una de las 5 P, al utilizar todos los ejes, el análisis de conglomerados podría presentar mayor precisión; siendo el reto próximo y vincular con datos de emprendimiento sostenible como futura línea de investigación

Palabras clave: Prosperidad; ODS 7; ODS 8; ODS 9; ODS 10; ODS 11; América Latina y Caribe, Crecimiento Económico.

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ANALYSIS OF TAX INCENTIVES FOR STARTUPS IN THE SPANISH STARTUP BILL

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The Draft Law for the promotion of the ecosystem of emerging companies, following its explanatory statement, aims to establish a regulatory framework for this type of company given that its operation and configuration do not fit well with traditional regulatory frameworks. In addition, it also seeks to promote them and establish a system for monitoring and evaluating their results (García de Pablos, 2022). Likewise, another objective is to attract talent and international capital to develop this type of company's Spanish ecosystem and stimulate public and private investment in them (Las startups gozarán de incentivos fiscales en renta y sociedades, 2021). With this Bill, different tax laws would be modified to encourage what the regulation considers emerging companies or startups.

The objective of this paper is to analyse the proposed tax incentives in the draft law for startups and compare them with the current tax incentive system, given that these incentives are designed to mitigate the tax burden that impedes entrepreneurial initiative (Navarro Egea, 2022).

In the first place, for a startup to be able to apply the proposed tax incentives, the company must comply with the concept which the Law understands by startups. In effect, the Draft Law indicates that this regulation will be applied to emerging companies, understanding an emerging company to be any legal person, including technology-based companies created under Law 14/2011, of June 1, on Science, Technology and Innovation, and that simultaneously meets the following requirements:

- Be newly created or, if not being newly created, in general, no more than five years have elapsed since their registration in the commercial register, or seven in the case of biotechnology, energy, industrial and other strategic sector companies or that have developed their technology, designed entirely in Spain.
- Not have arisen from a merger, split or transformation operation.
- Have its registered office, registered office or permanent establishment in Spain.
- 60% of the workforce must have an employment contract in Spain.
- Being an innovative company. A startup will be considered innovative when its purpose is to solve a problem or improve an existing situation through the development of new or substantially improved products, services or processes compared to the state of the art and that carries an implicit risk of technological or industrial failure.
- Do not distribute or have distributed dividends.
- Not listed on a regulated market, in other words, not listed on stock markets.
- Do not belong to a group of companies. In the case of belonging to a group of companies, the group or each of the companies that make it up must meet all the above requirements.
- Be up to date with tax obligations and social security obligations.

On the other hand, technology-based companies are understood as those whose activity requires the generation or intensive use of scientific-technical knowledge and technologies for the generation of new products, processes or services and the channelling of research, development and innovation and transfer of results.

Nevertheless, the companies will not be able to apply this law if they accomplish these conditions:

- Stop meeting any of the above requirements.
- When five or seven years have elapsed since the creation of the startup.
- The startup expires before the term indicated in the previous point.
- It is acquired by another company that does not have emerging company status.
- The company's annual turnover exceeds five million euros.
- Carry out an activity that significantly damages the environment.
- The partners or administrators have been convicted by final judgment for crimes against the Tax Administration and Social Security.

The tax incentives that are established are concerning the Corporation Tax (hereinafter, IS by its acronym in Spanish), the income tax of non-residents (hereinafter, IRNR by its acronym in Spanish) and the income tax of natural persons (hereinafter, IRPF by its acronym in Spanish). Broadly speaking, it can be said that these tax measures improve corporate taxation, the taxation of stock options and the tax regime for foreign workers in Spain.

Starting with the taxation of the company, in IS and the IRNR, a reduced rate will be introduced, 15%¹, for startups that obtain profits through a permanent establishment in Spanish territory and that may be applied for a maximum period of 4 years, as long as it maintains the startup condition. Likewise, the emerging company will be allowed to defer the payment of tax debts, with guarantees, in the first two years of activity. Said deferral period may be six or twelve months from the end of the voluntary payment period. In addition, the deferred debt will not accrue default interest. On the other hand, to enjoy this tax benefit, it will be an unavoidable requirement to be up to date with the payment of tax obligations. To end the taxation of the company, the non-obligation for startups to make instalment payments is established.

Continuing with personal income, the IRPF improves the taxation of remuneration formulas based on the delivery of shares or participation of the employees thereof, that is, the tax treatment of stock options is improved. For this, the amount of the exemption is raised from 12,000 to 50,000 euros per year in the case of delivery of shares or participation to employees of startups. On the other hand, this exemption will also be applicable when the delivery of shares or participation results from the exercise of previously granted purchase options. In addition, a special temporary imputation rule is established for work performance in kind that exceeds the indicated amount. This special temporary imputation rule allows the imputation to be deferred until the tax period in which certain circumstances arise or, in any case, within a period of 10 years from the delivery of shares or participations. Finally, a special valuation rule is established for these returns to clarify the value that corresponds to the shares or participations granted to the workers of emerging companies.

Along these same lines, the deduction for investment in a new or recently created company is increased in personal income tax. The type of deduction is increased from 30% to 50% and the maximum base is increased from 60,000 to 100,000 euros. However, the subscribed amounts that have enjoyed the regional deduction created by Law 22/2009 (García de Pablos, 2022) will not form part of the tax base of the deduction. Additionally, for the founding partners of startups, the application of this deduction is allowed regardless of their percentage of participation in the entity's share capital.

Furthermore, access to the special tax regime applicable to workers displaced to Spanish territory is improved. Specifically, the number of tax periods before moving to Spanish territory during which the taxpayer may not have been a tax resident in Spain is reduced,

¹ The general rate is 25%.

from 10 to 5 years. In other words, the displaced worker is allowed to pay the IRNR even if he maintains his status as an IRPF taxpayer in the tax period in which he made the change of residence and for the following ten years, instead of five. Likewise, the option is introduced for the spouse of the taxpayer and their children under 25 years of age or whatever their age in case of disability, or if there is no marriage bond, their parent, provided that they move to Spanish territory with the taxpayer or at a later time, pay the IRNR while maintaining the status of the taxpayer in the IRPF.

Moreover, the tax qualification of the remuneration obtained for the successful management of venture capital entities (carried interest) is clarified, while a specific tax treatment is established for such remuneration.

To end with personal income, an exemption is established for income from work in kind in the IRNR if they are exempt from personal income tax.

Finally, in this author's opinion, the legislator with these tax measures tries to encourage startups. Nonetheless, IS proposal's incentives are not the most suitable given that the IS regulatory law establishes a reduced rate of 15% for newly created companies for their first two years of life, and the proposal for startups is that it would be for their first four years. Therefore, this measure is not relevant. On the other hand, regarding the proposal not to make instalment payments, in the IS in general, companies with a turnover of fewer than 6 million euros are not obliged to make instalment payments. Conversely, in the Bill, it is established as a requirement for the startup to be able to apply incentives that its turnover must be less than 5 million euros. As a result, an emerging company that follows this law will always invoice less than 6 million euros, for which, following the general rule, it would not be obliged to make instalment payments. Hence, if this proposed tax measure did not exist, they would not be obliged to make instalment payments either. In consequence, for corporate taxation purposes, tax incentives are irrelevant. In the same direction, concerning personal income incentives, the proposal also introduces only minor adjustments to personal deductions (Navarro Egea, 2022). In conclusion, the tax incentives proposed in the Startups Law are notoriously improvable.

Keywords: tax; incentives; startup; Draft Law; corporate.

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SHIFT CARGO FROM ROAD TO RIVER AS A WAY TO SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: EVIDENCE FOR THE REPUBLIC OF LITHUANIA

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Purpose: Issues of ecology, emission reduction have been discussed for many years, but now, when the EU has developed the European Green Deal, these issues have become especially relevant, and the achievement of long-term climate goals is legally binding. In 2019, members of European Parliament, in accordance with the Paris Agreement, adopted a resolution calling on the EU to set climate neutrality by 2050 as its long-term climate goal and to cut emission reduction up to 55% by 2030 at the latest (European Parliament, 2019; European Union, 2019; European Commission, 2020). To achieve this goal is possible only with an integrated approach and reducing emissions in different sectors of the economy. The transport sector is a serious environmental polluter. The purpose of this article was to prove, using the example of the Republic of Lithuania, the advantages for sustainable development from the shift cargo from road to inland waterway transport.

Findings: Favorable geographical position defines the Republic of Lithuania as a country of transit and logistics services, transport corridors and their branches pass through the territory of the country: east-west direction; north-south direction. All this makes Lithuania an important link in the global supply chain. In 2019, the share of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) created by the transport sector was 13 percent and was one of the most important sectors in the country (Ministry of Transport and Communication of Lithuania, 2020).

Freight transport in the European Union has grown significantly over the past decades, with the biggest growth being in road transport. In recent decades, freight traffic has also been actively growing in Lithuania. Most of it also went to road transport. If between 1995 and 2019 the growth of road transport across the EU reached 61%, then for Lithuania the figure for the same period was much higher. This figure has increased more than 10 times (European Commission, 2021). From the statistical analysis it can be concluded that the total number of cars in Lithuania is growing much faster than in Europe as a whole, but the growth is achieved mainly through the purchase and use of used cars. New car growth is below the EU average. This fact shows that the negative impact of

vehicles on the environment in Lithuania will be greater due to the use of older vehicles with a worse environmental impact.

With regard to total greenhouse gas emissions, it is worth noting that in recent years, both in the EU and in Lithuania, there has been a positive downward trend in this indicator. Meanwhile, greenhouse gas emissions from transport keep getting worse. If greenhouse gas emissions from transport across the EU from 1995 to 2019 increased by 24%, growth in Lithuania was almost 2 times. In 2019, the share of greenhouse gas emissions attributable to transport was 26% in the EU as a whole (the highest figure, slightly lower in the energy sector - 24%, and the third place is occupied by industry with 21%). In Lithuania the situation with the highest greenhouse gas emissions by industry was as follows: transport - 31%, agricultural sector - 21%, industrial processes - 15%. The share of greenhouse gases emitted by road transport in the EU is 72% of the total pollution of the transport sector, while in Lithuania this figure was 83% in the same 2019.

The CO₂ indicator in Lithuania is again growing faster than in the whole of Europe. The share of CO₂ emissions from transport in Lithuania amounted to more than 45% of the total CO₂ emissions (in the EU this figure reached 30%). At the same time, the share of road transport in Lithuania and the EU is 82% and 72%, respectively.

In 2019 transport accounted for almost 31% of all energy consumed in the EU. At the same time, taking into account the ratio of modes of transport, the absolute leader in terms of the amount of energy consumed was road transport - 93%. Considering the similar indicator of Lithuania, it's clear that the ratio was 40% and 96% respectively. Thus, it may be concluded that in Lithuania, transport in general and road transport in particular is an industry whose share of energy consumption is higher than the average for EU countries.

With regard to traffic accidents and the number of fatal accidents, Lithuania also lags behind the European indicator. The number of road deaths per capita is one of the highest in Europe.

The continued growth in demand for transport, especially road transport, raises serious concerns about the long-term sustainability of current mobility trends (European Commission, 2011). Studies have shown that the largest source of environmental pollution is road transport, which indicates the need to increase the role of other modes of transport, especially environmentally friendly - inland waterway transport. Rivers can also be used as natural transport routes and can sustainably complement the transport of goods and passengers with other modes of land transport (Mako et al, 2021; Hofbauer et al, 2020; United Nations Economic Commission for Europe, 2020; Erceg et al, 2019).

The potential of the inland waterway sector in Lithuania is extremely unused. Meanwhile, the dense hydrographic network of Lithuania provides wide opportunities for the development of inland waterway transport in the country. The most promising waterway in terms of navigation is the Neman, namely its section from Kaunas to Klaipeda, which will become an alternative option for the delivery of goods along the A1 Kaunas-Klaipeda highway.

The study analysed the environmental impact of the shipping route on Neman River from Kaunas to Klaipeda, assuming that all necessary works to improve the waterway transport infrastructure have been completed and that ideal conditions for navigation along this route have been created. As a result it becomes possible to connect the Klaipeda seaport and the Kaunas River port with a regular cargo route.

The study simulated various options for transferring part of the cargo traffic from the highway to inland waterway transport on the Kaunas-Klaipeda route (10 million tons/year

is an optimistic option, 5 million tons/year is a realistic option, 2 million tons/year is a pessimistic option). These model shift scenarios are selected in accordance with the forecasts of possible cargo transportation volumes of the Lithuanian Inland Waterways Authority (VĮ Vidaus vandens kelių direkcija, 2022).

To compare the environmental impact of road and inland waterway transport, an assessment of external costs was carried out. The external cost of transport is the difference between the social costs (i.e. the total cost to society of providing and using the transport infrastructure) and the private costs of transport (i.e. the costs incurred directly by the transport user). The main external costs of transport include: accidents; air pollution; climate change; noise; habitat damage; congestion (Hofbauer et al, 2020; Osama et al, 2017; European Commission, 2020; Mostert et al, 2016). Calculated (based on data from Handbook on External Costs of Transport published by the European Commission in 2019) and compared external costs of freight transport and inland waterway transport show that the total external cost of freight transport by waterway transport is lower and saves 0,67 €-cents /tkm. The maximum effect is achieved due to a very low noise level, congestion and traffic safety (low number of accidents).

It was found out that when moving cargo transportation from the highway to inland waterways, external cost savings are observed in most of the external cost categories, despite the fact that the highway distance is shorter compared to the inland waterway section (the distance by road is 221 km, and by the river almost 300 km).

The positive effect on external costs, modeling the transfer of cargo transportation from the highway to inland waterways on the route Kaunas – Klaipėda is from 5884 to 29418 mln. € depending on the number of cargoes according to the selected modeling options (Plotnikova et al, 2022).

The results of environmental impact modeling show that greenhouse gas emissions are reduced by increasing the capacity of ships and replacing diesel fuel with liquefied natural gas. The greatest effect in terms of pollution comes from the replacement of internal combustion engines with electric drives and the use of electricity generated by solar and wind farms. Replacing diesel fuel with liquefied natural gas can reduce the external costs of climate change by 15-25%.

Environmental impact modeling results show that increasing barge capacity from 1000 tons to 1800 tons reduces the external costs of climate change by 25%. By acquiring a new pusher vessel that meets the Euro V (EPA Tier 3/IMO II) fuel emission requirements, even more impact can be achieved in reducing harmful fuel pollution. Pollution with harmful nitrogen oxides was reduced by ~4 times, particulate matter ~16.5 times, carbon monoxide ~1.8 times and unburned hydrocarbons ~8.5 times per tkm of transported cargo. Modernizing ships with new engines that meet the most stringent emission standards has the greatest positive impact on the external costs of air pollution. Fuel pollution is minimized by using the energy generated by solar or wind power plants for electric powered ships.

Originality/value: The calculations show that in the transport sector, the achievement of the "green economy" goals can be received by shifting part of the freight traffic from roads towards a more sustainable mode of transport - inland waterway transport. Reducing the current dependence on fossil fuels (by replacing the existing vehicle fleet and expanding the use of renewable and low-carbon fuels) also serves to achieve this goal.

Keywords: sustainable development; inland waterway transport; the European green deal; external transport costs.

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MOTIVOS QUE LLEVAN A INICIAR SU NEGOCIO A LAS EMPRENDEDORAS VALENCIANAS

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Introducción. Pese a que el número de mujeres interesadas en el emprendimiento parece haber aumentado recientemente, siguen siendo una minoría comparadas con sus compañeros varones (Rico y Cabrer-Borrás, 2018). Para entender estas diferencias tradicionalmente se refiere a actitudes relacionadas con la intención emprendedora (Rico y Cabrer-Borrás, 2018), actitudes que podrían derivar de una perspectiva masculinizada del emprendimiento (Ahl, 2004; Villanueva-Flores et al., 2021). Se ha evidenciado que las razones que llevan a emprender podrían variar significativamente entre hombres y mujeres. Por ejemplo, es más frecuente en las mujeres mencionar la posibilidad de conciliación o aspectos relacionadas con la familia como motivos a la base de su decisión de emprender (Boden, 1999, Cabrer-Borrás y Rico, 2018; Edwards y Field-Hendrey, 2002; McGowan et al., 2012).

Las motivaciones que guían el proceso emprendedor de una persona pueden ser muy diversas y evolucionar a lo largo del tiempo. Entendemos por motivación emprendedora el conjunto de constructos psicológicos que representan las razones por las que las personas se convierten en emprendedoras (Yi y Duval-Couetil, 2018). La conceptualización de este constructo no ha estado exenta de controversia (Carsrud y Brännback, 2011). Inicialmente estaba caracterizada por una aproximación dicotómica donde se diferenciaba entre las personas motivadas por necesidad y por oportunidad (Stephan et al., 2015). Para mejorar el entendimiento de la motivación emprendedora, otros autores emplean tipologías multidimensionales para reflejar de una manera más precisa las razones que llevan a una persona a emprender. El Global Entrepreneurship

Monitor (GEM), desde su edición de 2019, recoge un total de cuatro motivaciones diferentes (a) marcar una diferencia en el mundo; (b) crear riqueza o una renta muy alta; (c) continuar una tradición familiar; y (d) ganarse la vida porque el trabajo escasea.” (Observatorio del Emprendimiento de España, 2020).

Siguiendo esta concepción de las motivaciones, estudios previos muestran que las mujeres podrían desarrollar un emprendimiento más socialmente orientado (Estrin et al., 2013; Jayawarna et al., 2011). Así mismo, se ha visto que la edad podría estar relacionada con una menor elección del emprendimiento por necesidad (Jayawarna, 2011; Kautonen, 2008). Adicionalmente, estudios previos muestran como estas motivaciones varían a través de regiones (Fernández-Serrano y Romero, 2012).

Consecuentemente el presente estudio trata de conocer las características de las emprendedoras de la Comunidad Valenciana y explorar las motivaciones que las llevaron a emprender sus negocios. Estos resultados se compararán con los nacionales reportados en el Informe GEM 2021 (Observatorio del Emprendimiento de España, 2021), y se explorará su relación con una serie de variables sociodemográficas como la edad, las responsabilidades familiares o su percepción de éxito.

Método. Este trabajo se ha realizado con los datos obtenidos en el estudio “Valores y actitudes de las empresarias, directivas y profesionales valencianas” promovido por la Confederación Empresarial Comunitat Valenciana (CEV) y la Asociación de Empresarias y Profesionales de Valencia (EVAP), realizado a finales de 2021. La muestra se compuso de un total de 115 mujeres emprendedoras de la Comunidad Valenciana, se desconoce a cuánto asciende el total de la población de referencia. Las participantes tenían una media de edad de 51.24 años ($DT=8.22$). Respecto a su nivel de estudios, el 73.68% contaban con estudios universitarios superiores, el 21.93% ($n=25$) contaban con personas dependientes a su cargo. El 80% de la muestra ($n= 92$) tenían hijos y un 25.45% ($n= 28$) tenían estudios secundarios, títulos de formación profesional o de grado medio, mientras que el 4.38% ($n= 5$) presentaban estudios primarios como máximo nivel de estudios reglados alcanzado. El 76.5% ($n= 88$) de las encuestadas formaban parte de alguna asociación para profesionales.

La motivación para emprender fue evaluada mediante los indicadores incluidos en el GEM. Por ello, a las encuestadas se les preguntó en qué medida, mediante una escala Likert de 1- “Totalmente en desacuerdo” a 5- “Totalmente de acuerdo”, su motivo para crear un negocio se debió a alguna de las siguientes categorías: diferentes (a) marcar una diferencia en el mundo; (b) crear riqueza o una renta muy alta; (c) continuar una tradición familiar; y (d) ganarse la vida porque el trabajo escasea.

Se realizaron análisis descriptivos y comparaciones de proporciones para muestras independientes entre los resultados obtenidos por las emprendedoras valencianas frente a los resultados obtenidos en el Informe GEM 2021 (Observatorio del Emprendimiento de España, 2021) para empresarias consolidadas. En el Informe GEM 2021 se reportan las proporciones de emprendedoras que han escogido cada uno de los motivos, considerando un motivo escogido cuando se respondió con un 4 o 5 en la escala Likert. El mismo procedimiento fue empleado para dicotomizar las respuestas en nuestro estudio.

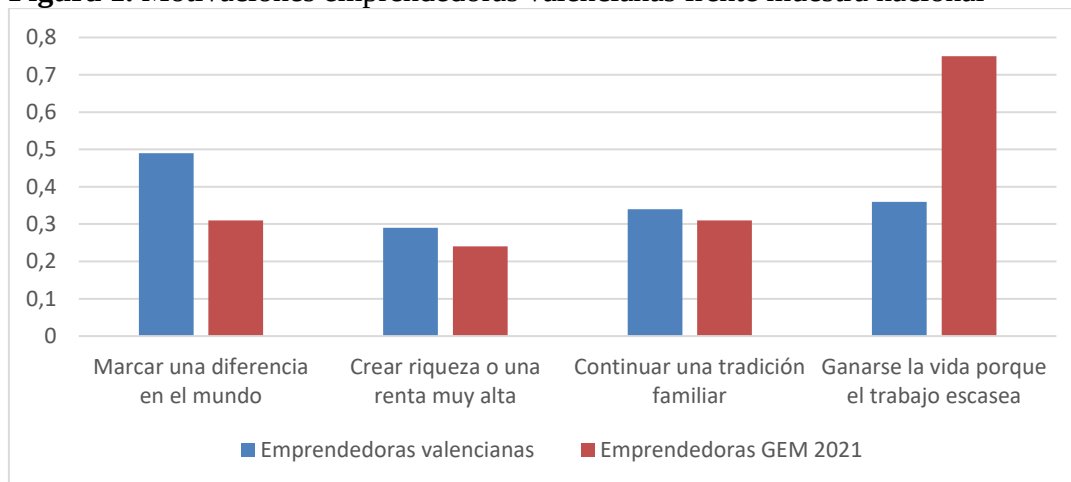
Para estudiar la relación de los motivos con diferentes variables como la edad, cuidado de hijos o personas dependientes, nivel de estudios o percepción de éxito se emplearon correlaciones de Spearman y Pruebas de U de Mann-Whitney dada la naturaleza ordinal de la medición de los motivos.

Resultados. Los resultados de las distintas motivaciones de las emprendedoras valencianas se pueden observar en la Figura 1. La motivación de ‘Marcar una diferencia

en el mundo' ($M= 3.33$, $DT= 1.37$, $Mdn= 3$) fue la más escogida, seguida de 'Crear riqueza o una renta muy alta' ($M= 2.89$, $DT= 1.15$, $Mdn= 3$), y 'Ganarse la vida porque el trabajo escasea' ($M= 2.81$, $DT= 1.51$, $Mdn= 3$), mientras que la de 'Continuar una tradición familiar' ($M= 2.55$, $DT= 1.65$, $Mdn= 2$) fue la menos considerada por las emprendedoras.

Al comparar estos resultados frente a los obtenidos a nivel nacional y presentados en el Informe GEM 2021 para mujeres (Figura 1), comprobamos que las emprendedoras valencianas muestran con $p < .001$ una mayor prevalencia de los motivos "Marcar una diferencia en el mundo", "Crear una riqueza o una renta muy alta" y "Continuar una tradición familiar". En cambio, el motivo "Ganarse la vida porque el trabajo escasea" fue menos escogido comparado con el valor nacional de referencia ($p = .02$).

Figura 1. Motivaciones emprendedoras valencianas frente muestra nacional



Respecto a la relación entre los diferentes motivos, se ha visto que las responsabilidades familiares como tener hijos o una persona dependiente a su cargo no influyen en la elección de ninguna de las motivaciones ($p > .05$). Sí que se observó relación entre el nivel de estudios y la motivación por de ganarse la vida, en concreto se vio que un mayor nivel de estudios se relacionaba con una menor motivación por "Ganarse la vida porque el trabajo escasea" (-0.346 , $p = .001$). En cambio, la edad no mostró relación con la motivación que les llevó a emprender ($p > .05$).

La percepción de éxito como emprendedora sí que guardó relación con el motivo que les llevó a emprender. En concreto, se observó que las emprendedoras de éxito emprendieron más por "Marcar una diferencia en el mundo" ($U= 1341.50$, $p = .01$) o "Crear una riqueza o una renta muy alta" ($U= 1086.00$, $p = .01$) que aquellas emprendedoras que no se consideraban de éxito. Estas diferencias no se encontraron en la prevalencia de los otros dos motivos estudiados ($p > .05$).

Discusión y conclusiones. Los resultados ponen de relieve la limitación de la carencia de censos de referencia, el desconocimiento de una gran parte de información sobre el peso relativo de las mujeres en nuestro tejido emprendedor. A la vez nos ofrecen una foto fija de las motivaciones prevalentes entre las emprendedoras valencianas, mostrando que "Marcar una diferencia en el mundo" es su motivación principal, mientras que aquellas motivaciones puramente económicas presentan una menor prevalencia. Esto diferencia a las emprendedoras de la muestra respecto de la media nacional, mucho más motivada por la necesidad. Si consultamos los resultados del Instituto Nacional de Estadística (INE, 2022), la Comunidad Valenciana presenta una mayor tasa de desempleo en mujeres que la media nacional, lo que haría esperable un mayor porcentaje de emprendimiento por necesidad. Sin embargo, ha de considerarse que en el presente estudio hay una alta

prevalencia de estudios superiores en las participantes. El capital humano ha mostrado ser un elemento clave en el proceso emprendedor que podría estar relacionado con mayores tasas de emprendimiento (Observatorio del Emprendimiento de España, 2021) y podría explicar las diferencias encontradas respecto a la media nacional. Sin duda estos resultados preliminares animan a profundizar en cómo educación, contexto económico y género modulan la motivación para emprender.

La motivación emprendedora también ha mostrado un efecto sobre su percepción de éxito, siendo más prevalentes las motivaciones de “Marcar una diferencia en el mundo” y “Crear riqueza” entre las emprendedoras de éxito. En términos económicos, estas motivaciones parecen estar ligadas a mayores ingresos empresariales (Hughes, 2006). Conocer las motivaciones de las emprendedoras del tejido empresarial de la Comunidad Valenciana, ayudará a entender el tipo de emprendimiento presente en nuestro territorio y desarrollar políticas públicas perfiladas para promover su éxito y sostenibilidad. Entre estas posibles políticas públicas destacarían aquellas encaminadas a promover el capital humano de las emprendedoras nacientes para orientarlas hacia un emprendimiento de calidad guiado por una motivación basada en la oportunidad.

Palabras clave: emprendimiento; motivaciones; mujeres; Comunidad Valenciana

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CONTROL FREAKS OR GOOD PARENTS?

ENTREPRENEURIAL MOTIVATION AND FIRMS' INNOVATIVE PERFORMANCE

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The role of managerial practices in firms' performance is recognized to be a crucial element to explain the large heterogeneity among firms and countries in productivity and innovative performance (Bloom and Van Reenen, 2007 and 2011; Akcigit et al. 2021). Within such diverse picture, a substantial share of entrepreneurs shows to have a very low reservation profit, does not innovate, is not interested to grow and, in fact, their firms remain small (Hurst and Pugsley, 2011). As a result, risk-adjusted returns from entrepreneurship are quite low and much skewed (Hall and Woodward, 2010). Most entrepreneurs would get more income by choosing regular employment or would get higher returns on their capital by investing in bonds (Hamilton, 2000; Kerins, Smith and Smithy 2004; Benz, 2009). Nevertheless, self-employed and entrepreneurs in particular, show to be more satisfied with their jobs than employees (e.g. Blanchflower, Oswald and Stutzer, 2001; Blanchflower and Oswald, 1998), a clue that the utility function of entrepreneurs includes nontrivial, nonmonetary components.

Models of occupational choice *à la* Lazear (2004, 2005) have been used to introduce nonmonetary benefit of being entrepreneurs in utility functions (Benz, 2009; Härsmann and Mattson, 2020). The main result of this extension is that non-monetary benefits drive individuals with poor entrepreneurial human capital into entrepreneurship. The distribution of entrepreneurial skills is thus thought to be the main source of heterogeneity in returns and firms' performance.

Family-run firms, i.e. firms where all the managers are hired within the family, are the class of firms where low monetary returns are more evident and this outcome is often accompanied by the adoption of inefficient internal organization set ups, in particular, very hierarchical management structures.

Although one may explain low monetary returns of family-run firms, displayed by data, with the idea that there are non-monetary benefits, the specific reasons why entrepreneurs may prefer inefficient internal organization rather than efficient ones, in terms of monetary rewards, still need to be explained.

In this paper, we contend that the choice to adopt inefficient internal organization strategies and the poor innovative performance of SMEs, in some circumstances, is due to the entrepreneurs' primary aim to keep a solid control over firms' strategies: for them, the control of discretionary managerial power can be an end in itself. To achieve this scope, entrepreneurs and family managers may accept lower, subnormal returns to managerial/entrepreneurial efforts in exchange for a strong control on firms' strategies.

The empirical analysis builds on these findings and estimates differences in the propensity to decentralize managerial decisions for family managed firms and family firms with non-family managers and to carry on innovative activity on a sample of SME (20-250 employees) in four European countries: France, Germany, Italy and Spain. We use a counterfactual method allowing to control for the effect of sample characteristics and for potential endogeneity. More specifically, we first use a propensity score matching approach (PSM) which selects balanced subsamples – i.e., samples that are identical in terms of distribution of covariates, of the two groups of firms. Our estimates show that family managed firms display significantly lower propensity to use decentralized (non hierarchical) organizational strategies: from 9% to 11.5 percentage points. Most important, the use of non-hierarchical structures is associated with a higher propensity to innovate, i.e. to carry on R&D activity, process and organizational innovation and to patent.

Keywords: motivations, entrepreneurship, nonmonetary benefits, organizational choice

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THE IMPACT AND SCOPE OF THE CIRCULAR ECONOMY APPLICATIONS IN THE ORGANIZATIONS

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The social and environmental challenges that we face in the 21st century have been the engine of the circular economy (CE) research. The CE is understood as an economic system that minimizes the resource input and waste, emissions and energy leakage from the system mitigating negative impacts without jeopardizing growth and prosperity. (Geissdoerfer et al, 2018)

The most cited publications on CE and indicators (obtained by means of a bibliometric analysis focusing on the decade 2011-2021) have focused their CE research on a solution to reduce environmental agreements of economic systems, review of the concept and evaluation of CE in a specific country (China) and a comparison of the performance of traditional and circular production systems, respectively. (Ghisellini et al, 2016, Su et al, 2013 and Genovese et al, 2017)

The introduction of the CE concept in the academic, business and government (also described as the triple helix, Ranga et al, 2015) world has led to the investigation of new technologies, the modification of production models and the definition of new laws.

This research delves into the way in which the application of CE is impacting on the triple helix organizations, emphasizing points for improvement and lessons learned. So that we can understand the opportunities, strengths, weaknesses, and challenges that the real application of CE is having in the organizations.

For this purpose, there have been selected eleven organizations that have been interviewed and analysed following the diversity criteria (international representation but also a strong presence of the Valencian Community in the triple helix innovation model) and authenticity and relevance (degree of knowledge of the -concept of CE to analyse a heterogeneous environment with different levels of experiences, opportunities, strengths, weaknesses in the field of CE and indicators.)

Some of the challenges arising from the application of CE that have been analysed are the following: Monitoring of CE (Park et al, 2014); Application of new technologies and business models (Fogarassy et al. 2020); Understanding the value of CE (Joustra et al, 2013); Political instruments (Winans et al, 2017); Clients perception of the added value of CE (Joustra et al. 2013); Heterogeneity in the application and monitoring of CE strategies (Naustdalsslid, 2014); Initial investments to implement CE strategies (Preston, 2012); Social dimension (Geissdoerfer et al, 2018).; Quality and competitiveness of materials derived from waste (Linder et al 2017); Involvement of all actors in society (Ghisellini et al, 2016); COVID-19 pandemic

This communication aims to provide a preliminary understanding of the required effort to implement CE strategies in organizations, as well as the impact generated and the way in which their degree of progress is measured.

Keywords: *circular economy, indicators, triple helix, opportunities, lessons learnt*

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DETERMINING FACTORS FOR THE CREATION OF UNIVERSITY JOB EXPECTATIONS IN THE AGRI-FOOD AND BIOSYSTEMS AREA

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This paper analyzes the factors that affect the creation of job expectations of university students who study different degrees within the area of agri-food and biosystems in Spain. The objective is to establish a theoretical model to be able to make a contrast analysis in future works. To this end, a review of previous literature on the topic has been done as well as a field study with a survey of 246 students. Once defined in the survey the different sociological, economic and motivational characteristics that could affect student's job expectations, a statistical factorial technique has been applied for the analysis. The results obtained show that there are 5 main factors that affect the creation of job expectations of young university students: (1) economic stability, (2) characteristic of the job, (3) personal and formative maturity, (4) family influences y (5) job satisfaction within the workplace.

Keywords: Job preferences; sociological factors; economic factors; motivation; university education; factorial analysis.

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LA INFLUENCIA DE LA EDUCACIÓN FINANCIERA Y EMPRENDEDORA EN EL USO DEL CROWDFUNDING EN LOS MÚSICOS

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La educación financiera tiene una gran importancia en el impulso del emprendimiento. Debido a los severos efectos de la crisis financiera de 2008, muchos países impulsaron estrategias encaminadas a la educación financiera. En España, expertos de emprendimiento observaron importantes carencias formativas dentro del sistema educativo español que derivaban a una falta de competencias emprendedoras para iniciar nuevos proyectos empresariales (Alemany et al., 2011).

Los músicos deben ser financieramente alfabetizados o, en otras palabras, tener el conocimiento, la comprensión y las habilidades para tratar asuntos financieros y tomar decisiones correctas. Investigaciones recientes sugieren que los estudiantes de música destacan en el pensamiento creativo, pero tienen poca confianza en sus habilidades financieras y empresariales para desarrollar actividades por cuenta propia (Miller et al., 2016). Por lo tanto, es necesario que los estudiantes de música reciban formación financiera y de gestión empresarial para aumentar el nivel emprendedor y, con ello, mejorar sus oportunidades laborales.

Por otro lado, la educación en emprendimiento puede fomentar también los conocimientos financieros de los individuos y producir, a su vez, un efecto positivo en la formación de las habilidades empresariales (Suparno y Santono, 2018). Las competencias emprendedoras son también importantes para los graduados en música y profesionales *freelance* puesto que estos suelen enfrentarse al autoempleo y la incertidumbre profesional en un alto grado (Bennett 2007; Vaag, et al., 2014). Una reforma de los planes de estudios que incida en una mayor educación emprendedora podría mejorar el desarrollo profesional de los músicos (Miller et al., 2017).

La falta de acceso a los canales de financiación se constituye como una barrera importante para las empresas de las industrias culturales y creativas, especialmente las PYMES. En la actualidad, una de las fuentes financieras alternativas a la financiación bancaria tradicional que está alcanzado un rápido nivel de desarrollo dentro de las Finanzas sostenibles es el *crowdfunding*. El *crowdfunding* puede entenderse como aquellos esfuerzos realizados por emprendedores para financiar proyectos a través de pequeñas contribuciones hechas por un número relativamente grande de individuos gracias al uso de Internet y sin la necesidad de intermediarios financieros tradicionales (Mollick, 2014). En el caso de los jóvenes músicos, el *crowdfunding* puede contribuir a la puesta en marcha de nuevos proyectos musicales.

A pesar de que existe una correlación positiva entre los conocimientos financieros y las actividades empresariales, son pocos los estudios que analizan el papel que desempeña la

educación financiera en las iniciativas emprendedoras (Ćumurović y Hyll, 2019). Estudios como el de Puni et al. (2018), Fanea-Ivanovici y Baber (2021) o Baber (2022) indican que existe una relación positiva entre la educación emprendedora y la intención de emprender, demostrándose que aquellos estudiantes expuestos a una formación empresarial consiguen desarrollar los conocimientos y las habilidades necesarias para detectar oportunidades de negocio. También, algunas de estas investigaciones han demostrado que existe una relación positiva entre la intención de emprender y la intención de usar *crowdfunding* en los universitarios.

Aunque hay estudios, como el de Trindade et al. (2017), en los que se analiza el uso del *crowdfunding* por parte de los emprendedores musicales, faltarían nuevas investigaciones que estudien las relaciones entre los conocimientos financieros, el emprendimiento y el uso del *crowdfunding* en la música. Siguiendo la teoría del comportamiento planificado (*Theory of Planned Behavior*, TPB) (Ajzen, 1991), nuestro estudio tiene como objetivo proponer las proposiciones y un modelo predictivo que analice las relaciones existentes entre la educación financiera y la educación emprendedora de los estudiantes de música en su intención de emprender, así como en su comportamiento hacia el uso del *crowdfunding* como fuente alternativa para la obtención de fondos.

La finalidad de nuestra investigación es la de proponer un modelo teórico que comprenda el establecimiento de proposiciones orientadas al análisis de las siguientes relaciones: i) la educación financiera (medida por los conocimientos, los comportamientos y las actitudes financieras) y la intención de emprender; ii) las competencias emprendedoras (medidas por los conocimientos, las habilidades y las actitudes emprendedoras) y la intención de emprender; iii) la intención de emprender y el comportamiento o la intención de usar fuentes financieras sostenibles como el *crowdfunding*.

Nuestro trabajo de investigación pretende generar nuevas contribuciones, tanto a nivel teórico como en términos de aplicaciones, que proporcionen nuevas ideas en cuanto a emprendimiento y finanzas sostenibles en el contexto del sector musical. Gracias al elevado número de iniciativas musicales financiadas con éxito mediante el *crowdfunding* desde hace más de una década, esta fuente financiera se configura actualmente como una de las herramientas con mayor potencial para el emprendimiento musical.

Palabras clave: educación financiera; educación emprendedora; emprendimiento; crowdfunding; músicos.

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THE INFLUENCE OF ENTREPRENEURIAL MARKETING IN START-UP BUSINESSES CASE STUDY KOSOVO

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Start-ups are the backbone of any thriving economy because they make a significant contribution to both economic growth and job creation. As a result, a policy that encourages the formation of entrepreneurs and start-up businesses contributes to a country's economic development. (FORUM, 2022) However, this is based on the assumption that a significant number of start-ups will survive and grow in the market, resulting in economic growth and job opportunities. (Martinez & Aldrich, 2011)

Entrepreneurial marketing in start-up businesses takes into account the firm's unique business environment as well as entrepreneurs' innovative, proactive, and opportunistic approach to business. (Audretsch, 2012) Marketing practices and decision making in start-up businesses appear to be more creative, alternative, instinctive, informal, unstructured, chaotic, and unplanned. In this research, concepts of entrepreneurship and marketing are introduced, explained and followed by a discussion of how they interact, (Robert.D Hisrich; Veland Ramadani, 2018). The objective of study was to examine the relationship between entrepreneurial marketing dimensions, start-ups performance measures, examine start-up enterprises' marketing plans in light of entrepreneurial marketing to identify the best ways for their growth (Metcalf, 2009). According to the findings of the qualitative study, start-ups have limited government support and a hostile business environment (James W. Carland).

Although the trend of opening start-up businesses is growing, still it is suggested that the Kosovo government implement effective programs to encourage young people to start their own businesses in order to generate income and job opportunities. For further research, five dimensions of entrepreneurial marketing are recommended: customer, market, entrepreneurial, innovation, and influence orientations.

Keywords: Entrepreneurial marketing; Start-up; Customer orientation, entrepreneurial orientation, innovation orientation,

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