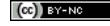




Available online at
<http://www.anpad.org.br/bar>

BAR, Rio de Janeiro, v. 11, n. 4, art. 2,
pp. 385-406, Oct./Dec. 2014
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1590/1807-7692bar2014130008>



Inhibition and Encouragement of Entrepreneurial Behavior: Antecedents Analysis from Managers' Perspectives

Marcos Hashimoto

E-mail address: hashi.marcos@gmail.com

Faculdade Campo Limpo Paulista – FACCAMP

R. Guatemala, 167, 13231-230, Campo Limpo Paulista, SP, Brazil.

Vânia Maria Jorge Nassif

E-mail address: vania.nassif@gmail.com

Universidade Nove de Julho - Uninove

Av. Francisco Matarazzo, 612, Prédio C, 05001-100, São Paulo, SP, Brazil.

Received 6 August 2013; received in revised form 4th June 2014 (this paper has been with the authors for two revisions); accepted 13 June 2014; published online 1st October 2014.

Abstract

One of the paths chosen by businesses to increase their competitiveness through innovation is by encouraging employees to adopt a more entrepreneurial attitude. Although studies on Entrepreneurial Orientation have brought important contributions, anecdotal evidences of entrepreneurial employees not affected by corporate initiatives drive attention to managers' roles in developing entrepreneurial behavior. We found good possible explanations in the theory Induced vs. Autonomous Entrepreneurial Behavior. Thus, the objective of this study is to empirically analyze the factors that inhibit or encourage entrepreneurial behavior. These factors arose from empirical research and were consolidated based on a literature review. This is a qualitative study whose data were collected in interviews carried out with 15 executives from different businesses in Brazil. The results showed that, while some Entrepreneurially Oriented practices can induce employees to adopt entrepreneurial behavior, autonomous behavior intrapreneurs are mostly stimulated by manager attitude. Managers use different approaches depending on the type of intrapreneur whose entrepreneurial behavior is intended to be stimulated, leading to the conclusion that managers, in some cases, play an important role in promoting Corporate Entrepreneurship.

Key words: entrepreneurial orientation; entrepreneurial behavior; induced behavior; autonomous behavior; intrapreneur.

Introduction

Even though there are not many scientific studies on barriers to and encouragement of practices that promote employees' entrepreneurial behavior, the number is clearly growing, which can be seen from the amount of papers published in the last few years on the topic (Emmendoerfer, Valadares, & Balbi, 2008). This rising interest in the topic can be explained by its interdisciplinary trait, broadening the well-established nature of studies on entrepreneurship by including aspects related to organizations, human resources, leadership, and competitive strategies. Notwithstanding the evidence of the growing interest in the topic, empirical studies about the main barriers and practices adopted by organizations are still incipient in academia.

The seminal study that underlies the present research was conducted by Burgelman (1983a) with the introduction to Autonomous Strategic Behavior and Induced Strategic Behavior as the concepts proposed to explain why some managers generate new Corporate Ventures independently from current corporate strategy. Since then, several Corporate Entrepreneurship studies considered autonomous and induced behavior to explain entrepreneurial behavior among employees (Burgelman, 1983b; Burgelman & Sayles, 1986; Ferreira, 2001; Heller, 1999). While some human resource policies and practices may induce employees to assume entrepreneurial behavior in their job duties, it is not clear why some employees exert autonomous entrepreneurial behavior. Although some employees may have a natural will to act entrepreneurially, we do believe that part of the autonomous behavior is stimulated by managers' attitudes. This has support from Burgelman's (1983b) approach, suggesting that middle management play a crucial role in supporting autonomous initiatives from employees, which is confirmed by Heller's (1999) studies on innovative projects in existing corporations. According to Heller (1999), the capacity to create an independent organizational structure for entrepreneurial initiatives relies much more on management's actions than organizational systems. Nevertheless, we believe that some managers do not serve only as corporate policies executors. Some authors, such as Heller (1999) and Burgelman (1983b) support this idea by stating managers have an active role in influencing employees' entrepreneurial behavior. The same way, we can consider how managers' behavior can also inhibit entrepreneurial attitudes of potential intrapreneurs within their teams. Through a deep analysis of manager behavior and attitudes, we aim, with this study, to empirically analyze the factors that inhibit or encourage entrepreneurial behavior from managers' perspectives. The related assumption is that, despite EO structural efforts to induce entrepreneurial behavior in employees, leaders also play an important role in generating autonomous behavior. Managers have better conditions to understand each team member and use concrete criteria when deciding to whom they should apply corporate policies and for whom these same policies should be bypassed in favor of more independence and freedom. The understanding of the differences of the elements that induce entrepreneurial behavior between organizational structure and leader behavior is highly relevant as it may help managers direct effective actions towards a culture that emphasizes innovation.

Induced or Autonomous Entrepreneurial Behavior

One of the difficulties found in studies about entrepreneurial behavior is that they rely on HR practices, internal culture, corporate strategy and managers' entrepreneurial behavior (Burgelman, 1983a). To better understand these constructs, it is important to mention the work of some researchers who looked for explanations to the reasons that kindle entrepreneurial attitude in employees based on existing organizational environments. Burgelman and Sayles (1986) observed that Corporate Entrepreneurship (CE) may be formal or informal. In formal CE, or induced behavior (Ferreira, 2001; Heller, 1999), the organization tries to facilitate, in every way, the generation of entrepreneurs and their initiatives. To a greater or lesser extent, these businesses:

Promote a pleasant working atmosphere, favor new ideas, properly reward entrepreneurs, value trials and experimentations, propose important projects to people who feel stimulated before challenges, eliminate or reduce barriers that may hinder entrepreneurs' initiative, keep broad and open communication structures, and take other actions that favor innovative initiatives from their employees. (Hashimoto, 2006, p. 79).

Informal CE (Burgelman, 1983b), also called employees' autonomous behavior (Ferreira, 2001; Heller, 1999), is when an organization does not favor the creation of a proper atmosphere for corporate innovation. Entrepreneurs that arise under such adverse and aggressive circumstances have their skills shaped by these circumstances (Ronen, 1988). In these cases, intrapreneurs

Are likely to already have some personality traits, such as determination, perseverance, creativity, and boldness because they will put their jobs at risk, face stringent hierarchical structures and lack of support and incentive and they will have to face repeated rejection to their ideas and proposals, overcome bureaucracy and act clandestinely. These intrapreneurs are rare, but valuable to any type of organization (Hashimoto, 2006, p. 79).

Therefore, intrapreneurs in organizations that formally promote entrepreneurial behavior (induced) are different from intrapreneurs in organizations that do not encourage entrepreneurial behavior (autonomous) (Figure 1).

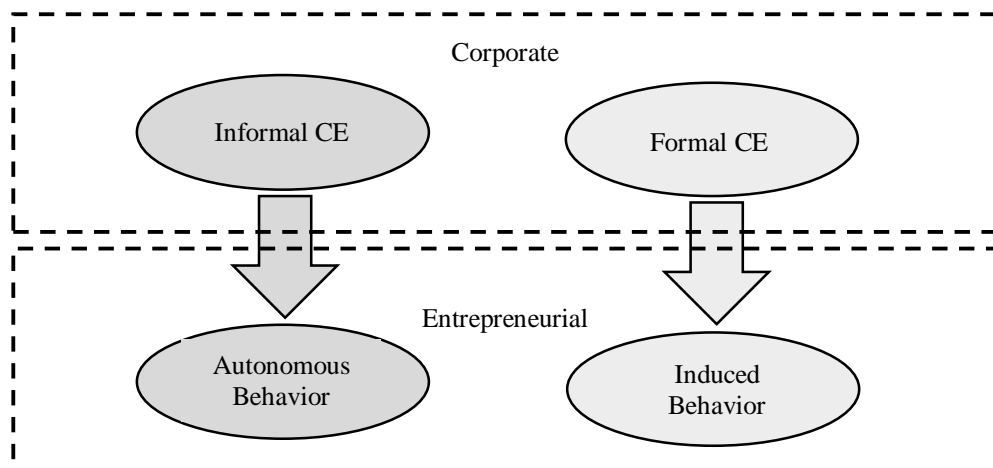


Figure 1. Informal and Formal CE Influences on Employees' Entrepreneurial Behavior.

Source: elaborated by the authors.

The organization that formally has an internal structure to induce employees' entrepreneurial behavior can adopt known practices and an Entrepreneurial Orientation, covered in the next section.

Entrepreneurial Orientation

During the past 10 years, the literature has developed several lines of thinking to explain the entrepreneurial behavior phenomena. Some of them have explored the concepts of Entrepreneurial Orientation (EO) and Intrapreneurship (IP). Generally speaking, we can understand that EO studies the organization, whereas IP studies the individual within the organization. Whereas EO refers to businesses' practices to encourage their employees to adopt entrepreneurial behavior within their activities, IP studies the employees that, regardless of the presence or absence of organizational encouragement, spontaneously adopt entrepreneurial behavior, promoting changes and improvements at all organizational levels. Organizations-related studies exert more interest from scholars than a single employee. On one hand, IP was the subject presented in 48 articles since 2005, in all indexed peer-reviewed journals. On the other hand, 21 articles on EO were found since 2005, but only in

Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice, the most referenced journal in the field of entrepreneurship. Additionally, the drop in the publication of articles on IP (42) between 2000 and 2013 contrasts with the growing number of studies on EO (225) in the same period.

The international academic community studies EO as a construct that explains entrepreneurial behavior (Covin & Lumpkin, 2011) in which ‘employees pursue opportunities regardless of the resources they run’ (Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990, p. 497). The three EO dimensions originated in Miller’s studies (1983 as cited in Miller, 2011): (a) Innovativeness – Organizations that promote entrepreneurship innovate by creating or improving products, services, processes, businesses, markets, alternatives to materials, and structural changes in the organization; (b) Proactiveness – Proactive organizations anticipate and take advantage of opportunities to fulfill future needs of a market, leaving competitors behind and making the best use of available resources; (c) Risk taking – Every entrepreneurial initiative involves risks to some level. The higher the innovation factor, the higher the uncertainty, an essential component of risk, along with probability.

The importance of studies on EO as a behavioral phenomenon of organizations is based on recent arguments from Covin and Lumpkin (2011), who mention that entrepreneurial attributes that are present in EO are related to business dimensions such as culture, atmosphere, and organizational behavior as the dominating logic, instead of seeing EO as a dispositional phenomenon (businesses that formally promote activities to encourage an expected behavior). This discussion, among others, has been conducted in the international academic community since the late 1990s. Induced and autonomous behavior, from the EO viewpoint, gains a new nuance. For better understanding, the following table describes the first three components: innovativeness, autonomy, and risk:

Table 1

Induced and Autonomous Corporate Entrepreneurship from the Scope of the Components of Entrepreneurial Orientation

Dimensions of EO	Autonomous CE	Induced CE
Innovativeness	The idea spontaneously comes to the intrapreneur, according to the needs and circumstances he/she faces. The nature of these ideas is mostly pragmatic and transactional, and is usually of low complexity.	The intrapreneur only has the idea because the organization has created a proper environment for ideas to emerge, flourish, and turn into effective results for the organization. The nature of these ideas is mostly institutional and corporate.
Proactiveness	The intrapreneur does not receive any formal directives from the organization to act in favor of a project. Instead, he/she takes the initiative to initiate an action that he/she believes in, and assumes the responsibility for the success or failure of his/her initiatives.	The intrapreneur only follows through with his/her idea if the organization formally approves of it. From that point on, he/she has the power to execute the idea with resources that are made available for that end.
Risk taking	Because the initiative is clandestine, all the risk lies with the intrapreneur, and none of it with the organization, which believes it has the right to punish intrapreneurs. If the intrapreneur fails, he/she pays for exercising informal power.	As for organizational approval, the risk of the initiative lies with the organization, not with the intrapreneur, who feels free to execute his/her idea, and is not afraid of being punished if it fails.

Note. Source: elaborated by the authors.

In autonomous behavior, intrapreneurs will exist whether or not the organization is entrepreneurially oriented. In light of these factors, the results of this study will be analyzed to identify which barriers hinder entrepreneurial behavior and what incentives encourage such behavior. Even though the study focuses on EO for induced behavior, we cannot fail to carry on an analysis together

with actions from leaders towards employees and to identify, in some way, the existence of autonomous behavior in case it is directly responsible for the business' survival and competitiveness in a dynamic market.

Methodology

Qualitative research is a group of interpretation and material practices that make the world visible. The theoretical perspective that involves qualitative research within the scope of this study is based on traditions of symbolic interactionism and phenomenology when considering subjects' points of view (Flick, 2009). Even so, the construction of categories is also based on some findings from the literature. In qualitative research, in general, an inductive approach is adopted, aiming to generate new theories and explanations (Gibbs, 2009) – in this case, to explain the antecedents of autonomous entrepreneurial behavior. That means that researchers use hypotheses generated during the research itself, in addition to the hypotheses originating from a previously established theoretical reference framework (Glaser & Strauss, 1999; Silverman, 2001). For this reason, this paper does not present any hypotheses. The hypotheses arose from the data during the analysis and were commented on in light of the theory investigated.

The qualitative method proved to be the most appropriate to answer the question in this research, which aimed to analyze the factors that facilitate or inhibit entrepreneurial behavior within organizations. Among the qualitative techniques available for data collection, we chose a semi-structured interview, using a flexible script, allowing the interviewees to freely express their ideas and experience. The script has broad questions that lead the way to develop the necessary constructs for data analysis. Companies were chosen from a database with a sample of Brazilian companies that participated in a large study about Corporate Entrepreneurship in Latin America (Kantis & Drucaroff, 2009), involving Brazil and also Argentina and Chile in 2008. That research was sponsored by the Fondo Multilateral de Inversiones (Multilateral Investment Funds [FOMIN]) from the Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo (Inter-american Bank of Development [BID]). The respondents to this study were executives involved with concerns related to Corporate Entrepreneurship and/or Innovation. The criterion established to choose the companies for this research considered businesses with high levels of Entrepreneurial Orientation. The criteria to choose the interviewees are related to the importance of field experience as a leader and intrapreneur in businesses of medium to high complexity, in organizations that value and support an entrepreneurial culture.

These executives tend to have a set of skills, high personal maturity, deep professional experience and previous knowledge about Corporate Entrepreneurship that enable them to have better perception of people and processes that contribute to encourage and promote entrepreneurial behavior in their teams, in addition to their accessibility and acceptance to participate in this study. Ignoring these criteria would mean that the sample of interviewees could not bring us relevant information for the research. The intention of being very selective of the criteria was to reduce the risk of including non-qualified executives in regards to the study objectives. Thus, the criteria were: to have a relevant position in creating a proper environment for innovation, and to play a major role in promoting EO; to have previous experience, whether as leader or as participant of intrapreneurial projects; to have more than 10 years of professional experience; to have worked for at least two big business organizations, national or multinational; to be in a high-management position for at least two years; and to have, at least, 50 direct or indirect subordinates. We also selected people who work in different areas of the organizations; not only representatives from business areas, but also from support areas, such as human resources, finance, accounting, marketing, legal, and controllership. To ensure diversity in respondents, we invited executives with different education levels, in different areas of practice, and from different geographic locations.

Fifteen executives participated in the study. Most interviews were carried out in the interviewees' workplaces, but others were conducted by telephone because of distance or difficulties in finding a

common agenda for a personal meeting. Nevertheless, no losses were observed in the quality of the information given. The average duration of the interviews was 90 minutes. In all cases, in person or by telephone, there were two stages. In the first stage, the questions were related to factors that characterize the entrepreneurial behaviors that were openly presented and not directed. In the second stage, we included a previous explanation of the concept of entrepreneurial behavior to make sure that all subjects had the same understanding of it. After that, the main arguments from the first answer were explored, but, this time, directed to possible explanations of EO antecedents within the organization.

The interviewees also described in-depth the factors that, in their opinion, could hinder or promote the generation of intrapreneurs. Also, it is worth recognizing the role that each organization plays in treating information, in a sense related to the credibility of the data provided by the interviewees, the unmentioned objectives that fulfill the expectations of this study, confirming interferences of other people, verifying, or not, the relevance of the items categorized by the researcher. To that end, we analyzed the corporate environment and asked for clarification of matters that remained hazy when we first read the interview, getting as close as possible to inferences and to reliability when treating data interpretation. Transcription is an important step to interpret data. There are many transcription systems available, with different levels of preciseness (Flick, 2009). In this study, we chose literal transcription. The analysis of the interview transcripts aimed to identify relevant, regular, and repeated patterns, leading to the analytical categories described below. Even though the frequency of an item's instances led it to be categorized, we did not reject sole aspects and observations that, together with repeated elements, led to a broader perception and understanding of the studied phenomenon.

Data were analyzed through two procedures. In the first one, after reading the transcripts, data were organized based on theme content analysis, which, according to Hsieh and Shannon (2005), contributes to the categorization of answers and to validate or understand the concepts of a theory – in this case, Entrepreneurial Orientation and Entrepreneurial Behavior. After the key concepts were defined, we carried out a technique called content analysis, proposed by Bardin (1977). We chose to follow this qualitative approach because of the nature, objective, and specificity of the collected data. Consequently, it was possible to structure data through theme content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005), focusing on uncovering meaning nuclei that compose communication (Bardin, 1977). Thus, there was no intention to list registers; the idea was to understand these meaning nuclei and the connections among them.

Initially, the theory was the corner stone to build categories. However, once we analyzed the responses, we observed that some testimonies were different from the assumptions found in the theory, and, therefore, other categories were created, for a total of ten. In this group of categories, we found the factors that inhibit or incentive entrepreneurial behavior. The categories were: information flow, institutionalized practices, organizational structure, internal atmosphere, tolerance to mistakes, creativity, freedom, rewarding, personnel qualification, and support from directors. These categories will be analyzed next.

Presentation of results

Profile of the interviewees

Fifteen executives were chosen according to previously set criteria that are in line with this research's problem. All of them work in businesses that have at least 200 employees; that are present in different parts of the country; of private (national or foreign) capital; from different economic sectors; publicly traded or privately held; and have been operating for, at least, 10 years. There were 14 men and one woman, from 29 to 54 years old. Six interviewees lead human resources departments, three lead innovation departments, and the others work in different areas, such as communication, documentation and projects. All of them have leadership positions.

Data classification

Data were classified according to the premises discussed in the theoretical references because they have consistent fundamentals that explain the barriers and encouragements to the EO of the studied businesses. However, the data collected in the interviews contributed to the group of factors, and, to facilitate comprehension, we chose to keep them in the same order we found in the literature, followed by the factors we organized based on the field research, highlighting the interviewees' opinions.

1. Information flow. The uncertainty surrounding innovation is better solved through some adjustments resulting from free information flow. Free, intense trade of information among participants helps informal structures access the necessary skills and data (Kanter, 1983, 1989; Pinchot, 1985; Van de Ven, 1986). Formal or informal, information flow must be open to all levels so that questions of any nature may be asked by any employee from any level and department of the organization (Marvel, Griffin, Hebda, & Vojak, 2007). In addition to diversity of communication channels, the authors point out that most innovations originate from the meeting of many types of knowledge promoted by the diversity of skills when analyzing these sources of information. The executives interviewed seek to promote a culture of transparency in information. Even though, for most of them, it is important that people have better, broader knowledge about the business, operations, and market, they recognize that it is useless to wait until you have all the information to make a decision:

“In some industries, the future is uncertain. There is no point in trying to predict ... Tomorrow is built with today's actions... Wake up in the morning and see which direction the wind is blowing to. In our business, we need to improvise.” [E3].

The respondents make more use of the institutional communication structures, such as corporate intranet and strategic planning meetings, but they believe that true intrapreneurs proactively search for information, regardless of the effectiveness of the institutional communication mechanisms:

“Whenever an individual has an idea, he looks for the information he needs, talks to people he needs to talk to, looks for the documents he needs... He doesn't sit and wait for the data to fall into his lap.” [E7].

We noticed that information flow through the organization is not as important as the amount of available information for encouraging entrepreneurial behavior from employees, something which has not been reported in the literature. Thus, we can infer that industries that are more dynamic, mutable, and less structured and organized have the same difficulty in accessing information that is relevant for decision-making, something which does not prevent them from being entrepreneurial.

2. Institutionalized practices. As an organization grows and becomes more complex, there is greater necessity to establish levels of hierarchy, authorization levels, job descriptions, standardized processes, periodic meetings, and other practices that bring order, organization and control, in order to avoid chaos in large organizations. Without these actions, quality fluctuates, schedules are not followed, control is lost, clients are unduly charged, capital is wasted, and employees find loopholes to circumvent the system (Morris, Allen, Schindehutte, & Avila, 2006). In organizations that promote entrepreneurial behavior, however, these rules, standards, controls, and procedures restrict and limit actions from intrapreneurs, stagnating an organization's innovative ability (Morris & Kuratko, 2002; Russell & Russell, 1992). All interviewees admit that there is bureaucracy in their businesses. They easily understand how bureaucracy discourages changes that lead to innovation and specific improvements. They commonly realize that some internal departments stick too much to the rules, procedures, policies, and standards, and that they give little freedom to implement different things. They complain that people waste too much time fulfilling obligations that have little value to the business. There were more complaints like that in organizations with more than three thousand employees and in multinationals, where control and strategies are concentrated. Few interviewees recognize their own roles in creating rules, standards, and procedures that hinder the generation of ideas from other departments.

“When I was younger, I used to think that all this bureaucracy was excessive, but nowadays I recognize that it is necessary in a corporation like ours because there are a lot of people and they need some guidance, control, rules. This is inevitable, but there should be some flexibility because not everyone in here needs rules.” [E11].

There is some effort to minimize the effects of bureaucracy as much as possible, within their own structure. Some measures for that purpose were mentioned, such as semi-autonomous work groups, decentralization, and the delegation of new responsibilities to lower levels of hierarchy.

“In the case of some employees, I listen to their initiatives and complaints on how difficult it is to do some things here. When I think that they need some incentive, I do what I can, whatever is within my reach, to remove some of the barriers from their way, but that is not always possible.” [E1].

As a whole, the interviewed managers try to facilitate things for their subordinates. The only contrary opinion was stated by E7:

“Rules are necessary. The more, the merrier ... that’s how we see the real entrepreneurs; who is more creative to overcome these limitations.” [E7].

This statement contradicts previous studies and can be partially explained by Burgelman (1983a) with the concept of autonomous entrepreneurial behavior. According to him, whenever the organization does not proactively create an environment that is proper for the innovative culture, most employees do not undertake entrepreneurial initiatives, but a few of them see the limited resources, excessive rules, and the unrelenting and inflexible flow of processes as challenges to be overcome by people with entrepreneurial profiles. This opinion coincides with the interviewee’s statement that rules are not only necessary, but also helpful in identifying intrapreneurs.

3. Organizational structure. Flat structures with few hierarchical levels put the top of organizations closer to operational levels, accelerating decision-making and facilitating the development of innovative proposals and ideas (Marvel *et al.*, 2007). The leaner the structures, the less they depend on formal communication channels, consequently favoring the flow of information that feeds the ability to identify opportunities and develop innovative ideas (Farrell, 1993). Moreover, organizations with less-centralized structures tend to generate more ideas than centralized organizations because managers have more autonomy and control on resources, making it possible for more creative ideas to be used (Mintzberg, 2008; Pierce & Delbecq, 1977). Participating in decisions on the innovation of decentralized structures leads to more commitment to the innovation (Hage & Aiken, 1970; Wright, Kroll, & Parnell, 2000).

“Seldom does a director visit the factory floor. He doesn’t go; he thinks it is not up to someone in his position. Everything he knows about the company comes from reports, graphs, and team meetings.” [E3].

“There are too many hierarchical levels separating the base and the top of the pyramid. One cannot expect that the upper management is interested in what is happening at the operational level. That is why hierarchy was created, but I think that, sometimes, the Gods should visit the Earth.” [E9].

None of the interviewees presented any evidence that they adopt *ad hoc* or organic structures. One of the characteristics of the interview with open-ended questions is that the interviewee can give spontaneous, unexpected answers that are not based on the literature. One of these answers was given when an interviewee was asked about the organizational structure adopted:

“Job titles only get in the way of things ... sometimes, it’s better when people don’t know who I am.” [E1].

Job titles determine their position in the hierarchy; therefore, they are essential in the classic approach to organizational studies. Notwithstanding this positivist conclusion, it is possible that, as stated by the interviewee, job titles are reason for discrimination in organizations, in a sense that people feel inhibited from stating their opinions openly and clearly before someone of a higher position. As employees from higher positions strip themselves of symbols of power, other employees, from the viewpoint of the autonomous entrepreneurial behavior, feel closer and freer to give their ideas and contributions without any fear of being punished for daring (Pinchot, 1985).

4. Internal Climate. The influence of a good internal working climate that is appropriate for entrepreneurship is often mentioned in literature (Collins, 2001; Lumpkin & Dess, 1996; Morris, Kuratko, & Covin, 2008; Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990). A favorable environment to uncertainty and ambiguity is good because it keeps people alert and minimizes the feeling of preservation of the *status quo* (Morris & Kuratko, 2002). Research that relates uncertainty and innovation shows that, the greater the uncertainty, the richer the sources of innovation opportunities, such as changes made prior to demands, new technologies, or relationships among competitors (Utterback, 1971). Kimberly and Evanisko (1981) noted that many attempts to promote innovation failed because of internal resistance to ambiguous situations (Russell & Russell, 1992). The interviewees had no problems in putting into words the influence of environmental aspects, easily noticed in statements like: “people here are responsible for one another” [E2]; or “people here aren’t arrogant” [E7]; and “we see that everybody is proud to say that they work in this company” [E11].

They also state that, in a way, their organizations succeeded in having their employees relate to them. Even though spontaneous answers describe the interviewees’ business organizations as having good working climate, these answers do not say, specifically, whether or not the organizations’ culture allows the creation of an environment that is favorable to change and innovation. Some authors believe that, in environments of mutual trust and commitment, any intrapreneurial project is much more easily implemented (Kuratko & Hodgetts, 2008). However, a great part of the interviewees admits that receptiveness to change and to new ideas is still rare. The belief that past success leads to future success makes people resistant to changes that may alter this status.

This realization is more common among interviewees from organizations that were undergoing deep changes in business, which is supported by Miller (2011), who points out countless studies that relate leaders’ EO to impacts caused by many levels of organizational changes. People do not know what to expect from the future, and they feel insecure in uncertain environments. The interviewees try to show the long-term picture, but they do not consider this enough to reduce the insecurity caused by changes. According to them, there is this belief of “why mess with success?” [E10]. Even organizations that “are not successful” and still need to “get there” lack a bolder attitude, both from leaders and from subordinates, to have the courage to accept environmental provocations to change a preexisting situation [E8]. Incongruently, one of the interviewees stated that aggressive environments like that may favor the formation of entrepreneurial culture:

“People do need to feel afraid. Afraid of losing their jobs, afraid of failing. Very often, things only happen when people are afraid.” [E4].

We could not find much research that indicates the role played by fear in entrepreneurial behavior, only one study by Covin and Slevin (1989) on the influence of hostile environments on intrapreneurial behavior. In entrepreneurship, we found studies on entrepreneurship by necessity (Machado, 2010), which indicate that many entrepreneurs start their own enterprises out of necessity, usually because of the lack of opportunities in the job market.

5. Tolerance to mistakes. Tolerance to mistakes is the willingness to dispose of significant resources to take opportunities that have some chance to fail. No enterprise is free from the risk of failure. The greater the uncertainty, the more unpredictable the results are. Risks comprise three basic factors: anomalies or variations to which products, processes, and services are subject; the probability of occurrence of such anomalies; and the seriousness of the consequences of the occurrences. These are the elements that entrepreneurs take into consideration when they calculate the risks of an enterprise (Longenecker & Schoen, 1975).

Wiklund and Shepherd (2011) reinforce the importance of mistakes in the process of generating initiatives of high and quick performance. In general, this level of performance is reached through ideas of an intrinsically disruptive nature, with few comparative references and, therefore, subject to high rates of failure. Related to the previous item, receptiveness to changes, the lack of tolerance to mistakes and failures that people make when they are trying to do something different were the two factors that received the worst evaluation from interviewees: “Mistakes aren’t accepted” [E4]; “Quality is the rule,

and the rule is zero flaws” [E9]; “People hide their mistakes” [E2]. Even though they recognize that, to innovate, it is frequently necessary to attempt to do something that has never been done, which may lead to mistakes and failures, the lack of tolerance to mistakes is perceived as punishment imposed if they attempt something different, and it does not work, leading people to abandon any initiative that may break from this pattern.

According to some interviewees, there is a discourse being spread in the organizations that encourages attempts, as long as they are controlled and supervised, approved and oriented by the leaders. Other interviewees stated that their organizations stimulate the culture of continuous improvement and that, in this context, mistakes are undesirable. We could note, from the discourse, that the ability to tolerate mistakes is more related to each manager than to institutional policies.

“Depending on who made the mistake, his reputation, and the reasons for the mistakes, I take everything into consideration and leave it be, but always with a message to be more careful next time.” [E8].

“I do not have any problems in forgiving mistakes; nobody is perfect ... Now, if the person made the mistake again for the same reason, that means he hasn’t learned the lesson, then I’ll reprimand him.” [E5].

Thus, it is possible that, within one organization, there are managers that tolerate mistakes from their employees, and others that do not, regardless of the organizational vision.

6. Creativity. The search for creative, unusual solutions to face existing problems and needs may present in the form of new technology or processes, and is related to the innovativeness of organizations (Schumpeter, 1934). The wish to innovate comes from the feeling of belonging, responsibility, and property that arises from the employee’s intrinsic motivations (Morris & Kuratko, 2002). Overall, the interviewees believe that innovation is limited to releasing new products and services. There is this unjustified belief that innovation can only come from labs, especially according to representatives from some economic sectors. Nevertheless, some people consider that innovation is part of any process, and everybody should get involved in the generation of these innovations.

Few organizations in this study have formal programs to encourage new ideas from the employees. These programs are still at the earliest stages and lack effective mechanisms to reward and obtain concrete results from these ideas. They still need to evolve and develop. When we asked the interviewees to mention some examples of ideas that were generated in these programs, we realized that the projects (or simply initiatives) do not present much innovation and may be considered, at best, improvements to existing processes, for example, reducing paper waste, increasing the use of stairs instead of elevators, reducing problems with absences, suggesting new HR benefits for employees, improving the organization of information in the corporate intranet, etc. Because the quantity and quality of these programs are not in the scope of this study, we only explored the interviewees’ actions when members from their team participate in these programs and have their ideas approved. We concluded that, even though the ideas are approved by a committee that was created specifically to this end, they are rarely followed through with definitive results and planned, for many reasons reported by the respondents.

“Everybody here wants to innovate, wants to be like Kaká⁽¹⁾ ... This is terrible. Truth is: we need even the conservatives.” [E5].

“Making a suggestion is not the same as innovating, let alone being an entrepreneur. Few people take the next step and put their ideas into action.” [E10].

“People always have excuses: either there is no time, or no help, or there is some other priority ... This way, it is easy, isn’t it?” [E8].

The surprising statement made by E5, contrary to the opinions of other executives that are strongly in favor of innovators even though many projects are not concluded. However, it made us reflect on the real necessity to endeavor a global effort for new ideas from the employees. The unyielding truth is that not everybody can develop their creativity and, even though they are efficient in other areas, they may feel discriminated against if the internal climate is deeply based on the need to have ideas. The business

that E7 works at, for example, includes among the annual evaluation criteria the participation and performance in internal program of ideas. According to the respondent, this does not make any sense because, even though many people are not creative, that does not mean that they should be given less value. According to E2, the situation is more complicated because, when people are pushed into having ideas, the ideas are not good and have to be rejected, which causes higher frustration than when participation is voluntary. These positions coincide with the findings by Hornsby, Kuratko and Montagno (1999). The paradox faced by leaders of organizations that are oriented towards entrepreneurship has been on how to reject bad ideas from employees without discouraging them from continuing to contribute other ideas. If, on the one hand, extensive campaigns to promote the generation of ideas are effective; on the other hand, they cannot support all ideas that are generated because there is the clear necessity to reject ideas of low value or because there is not enough budget and structure to implement all of them.

7. Freedom. Autonomy is important for the entrepreneur to have the authority to grasp entrepreneurial opportunities with perseverance, adaptability, and tolerance to mistakes (Morris *et al.*, 2006), whether to introduce new products and services into the market, or to adopt new administrative techniques, processes, and technologies (Covin & Miles, 1999). Once they have autonomy, entrepreneurs can outline objectives, decide on the use of resources, and choose strategies of action. We noticed that about a half of the interviewees stated that they do not think their subordinates are trustworthy or that they should have more freedom to act without consulting their superiors, whereas others state that freedom is essential for individual initiatives to be generated and turned into results. When looking for explanations for these inconsistencies, we noticed that there is a combination in the relationship between leaders and subordinates that justifies each type of behavior.

Restrictions to freedom and higher control can be seen in executives that have little confidence in their subordinates, both in those who are not mature enough to enjoy freedom and in those who overstep limits when they have the slightest autonomy. On the other hand, the interviewees that give more freedom to their subordinates showed dissatisfaction and disappointment when they give autonomy to people that they consider underprepared. However, they state that they do it because it is the only way through which they can know their subordinates' profiles. The statements also point out that employees that have a greater understanding of the business, activity, strategy, and company are more likely to be given more autonomy, as in the case of people who "are older and more experienced" [E9]; "have worked in different departments" [E2]; or "have worked longer in that organization" [E11]. Some of the interviewees also stated that their own behavior inspired trust throughout the rest of the hierarchical chain. They stated that many employees are not accustomed to freedom and autonomy; they do not know what to do, they expect some directions, and they are lost when there are no references to guide them.

"Yes, I give them autonomy, but not to everyone, just to those who deserve and know what to do with it. It may sound cruel, but the truth is: many people get disoriented and even criticize the lack of directives." [E5].

"To many people, you have to be really clear not only about what you want, but also HOW they should do it. They can't do anything by themselves." [E4].

8. Rewarding. In organizations that are entrepreneurially oriented, all intrapreneurs are recognized and rewarded for their efforts, regardless of the success of their enterprise. This is the posture that most reflects the ability of the organization to accept risks (Hashimoto, 2006). Virtually all interviewees state that the organization has formal incentive programs to reward employees with good performances. When asked whether or not there were specific programs to stimulate employees to have ideas and implement those, answers varied. In some cases, there are formal programs, limited to rewarding good ideas. None of them were related to rewarding effective results obtained from the implemented ideas.

"We hold a competition of ideas among employees ..., this competition has existed for four years ..., nobody is responsible for putting the ideas into action, most of them never get off the ground." [E4].

“These are incentive programs, with prizes to the employees with the best ideas. A committee evaluates, and the department to benefit from the idea is responsible for putting it into action I don’t know what happens, but it seems to me that few of them are actually carried out.” [E1].

In other cases, incentive comes from the leader, informally, using parts of the budget that had other destinations “I myself create a challenge in my team to shake things up a little” [E9]. E7 stated that there was no formal program in the organization he works for, but employees with entrepreneurial attitudes were singled out from the rest of the team. They had privileges, new challenges, and public recognition. Financial rewards were not always necessary or possible: “Paying for a dinner for the employee who gave some good contribution and his family is much cheaper and means much more to him than if I had simply given money”. The prerequisite, to the respondents, is that the reward makes people engage in initiatives that aim at innovation and changes. We did not find any interviewee that rewarded mistakes and failures, even though most of them agreed that such practice was important to encourage learning through practical experience. We also found another type of stimulus – negative stimulus – that is used to take employees out of their comfort zones and make them seek new ways to perform their jobs and fulfill their responsibilities.

“If a department is not working well, I threaten to outsource their tasks. It is a kind of internal competition, you know? So that people do not get too comfortable” [E9].

Farrell (1993) explains better this behavior. According to him, in some organizational cultures, negative stimuli can be more efficient than positive stimuli.

9. Personnel qualification. Qualification is obtained through a broad and deep program of employee qualification, providing specific skills in management and business that are essential for them to have a global vision of the business they are building (Marvel *et al.*, 2007). Another form of qualification is by preparing leaders to recognize, develop, and retain intrapreneurs, and by providing broad, comprehensive training about the company’s business, strategies, teamwork, and project management (Morris & Kuratko, 2002). Employees’ low qualification may hamper the identification of opportunities within the organizational environment. A minimum of basic education is essential for the internal processes to be seen from a different perspective. Thus, a factor that was mentioned in many interviews was the importance that the organization gives to training and preparing their employees. We noticed that there is this generalized understanding that training is the best path to solve any personnel-related problems. The interviewees, in general, have put a lot of responsibility on training programs to form talents for the business organization. Only one interviewee stated that he/she did not believe that this is the right path to form intrapreneurs:

“There is no point in lying to ourselves. Not everybody is ready to receive trainings in business or project management, then get out and start doing these things well.” [E11].

Studies from Morris, Kuratko and Covin (2008), proved that extensive training is palliative to compensate for the lack of workforce qualification in organizations, but what actually develops entrepreneurial skills is practice with the project. Going through certain experiences is the only way to get the necessary skills to undertake entrepreneurial projects. Another realization was that, even though most references highlight the need of basic training to undertake enterprises, some interviewees stated that, sometimes, ignorance favors entrepreneurial attitude:

“The best ideas come from labors at the operational plant. They believe that everything is possible. The engineers are the ones to tell them that things cannot be done.” [E2].

One possible explanation for this phenomenon is that people that are not qualified have limited vision on the organizational barriers, rules, and on the complexity of the organization. Consequently, they think that any improvement ideas they have are easy to implement. Furthermore, they do not hide their ideas because of pride or to preserve their images.

10. Support from directors. This factor deals with the willingness of top management to promote entrepreneurial initiatives among their employees. According to the interviewees, when directors are committed, things happen more easily, barriers are removed, restrictions are lifted, and resistance is

weakened. Top management can limit actions that hinder innovation, changes, and what is different. Top-down influence makes the dissemination of entrepreneurial orientation faster, more effective, and longer-lasting. Consequently, people feel freer and more comfortable to bring up their ideas. Most answers to this question were positive; however, when asked about the type of support, we realized that most of it is still merely rhetorical. The resources available to stimulate innovative ideas are limited, and are only released if they are approved in the annual strategic plan of that department. Seldom are unplanned resources released to subsidize initiatives from employees. The exceptions are the cases seen by many directors as once-in-a-lifetime opportunities.

None of the interviewees allow even their direct subordinates to use some of their time discretionarily. They pointed out that no employee is allowed to devote some of their working hours to imagine possibilities, attempt different things, or work on personal projects without having to give explanations. The interviewees understand the need to provide these resources: infrastructure, discretionary time, team, training etc. to stimulate the culture oriented to entrepreneurship. One of them, nevertheless, was absolutely against such initiatives:

“If they really want to do that, they will do it anyways; without any budget, team, or time.” [E10].

The organization to which this executive belongs did not present any factor that favors intrapreneurship, but his/her team, specifically, is always involved in projects created by employees on their own, of multidisciplinary and interdepartmental natures, that focus on broadening the market for the provided services. Most initiatives are not highly complex, bring immediate results, and happen with few formal resources. To this executive, a self-motivated team makes a lot of effort to turn ideas into results. His statement shows the real entrepreneurial spirit from the approach of the autonomous behavior, even though it goes against what the literature and other interviewees assert about the need to make resources available for intrapreneurship to arise. The only reference we found in that sense was McKinney and McKinney (1989). Additionally, few interviewees stated that they strip themselves of symbols of power that create a personal image that singles them out from the other employees.

On the other hand, we noticed that intrapreneurial initiatives are more frequent and successful when the support comes from the people in charge of the organization. Thus, there is a top-down effort to create conditions to make innovation a part of organizational strategy. The bottom only commits when they see that the top is committed. No interviewee stated that they knew any type of program that prepares intrapreneurial leaders. It was clear that the interviewees have not learned how to deal with entrepreneur employees and how to recognize innovative initiatives. Conversely, we noticed that some of them antagonize employees with better entrepreneurial skills because they felt threatened:

“Well, I have an employee who fits into your description, but I don’t think he is an entrepreneur. It’s the opposite; he is insubordinate, does things from out of his mind, without asking me.... He doesn’t agree to follow the procedures from controllership; he thinks it’s pure bureaucracy.... Indeed, he has some interesting ideas and is proactive, dynamic; but he is hard to control. He ends up getting in hot water, and it’s my head that gets on the chopping block. If that’s what an entrepreneur is, I’m not sure it’s worth having one in my team” [E1].

This statement came after over one hour of talk. At first, he was highlighting the need to have more people full of energy as those described in the profile of the intrapreneur (Hornsby, Kuratko, & Montagno, 1999), but, eventually, he showed his feelings towards intrapreneurs. He sees an intrapreneur as a subordinate who faithfully obeys orders and directives. However, considering this position from the interviewee, we understand that, for there to be some entrepreneurial culture, the entrepreneur should be lead by someone else, so that the entrepreneurial leader could better understand the behavior and attitudes from his employee – such as insubordination, questioning of the *status quo*, and search for autonomy –, and better accept the breaking of rules that limit his subordinate’s entrepreneurial initiatives.

Discussion of the Results

To establish some relation between the entrepreneurial induced and autonomous behavior and the ten categories raised at the literature and the data content analysis, Table 2 groups the key results:

Table 2

Factors that Encourages Entrepreneurial Behavior

Categories	Autonomous Behavior	Induced Behavior
Information flow	The more asymmetric the information, the more opportunities are identified.	Free information flow facilitates the identification of opportunities, generating better ideas.
Institutionalized practices	Excessive rules are challenges to be overcome, which motivates intrapreneurs.	Less rules and standards give people more freedom and independency.
Organizational structure	Extinguishing the structure based on job titles gives freedom to explore other professional skills.	Structures with few levels of hierarchy reduce approval scales and facilitate the conduction of entrepreneurial initiatives.
Internal climate	Knowing the internal climate facilitates the adoption of informal actions to overcome bureaucratic limitations.	A culture that favors cooperation and mutual trust facilitates the implementation of changes and innovations.
Tolerance to mistakes	Low tolerance to mistakes encourages intrapreneurs to reduce the impact of their actions, minimizing losses, and reducing the level of uncertainty, trying to plan their initiatives better.	Environments that are more tolerant to mistakes encourage employees to attempt and experiment more because they reduce the fear of retaliation for failure.
Creativity	Intrapreneurs are more prominent in less-creative environments because that is where they stand out the most.	Environments that are little creative indicate a tendency to resist to changes, stick to the <i>status quo</i> , and be reactive to competitors.
Freedom	The lack of freedom constricts the intrapreneur, who tries to overcome restrictions with more creativity and boldness.	More freedom and trust give employees autonomy to conduct their own initiatives.
Rewarding	Intrapreneurs are motivated with recognition, learning opportunities, feeling of fulfillment, and new challenges.	Traditional models of compensation are extrinsic and include: financial gains, promotions, and prizes, and are not related to positive results.
Qualification of personnel	Learning from practice, trial and error, job rotation, networking, and self-development.	Structure of formal training, of an instrumental nature, designated according to the identified need.
Support from directors	Intrapreneurs rely more on sponsors than on bosses because they do not stick to hierarchical limitations, seeking contacts that help them overcome institutional barriers.	Support from leaders to employees' initiatives, whether through encouragement and recognition, or through the release of resources, structure, and capital.

Note. Source: elaborated by the authors.

Similarly, we outlined, in Table 3, the main factors that inhibit entrepreneurial behavior for both concepts, based on the same organizational categories:

Table 3

Factors that Inhibit Entrepreneurial Behavior

Categories	Autonomous behavior	Induced behavior
Information flow	Excessive information leads to insecure decisions or excessive cautiousness in evaluating the risks of initiatives.	When there lacks knowledge about the organization's business and activities, ideas generated are underdeveloped and few are put to good use.
Institutionalized practices	As autonomous as the intrapreneur may be, he/she is not independent, <i>i.e.</i> , he/she depends on the rest of the organization to put his project into practice, and runs into bureaucratic limitations.	The standardization of rules and the institutionalization of standards and procedures decrease employees' tendency to be proactive.
Organizational structure	Rigorous, centralized structures constrict the action of intrapreneurs, who run into dead ends for their projects.	Hierarchical and functional structures hinder interdepartmental cooperation.
Internal climate	Good working climate favors the generation of fake intrapreneurs because they do not experience risky situations.	Culture is outdated, stuck to past values and achievements; refuses to see the need for change; stagnates, and dies.
Tolerance to mistakes	Low tolerance to mistakes may lead to early death of intrapreneurial projects because decisions lie with people that see threats and risks in intrapreneurial initiatives and that pull the plug at the slightest difficulty.	Mistakes represent non-conformity with processes and standards previously established, causing inefficiency and waste. Wherever tolerance to mistakes is low, tolerance to taking risks is also low.
Creativity	The ability to have ideas does not necessarily represent an entrepreneurial skill. Intrapreneurship can only take place when ideas are put into practice.	Lack of creativity leads to stagnation of the innovative power of the organization and, consequently, to loss of competitiveness.
Freedom	Many people cannot make good use of freedom. They feel disoriented or make wrong decisions.	Lack of freedom reduces proactiveness and makes people less willing to take initiatives and be autonomous.
Rewarding	Rewarding intrapreneurs according to their expectations may create dissatisfaction in the teams because of the subjective criteria and unequal treatment.	Lack of incentives and rewards discourages employees' proactive participation because they do not consider it feasible to dedicate to a risky initiative whose return is uncertain.
Qualification of personnel	Lack of proper education leads to wrong decisions, increasing the chances of failure of the initiative.	People poorly prepared affect the performance of their tasks, leading to loss of competitiveness.
Support from directors	Depending on the level of complexity of the intrapreneurial project, some organizational barriers can only be overcome with the commitment of powerful, influential people.	Lack of support from high management causes disbelief at any initiative of entrepreneurial orientation in the organization. Without credibility, people do not engage nor commit.

Note. Source: elaborated by the authors.

From these results, we notice that corporate entrepreneurship is a complex topic in the studied businesses. The complexity in noticing and dealing with professionals with this profile, in addition to the difficulty in understanding the concept, is easily observed in the context of the collected data.

Conclusions

The results of this study suggest that the ten categories discussed with the respondents demand a specific managerial behavior according to the employee profile, whether the employee has a tendency for induced or autonomous entrepreneurial behavior and, notwithstanding disseminated culture, managers are the biggest influence on entrepreneurial behavior within the organization.

Most of the results corroborate the main principles set forth by the literature. Nevertheless, this research’s main contributions are the practices taken by managers to foster entrepreneurial behavior in business organizations, which are not often approached by the literature. The factors that serve as inhibitors or encouragements to entrepreneurial behavior should be analyzed in light of autonomous or induced behavior. Covin and Lumpkin (2011) identified that, even though there are organizational practices that encourage entrepreneurial behavior (induced), if the managers do not follow the same line as these practices, there will be no induced behavior. On the other hand, spontaneous (autonomous) behavior from the employees, even if there is no institutional support, can be recognized and, consequently, appraised and encouraged by managers. (Figure 2).

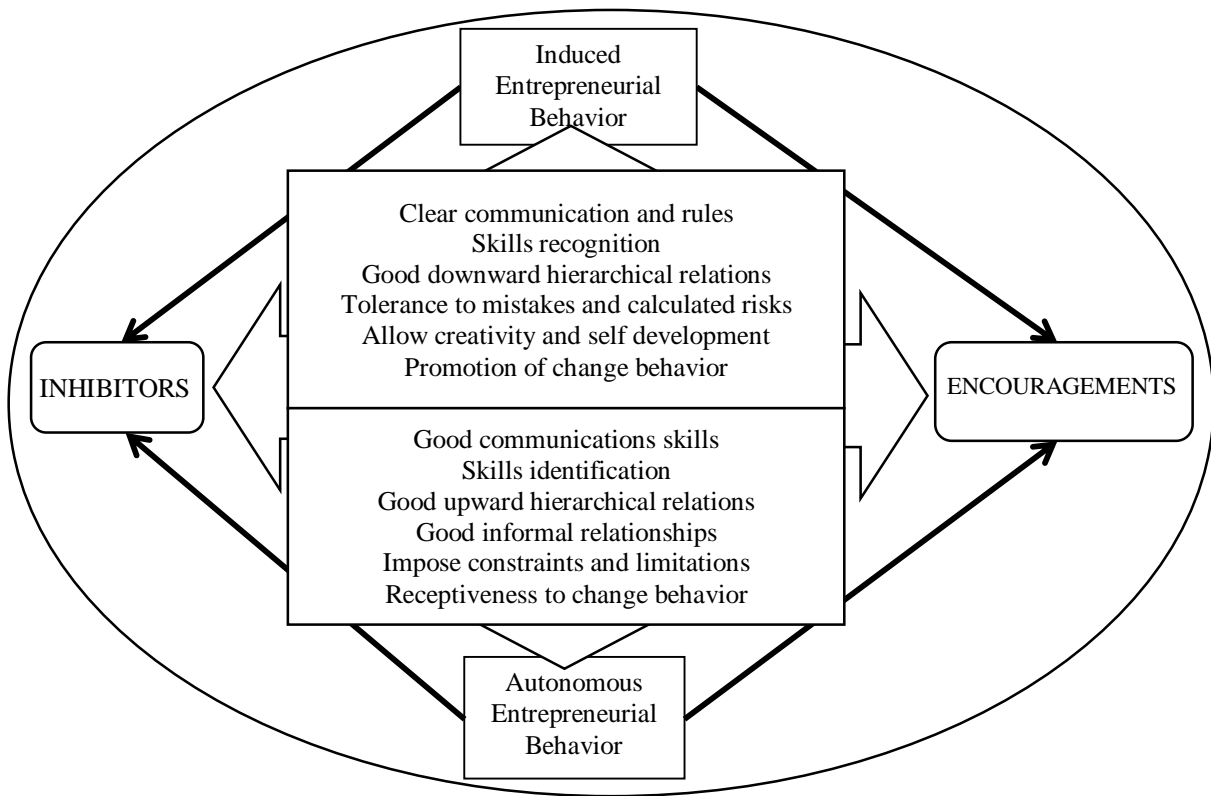


Figure 2. Framework of Managerial Behavior According to Employees’ Entrepreneurial Profile. Source: elaborated by the authors.

For example, to foster induced behavior, managers should cultivate good relationships with their team members to stimulate them to generate ideas and identify opportunities (good downward hierarchical relations), while, for autonomous behavior, managers should cultivate good relationships with top management (good upward hierarchical relation) to protect their intrapreneurs from institutional penalties for their failed endeavors (Figure 2), considering that the autonomous behavior

employees already have intrapreneurial traits. These managers' attitudes explain why intrapreneurs adopt autonomous behavior despite the lack of EO. While, on the one hand, EO is institutionally provided through formal measures, usually related to Human Resource practices, on the other hand, intrapreneurial oriented managers establish informal relationships and put away the good leadership practices to encourage autonomous intrapreneurs to foster their ideas. Similarly to Table 2 and 3, we summarize the manager's intervention in intrapreneurs in Table 4:

Table 4

Different Types of Entrepreneurial Behavior Depending on How the Main Influence (Human Resource Practices or Managers Attitudes) Deals with Barriers

Categories	Human Resource Practices	Managers Attitudes
Information flow	Formal information flow should provide intrapreneurs with the proper conditions to identify opportunities and develop his/her idea in a structured way for approval.	Managers know structured corporate information flow can generate an undesired bias to intrapreneurs' capacity to generate innovative insights, so they purposely filter the information.
Institutionalized practices	Removal of organizational barriers like rules, controls and procedures to stimulate employees to come up with ideas and implement them.	Managers do not remove institutional barriers. On the contrary, they stimulate intrapreneurs to overcome such bureaucracies to reinforce their commitment to the idea.
Organizational structure	Open channel for all levels of hierarchy to freely develop their intrapreneurial ideas by providing all the required resources.	Managers expose intrapreneurs to top management to pitch their ideas and learn how to raise the necessary support and resources to implement their ideas.
Internal climate	Wages, benefits, reward system, working space, infrastructure and other HR practices help to improve the internal work environment.	Even in aggressive environments, managers drive intrapreneurs to build strong networks and the establishment of important strategic alliances for their projects.
Tolerance to mistakes	All mistakes or failures coming from previously approved intrapreneurial projects are not penalized and losses are fully assumed by the organization.	Not all mistakes are tolerated by managers. Lessons not learned from mistakes are not forgiven. Additionally, managers include intrapreneurs in the project risk sharing.
Creativity	Formal programs of idea improvements and innovations are open to the whole company and all ideas are recognized and/or implemented by the benefit department.	Managers do not tolerate bad ideas from intrapreneurs. They don't even expect ideas from intrapreneurs, but actions. Intrapreneurs are demanded for results, not ideas. Anybody else may come up with ideas.
Freedom	All personnel are free to voice their ideas, to contact top management, to make trials and to give their honest opinion about the company.	Freedom is a scarce resource for the manager. It is not offered indistinctly to every team member. Intrapreneurs should prove they deserve freedom through their acts.

Continues

Table 4 (continued)

Categories	Human Resource Practices	Managers Attitudes
Qualification of personnel	Extensive training in several areas are formalized and offered to all employees. Large budget designated for training programs.	Managers offer intrapreneurs the opportunity to learn by doing, experiential training. They expect the intrapreneurs to engage themselves in the learning context depending on the nature of their projects, through self-learning.
Support from directors	Close connection between top management and operational levels. Most support are oriented towards formally approved projects and intrapreneurs.	Manager do not expect support from top management for the intrapreneurs. On the contrary, managers act to minimize negative impressions from top management about intrapreneurial behavior.

Note. Source: elaborated by the authors.

These final reflections emphasize the importance of managers in Corporate Entrepreneurship. Considering that institutionalized rules and practices are freely disseminated throughout the whole organization, and people are not all the same, it falls to entrepreneurially-oriented managers to differentiate those in their teams who are spontaneous intrapreneurs from those who are not. Practices that promote induced entrepreneurial behavior may affect some employees, maybe most of them, who are stimulated to act entrepreneurially based on external stimulus. Autonomous intrapreneurs are not necessarily impacted by these same practices. Once managers identify these types of intrapreneurs, they should act differently, in some cases, going against proven leadership best practices. The factors that inhibit entrepreneurial behavior should be taken into consideration by managers when dealing with autonomous or induced entrepreneurial behavior employees. These barriers should be overcome by managers in order not to kill entrepreneurial behavior from induced intrapreneurs, but should also be used as challenging factors to stimulate entrepreneurial behavior in autonomous intrapreneurs.

Although it is not possible to infer that these conclusions may be considered prescriptive under the current theory on EO before analyzing the circumstances under which the interviewees undertake such practices, we suggest that these managers should also adopt an entrepreneurial behavior. A possible future study could be the analysis of entrepreneurial leadership as a construct or concept that particularizes this specific management profile. It is undeniable that the managers play a major role in disseminating entrepreneurial behavior, in spite of the rules imposed within organizations. However, it is clear that the topic needs to be analyzed further, as it gives many opportunities for empirical discussions in different areas of applied social sciences and as a way to take this knowledge to leadership and corporate innovation training programs.

Note

¹ One of the most famous Brazilian soccer players.

References

Bardin, L. (1977). *Análise de conteúdo*. Lisboa: Edições 70.

- Burgelman, R. A. (1983a). A model of the interaction of strategic behavior, corporate context and the concept of strategy. *Academy of Management Review*, 8(1), 61-70. doi: 10.5465/AMR.1983.4287661
- Burgelman, R. A. (1983b). Corporate entrepreneurship and strategic management: insights from a process study. *Management Science*, 29(12), 1349-1364. doi: 10.1287/mnsc.29.12.1349
- Burgelman, R. A., & Sayles, L. R. (1986). *Inside corporate innovation strategy, structure and managerial skills*. New York: The Free Press.
- Collins, J. (2001). *Good to great*. New York: HarperCollins Publishers Inc.
- Covin, J. G., & Lumpkin, G. T. (2011). Entrepreneurial orientation theory and research: reflections on a needed construct. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 35(5), 855-872. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2011.00482.x
- Covin, J. G., & Miles, M. P. (1999). Corporate entrepreneurship and the pursuit of competitive advantage. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 23(3), 47-63.
- Covin, J. G., & Slevin, D. P. (1989). Strategic management of small firms in hostile and benign environments. *Strategic Management Journal*, 10(1), 75-87. doi: 10.1002/smj.4250100107
- Emmendoerfer, M. L., Valadares, J. L., & Balbi, R. V. (2008, outubro). Esforços para a construção do conhecimento sobre empreendedorismo interno: reflexões e perspectivas a partir de eventos da ANPAD (1997-2007). *Anais do Simpósio da Gestão da Inovação Tecnológica*, Brasília, DF, Brasil, 25.
- Farrell, L. C. (1993). *Entrepreneurship: fundamentos das organizações empreendedoras*. São Paulo: Editora Atlas.
- Ferreira, J. (2001). Corporate entrepreneurship: a strategic and structural perspective. *New England Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 7(4/2), 59-71.
- Flick, U. (2009). *Qualidade na pesquisa qualitativa*. Porto Alegre, RS: Bookman.
- Gibbs, G. (2009). *Análise de dados qualitativo*. Porto Alegre, RS: Bookman
- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1999). *The discovery of grounded theory: strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine Pub.
- Hage, J., & Aiken, M. (1970). *Social change in complex organizations*. New York: Random House.
- Hashimoto, M. (2006). *Espírito empreendedor nas organizações*. São Paulo: Editora Saraiva.
- Heller, T. (1999). Loosely coupled systems for corporate entrepreneurship: imagining and managing the innovation project/host organization interface. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 24(2), 25-31.
- Hornsby, J. S., Kuratko, D. F., & Montagno, R. V. (1999). Perception of internal factors for corporate entrepreneurship: a comparison of Canadian and U.S. Managers. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 24(2), 9-24.
- Hsieh, H.-F., & Shannon, S. E. (2005). Three approaches to qualitative content analysis. *Qualitative Health Research*, 15(9), 1277-1288. doi: 10.1177/1049732305276687
- Kanter, R. M. (1983). *The change masters: innovation for productivity in American corporations*. New York: Simon & Schuster.
- Kanter, R. M. (1989). *When giants learn to dance*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

- Kantis, H., & Drucaroff, S. (2009). *Emprendimiento corporativo en América Latina: conceptos, lecciones de la experiencia coreana y plataforma estratégica para su desarrollo en la región*. Washington, DC: Inter – American Development Bank.
- Kimberly, J. R., & Evanisko, M. J. (1981). Organizational innovation: the influence of individual, organizational, and contextual factors on hospital adoption of technological and administrative innovations. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 24(4), 689-713. doi: 10.2307/256170
- Kuratko, D. F., & Hodgetts, R. M. (2008). *Entrepreneurship: theory, process and practice* (6th ed.). Boston: South-Western College Publishing.
- Longenecker, J., & Schoen, J. E. (1975). The essence of entrepreneurship. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 17(2), 322-338.
- Lumpkin, G. T., & Dess, G. G. (1996). Clarifying the entrepreneurial orientation construct and linking it to performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(1), 135-172. doi: 10.5465/AMR.1996.9602161568
- Machado, J. P. et al. (2010). *Empreendedorismo no Brasil 2009*. Curitiba, PR: IBQP. Retrieved from http://www.ibqp.org.br/upload/tiny_mce/Download/Empreendedorismo%20no%20Brasil%2009.pdf
- Marvel, M. R., Griffin, A., Hebda, J., & Vojak, B. (2007). Examining the technical corporate entrepreneurs' motivation: voices from the field. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 31(5), 753-768. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2007.00198.x
- McKinney, G., & McKinney, M. (1989). Forget the corporate umbrella. Entrepreneurs shine in the rain. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 30(4), 77-82.
- Miller, D. (2011). Miller (1983) revisited: a reflection on EO research and some suggestions for the future. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 35(5), 873-894. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2011.00457.x
- Mintzberg, H. (2008). *Criando organizações eficazes*. São Paulo: Editora Atlas.
- Morris, M. H., & Kuratko, D. F. (2002). *Corporate entrepreneurship: entrepreneurial development within organizations*. Orlando: Harcourt College Publishers.
- Morris, M. H., Allen, J., Schindehutte, M., & Avila, R. (2006). Balanced management control systems as a mechanism for achieving corporate entrepreneurship. *Journal of Management Issues*, XVIII(4), 468-493.
- Morris, M. H., Kuratko, D. F., & Covin, J. G. (2008). *Corporate entrepreneurship & innovation* (2nd ed.). Mason, Ohio: Thomson/South-Western.
- Pierce, J. L., & Delbecq, A. L. (1977). Organization structure, individual attitudes and innovation. *Academy of Management Review*, 2(1), 27-37. doi: 10.5465/AMR.1977.4409154
- Pinchot, G., III (1985). *Intrapreneuring*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Ronen, J. (1988). Individual entrepreneurship and corporate entrepreneurship: a tentative synthesis. In G. Libecap (Ed.), *Advances in the study of entrepreneurship of innovation, and economic growth* (Vol. 2, pp. 243-268). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Russell, R. D., & Russell, C. J. (1992). An examination of the effects of organizational norms, organizational structure, and environmental uncertainty on entrepreneurial strategy. *Journal of Management*, 18(4), 639-656. doi: 10.1177/014920639201800403

- Schumpeter, J. A. (1934). *The theory of economic development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Silverman, D. (2001). *Interpreting qualitative data: methods of analyzing talk, text, and interactions*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Stevenson, H. H., & Jarillo, J. C. (1990). A paradigm of entrepreneurship: entrepreneurial management. *Strategic Management Journal*, 11(5), 17-27.
- Utterback, J. M. (1971). The process of technological innovation within the firm. *Academy of Management Journal*, 14(1), 75-88. doi: 10.2307/254712
- Van de Ven, A. A. (1986). Central problems in the management of innovation. *Management Science*, 32(5), 590-607. doi: 10.1287/mnsc.32.5.590
- Wiklund, J., & Shepherd, D. A. (2011). Where to from here? EO-as-experimentation, failure, and distribution of outcomes. *Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice*, 35(5), 925-946. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-6520.2011.00454.x
- Wright, P., Kroll, M. J., & Parnell, J. (2000). *Administração estratégica: conceitos*. São Paulo: Editora Atlas.