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Preface

BLIS Research started in 2002 when the BLIS Research Group was formed. In 2003 the BLIS Research Group started organising annual e4sme research conferences from which the best papers were identified to be reviewed by the BLIS Journal editorial panel.

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BLIS Editorial Team hopes you enjoy reading these papers and look forward to presenting you with the next issue soon.

BLIS Editorial Team

Foreword

2020 Changes in global normality

Global discussions about what life will be like when we emerge from the coronavirus pandemic have already started. Many businesses leaders are wondering whether the crisis offers the opportunity to set the world on a more sustainable and equal path. Will the Covid-19 recovery offer an opportunity to create a different type of ‘normal’ – one that can help restore trust in governments and endorse crucial economic and social rights. The crisis is set to create a huge business loss worldwide, which should technically mean a global recession with everyone affected and with a devastating impact on the poorest countries. Governments are already creating plans for recovery, with a focus on the financial stimulus needed to help the recovery of their economy.

But what is needed is a systemic change that goes far beyond individual governments and financial instruments to recalibrate societal values and provide a more sustainable underpinning for the future. Major crises is normally a great opportunity for change: from business contexts this situation should not be seen as a temporary breakdown, but rather as processes of change, creating new frameworks of business representation and regulation.

The economic devastation Covid-19 is wreaking across the world must be seen in the wider context of the enduring effects of the 2008 financial crisis. Businesses should be thinking “Why return to NORMAL when we can recover to a better stronger winning position”. Instead of going back to the past, winners and successful businesses drive forward towards a new and different future, a future for which they quickly become purpose-built. What does it take to recover by looking forward and emerging from a crisis significantly stronger than ever?

Successful businesses tend to take a comprehensive and integrated approach that spans six distinct areas, starting with scenario planning, progressing through a number of strategic, operational models and cost choices, in addition culminating with new organisational capabilities and a clear vision of how to mobilise for success. For example, rethinking customer needs, and how to meet them. Customer and consumer expectations and demands are undoubtedly changing, prompting those companies that are quick to respond the start adapting their operating models. For instance, in response to Covid-19, many B2C companies have quickly added delivery options and enhanced their emphasis on safety, health and cleanliness. Furthermore, despite the difficulty of predicting how customer behaviours and preferences will evolve over time, the crisis has made one thing undeniably clear: the future is digital.

Stanley Oliver

Professor Dr Stanley Oliver
Editor November 2020

Contents

Paper 1

Title: Toxic leadership in Education: mirroring the real world?

Author(s): Dr David William Stoten

Affiliation(s): Newcastle Business School, Northumbria University, UK

Pages 5 to 22

Paper 2

Title: Determinants of Entrepreneurial Intentions: Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Students in Sri Lanka

Author(s): Perera H.T.U.K* and Busige Nishantha**

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**** Department of Management & Organization Studies, Faculty of Management & Finance, University of Colombo, Sri Lanka**

Pages 23 to 49

Paper 3

Title: Relationship between Ethnocentrism and Impulsive Buying Behaviour: A Case of Sri Lankan Dairy Market

Authors: Karunaratne, L., G., A., S., and Wanninayake W.M.C.B.

Affiliations: United Nations Industrial Development Organization and University of Kelaniya

Pages 50 to 61

Title:

Toxic leadership in Education: mirroring the real world?

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Abstract:

The aims of this paper were to investigate whether teachers recognised toxic leadership in their work context and what they saw as its root causes.

The author used a questionnaire as a pilot in order to generate salient issues.

This pilot questionnaire was followed by research conversations between the researcher and 73 teachers based on a Habermasian social constructionist practice.

The results suggest that there are some similarities between education and other employment sectors and that 'Toxic Leadership' is an issue that should be addressed.

This paper calls for further research on toxicity in educational leadership and a move to ethical forms of leadership.

Keywords:

Toxic Leadership; Sixth Form College; Habermas; social constructionism; trust and professionalism; ethical culture; Dark Personality.

Introduction:

Boddy et al. (2015: 530), reported on the ‘a rise of psychopathic managers as toxic and bullying leaders within organisations [as an issue] in western capitalist societies’. Although toxic leadership is seen an increasingly prominent theme in contemporary Organisational Theory, it remains an under-researched area in the discourse relating to educational leadership in England, and in particular the Sixth Form College sector. Einarsen et al. (2007) argue that ‘little research and theory development has addressed destructive leadership behaviours and the potential negative effects of such behaviours’. This paper aims to explore teachers’ perceptions of leadership toxicity, focusing particularly on the concept of ‘dark personality’, as well as its possible causes.

Introduction to the issue- a perceived phenomenon of organisational life:

In an extensive study of business practices in the UK two leading professional bodies, The Institute of Leadership and Management (ILM) and Business in the Community (BITC) sought to ‘ask business leaders and managers about their own values, the values of the organisations they work for and any ethical dilemmas they have faced in the workplace (May and Pardey, 2013). The research methodology incorporated a range of methods such as telephone calling, multiple choice and open-ended questionnaires involving 1174 managers from both the public and private sector. The results were stark: ‘63% of the managers we surveyed say that they have been asked to do something contrary to their own ethical code at some point in their career, while 43% of managers have been told to behave in direct violation of their organisation’s own values statements, and 9% had been asked to break the law’ (May and Pardey, 2013: 2). Moreover, although 83% of participants reported that their organisation had a published statement of values, 53% of managers rated their own ethical standards as being higher than that of their organisation, and 28% felt worried about reporting malpractice (May and Pardey, 2012: 2). Clearly, there are issues relating to the validity and adherence of values statements in such organisations. Importantly, as (May and Pardey, 2013: 2) recognise ‘this management disconnect between the top and the bottom of an organisation reflects how difficult it is to engage lower level managers with values, and also how hard it is for managers to translate their organisation’s values across their teams’. This report highlights the centrality of cultural values to the discourse on leadership effectiveness and the ethical workplace, as well as the role of leadership in inculcating ethical standards of behaviour.

Introduction to the concept:

In addition to being studied as a concept by organisation theorists (Einarsen et al, 2007; Walton, 2007), toxic leadership has been researched in a variety of occupational contexts such as: British and American corporate business (Lipman-Blumen, 2005a, 2005b), nursing (Speedy, 2005; Murray, 2010) and the United States’ (US) military (Williams, 2005; Reed, 2008), as well as in education (Mahlangu, 2014). Over the last decade or so, interest in dysfunctional leadership behaviours have grown as researchers have chosen to reflect on catastrophic failures in corporate management ranging from Enron Corporation in the United States during 2001, the Stafford Hospital scandal after 2007 - in which 400 patients died because of poor management and a lack of accountability- and the Credit Crunch post 2008. At the heart of much of the research has been

the observation that ‘we may do well to consider workplace dysfunction and toxicity as normal- rather than as abnormal- phenomena of modern organisational life’ (Walton, 2007: 19).

According to Lipman-Blumen (2005b) toxic leadership can be discerned in:

Those individuals who, by virtue of their destructive behaviours and their dysfunctional personal qualities or characteristics, inflict serious and enduring harm on the individuals, groups, organisations, communities and even the nations that they lead. Reflecting on toxic leadership in the US army, Reed (2008:67) offered three defining characteristics of toxic leadership: an apparent lack of concern for subordinates, inadequate skills in developing effective inter-personal relations and a perception of the leader as self-interested. According to Travanti (2011:129-131), ‘in general, toxic leaders are characterised by fighting and controlling rather than uplifting and inspiring. They like to succeed by tearing others down’.

The concept of toxic leadership is closely tied to a particular personality type of ‘dark personality’. Importantly, however, Schyns (2015: 4) makes a useful point in the discussion on toxicity in organisational life: Toxic leaders and toxic leadership are not the same: toxic leaders are those with dark personality traits, but in order for toxic leadership to thrive, other conditions need to be met as well’. So, although the issue of dark personality will inevitably be at the forefront of the discussion, the environmental conditions and organisational cultures that tolerate dark personality must also be explored. Dark personality traits were defined by Paulhus and Williams (2002) as narcissism, Machiavellianism and psychopathy, and according to Schyns (2015: 2) these ‘traits are distinct, yet overlap, and are characterised by indifference and dominance’.

According to Boddy et al, (2013: 533), research is arguably moving towards a consensus that narcissism is the ‘lightest’ of the triad and that while Machiavellianism and psychopathy are very similar, psychopaths are the ‘darkest’ of the three personalities’. The table below summarises some of the key themes relating to dark personality that have been identified in the literature.

Term	Research	Features
Narcissism	Raskin and Terry, 1988 Babiak and Hare, 2006 Godkin and Allcorn, 2011 Stein, 2013	Self-centred perspective Exploitative and destructive
Machiavellianism	Paulhaus and Williams, 2002 Jones and Paulhaus, 2008	Without conscience, selfish and instrumental in dealing with others
Psychopathy	Smith and Lilienfeld, 2013 Boddy, 2013	Superficial charm, a risk taker, and a lack of guilt for failure Capacity for self-presentation; lying and manipulation of others

Table 1. An overview of research on dark personality.

Importantly, Schyns (2015: 10) considers that ‘some dark personality traits are conducive to performance... however, we need to keep in mind that there is a difference between dark personality leading to dark behaviour and the strategic use of dark behaviour to achieve goals’. Certainly, some traits of dark behaviour such as an excessive attention to perfectionism can be used to achieve higher standards at work, but herein is a fundamental issue. How far should organisations tolerate manifestations of dark personality?

Travanti (2011: 131) offers three typical managerial approaches that share similarities with dark personality, described as: the toxic micromanager, the toxic narcissist and the toxic bully. The toxic micromanager is typified by an excessive control over sub-ordinates and, in so doing, displays a lack of trust in their colleagues. The toxic narcissist, on the other hand, is more concerned with their own performance and ego, whilst the toxic bully manages other through fear. It is clear that the term ‘toxicity’ can be applied to a range of behaviours. For Schmidt (2008) it is possible to arrange these behaviours into a spectrum of leadership that includes abusive supervision, authoritarian leadership, narcissism, self-promotion, and unpredictability. Although it may be possible to identify a mode of behaviour as toxic, the issue of how to isolate the individual’s behaviour patterns outside that of the organisation and its culture is more problematic. As Tavanti (2011: 134) acknowledges, ‘toxic leaders usually thrive in toxic organisations’. For Cheang and Appelbaum (2013: 165), ‘organisations must therefore adapt its practices to both identify and manage employees who present with, or have tendencies towards, corporate psychopathy’.

Ardichvili et al. (2010: 256), recognise that unethical behaviour is a function of individual and contextual factors that relate to the concept of organisational culture. Moreover, it is clear that different occupational cultures exist between the military, the health and education systems and the world of corporate business, with their own professional code of ethics and values systems in place. Despite this qualification, all organisations possess an institutional culture that is the product of the external climate, the professional context, as well as the outcomes of social interaction between employees. Organisational culture, then, may be defined as the sum of basic assumptions, expectations, values and behavioural norms that are shared between members on an on-going basis. Organisational cultures could be sub-divided into formalised corporate features and the more informal or social behaviours. Whereas corporate features could be recognised in organisational hierarchies, policy documentation and the clear demarcation of work roles, social behaviours relate to norms, rituals and language. Importantly, as Trevino (1994) recognises, ‘Organisations possessing ethical cultures create and maintain a shared pattern of values, customs, practices, and expectations which dominate normative behaviour in the organisation’. In sum, we should not aim to isolate the concept of toxic leadership from the prevailing cultural norms within an organisation, and indeed from the wider environmental climate within which organisations exist.

The toxic triangle:

For Walton (2007: 25) ‘a combination of toxic leaders, vulnerable and demeaned followers, and conducive contexts results in an unhealthy ‘toxic triangle’ threatening the health and vitality of those within its bounds’. Although the idea of the toxic triangle is clearly tied to the concept

of destructive leadership, the real value of this model is to be found in its reference to followership. Importantly, as Padilla et al. (2007:182) recognise, ‘followers have been studied less often than leaders, yet their role in the leadership process is obviously pivotal’. Contemporary relational theory (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) acknowledges the importance of followership to leadership and aims to explore and understand the inherent power-relations within such relationships. Given the hierarchical nature of organisational life and the asynchronous distribution of power therein, the existence of vulnerable or susceptible followers should not be a surprise. For Padilla et al. (2007:183) this social relationship led to the creation of two types of follower: the conformer and the colluder. As Padilla et al (2007:183) describe, ‘both types are motivated by self-interest, but their concerns are different: conformers try to minimise the consequences of not going along while colluders seek personal gain through association with a destructive leader’. This attempt at describing the strategic positioning of workers is reflecting elsewhere in the literature in relation to the education system.

The institutional context: what are Sixth Form Colleges, and what role do they perform? The institutional context and increasingly marketised environment within which Sixth Form Colleges exist are important conditioning factors in the definition of work roles and responsibilities and therefore impact on the debate over toxicity in leadership. The post-compulsory sector in England is a diverse collection of different institutional types: ranging from the large General Further Education Colleges (GFECs), Sixth Form Colleges (SFCs), to agricultural colleges and residential colleges for disabled people and for those with learning difficulties. By far the largest provider of post-16 education and training both in terms of size and number are GFECs; these colleges are principally concerned with the delivery of vocational programmes, skills training and adult education provision in its broadest sense, and can cater for tens of thousands of students across several sites. The second major type of college is the SFC, which is principally concerned with preparing their students for university entrance. There are currently 93 SFCs in England compared to 222 GFECs, SFCs are smaller with around 1,200 - 2,500 students and offer a much narrower curriculum centred around GCE Advanced and other Level 3 courses. Although GFECs and SFCs now exist as legally separate sectors, they do compete with schools in many areas for the 16-19 GCE A Level market that prepares students for university entrance.

Since the enactment of the Apprenticeship, Skills, Children and Learning Act (ASCL) in 2010, SFCs have been relocated into a separate sector to reflect their distinct mission and professional identity. Historically, teachers in SFCs have viewed themselves as possessing a distinctive professional status in relation to their line managers. Lumby (2002, 2003) suggests that SFCs have developed along a different evolutionary path compared to other educational institutions, such as the GFECs, and have maintained a professionally-based, learner-centred culture that echoes their origins in the school sector. This cultural context has important implications for how teachers relate to their work and professional status, with those in the SFC sector viewing managers as one half in a professional partnership of colleagues.

The third element within the ‘toxic triangle’ is that of the conducive environment. The period since the early 1990s has witnessed a major change in the nature of teachers’ work and their

professional status. This transformation of teacher professionalism has been engineered through the imposition of new expectations by Central Government. An audit culture has been imposed on the profession through the systems associated with New Public Management (NPM) that enables toxic line managers to display 'dark' behaviours. Professionalism has been redefined by Government, as has been recognised for some years (Bottery 1996; Beck 1999; Ball 2003), and reworked into the concept of 'professionalism' (Gunter 2002, 146) and 'performativity' (Ball, 2003). Teachers are increasingly required to adhere to the rules imposed by line managers: being professional is increasingly becoming defined in terms of conformity and subordination and measured through data analysis of students' results, lesson observations and compliance to the practice of New Public Management. It also infers acceptance of a new type of 'assertive' managerialism that challenges the collaborative approach of the past.

Professionalism cannot be dissociated from the self and the ethical framework within which it is constructed. In recent years, the ethical treatment of workers has come to the fore as senior leaders in the private and public sectors seek to demonstrate their 'corporate social responsibility' and limit instances of dark personality amongst middle management. Take, for example, the idea of developing 'emotional intelligence' and the promotion of 'well-being' health programmes, which were identified as areas for management training in some sixth form colleges. Such approaches may be cited as being positive steps to tackle toxicity within educational organisations. However, Cheang and Appelbaum (2013: 166) highlight the ever-present responsibilities of organisational leaders in inculcating an appropriate managerial culture and addressing instances of deviant behaviours. Whether this approach is effective remains open to debate. Critical theory approaches to ethics at work reject the idea of an abstract corporate responsibility and emphasise the need to establish ethical practice at both individual level and that of wider society (Wray-Bliss 2011). In contrast to mainstream technical-rationalism and the idea of the uniform worker, critical theory asserts that there are many dimensions to the 'self at work', as well as positioned identities. For critical theorists, management control is exercised in both this process of identity formation to re-engineer human behaviour, professional identity and self-worth (Thomas, 2011). Such a process of indoctrination is inherently complex and may involve individual complicity as well as some resistance, but it is nevertheless powerful and fundamentally unethical. For those managers with a disposition towards toxic behaviours, an environment that is based on legitimated control offers opportunities for micro-management, narcissistic behaviour, or even bullying.

Leadership as a relational construct: asymmetrical power, professional identity and trust For Peters and Waterman (1982: 245), the real role of leadership is to manage the values of an organisation. The research undertaken by May and Pardey (2013) highlighted the importance of embedding a values-based outlook within the organisational culture at all levels. As Gini (2010: 346) recognised, ethical behaviour is essentially a form of 'reflective conduct'- we often mould our behaviour to that of our environment. The absence of a values-based organisational culture is a major factor in the emergence of toxicity. Although Rawls (1985) argued that ethics is fundamental to collective life and serves as the basis of justice and equity, Fox (1994) questions its universality. In both Fox (1994), in his analysis of American business, and Ball's view of English education (2003:211), modern professionals display a form of 'values schizophrenia',

that according to Freeman (1992) is the result of ‘the problem of two realms’: the business and ethical world clashing. This dualism mirrors the thoughts of Habermas and the distinction between the domesticity of the ‘life world’ and the ‘system world’ (Habermas, 1989) The term ‘system’ is used to describe the formalised mechanisms of social control that exist, such as the civil service and agencies of the modern capitalist state. Importantly, for Habermas, although the ‘life world’ may be inherently conservative, in that it is involved in cultural reproduction, it is characterised by relatively high levels of individual freedom and collective co-operation. In contrast, the ‘system’ is typified by control and oppression. Habermas (1989) argues that the modern state has created a dysfunctional system in which individuals are denuded of their individual autonomy, with their ethical framework re-engineered in order to meet the needs of late capitalism. For Habermas (1989) this process corresponds to a form of ‘demoralisation’ in which civic and personal ethics are distorted. In order to counter this ‘demoralisation’ of society and the amoral organisational management, Habermas (1989) calls for a fundamental review of how we interact with others. For Habermas’ (1989) thesis to be validated by the research, the data would need to highlight a deterministic role for NPM in engineering certain dark behaviours.

The interaction between professionals at work is predicated on the presumption and practise of trust. Importantly, for Mahlangu (2014:313), ‘toxic leadership destroys a basic human sense of trust that is critical for working relationships, and effective leadership in schools’. For Brian (1998: 404) ‘trust is assumed necessarily as the basis of a personal membership of the professional community and it is a norm that guides professional life’. Importantly, we should acknowledge that trust at work is evident in asymmetrical relationships that are governed by hierarchical line management systems. Moreover, for Brian (1998: 398) this form of relationship is also psychological in nature with the subordinate accepting a legitimated form of personal vulnerability to another. In general, professionals accept line management because it promises organisational efficiency and clear lines of authority, and implicitly this situated form of vulnerability. Research has suggested that institutional-wide trust in leaders is an important factor in raising students’ achievements (Wahlstrom and Seashore Louis, 2008:482) and in leading innovation (Ellonen et al. 2008: 165). Trust, it seems, is not only a feature of professionalism but a pre-condition for improving organisational performance.

There are, however, potential dangers associated with asymmetrical power relations based on trust. Trust operates in subtle and complex ways. Not only can trust exist in powerful affective and cognitive forms (Young and Mossholder, 2010: 50), but in two further dimensions: the impersonal and personal. Whereas we can recognise the impersonal dimension to trust is predicated on formalised work-based systems, personal trust is founded in the psychological construct fashioned by individuals at work. It is within this second dimension- the personal- that space exists for toxic behaviours to develop. In recent years, Governments across the globe have pressed for the practise of transformational models of leadership as a means of moving institutions to higher levels of performance (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1991; Leithwood, 1992; Leithwood, 1994). Implicit within such models is the alignment and psychological conditioning of teachers according to the vision enunciated by a charismatic leader. Although servant and authentic models of educational leadership (Stoten, 2013; Stoten, 2014) offer an alternative to

the technical-rationalist theory that is based on moral authority, there are potential dangers tied to charismatic leadership. Tourish (2013) has highlighted the potential dangers associated with inauthentic forms of transformational leadership where dysfunctional charisma and organisational culture combine to create cult-like behaviours. Furthermore, for Tourish (2013) not only is the concept of transformational leadership flawed, it may also serve to legitimise the over-concentration of organisational power in a select few.

Research methodology:

The position of the researcher was complicated by the fact that the author undertook the research for this paper whilst serving as a 'teacher-manager' in the SFC sector. Although this enabled convenience sampling to take place, it necessitated the recognition of the peculiarities of undertaking practitioner-based research with close colleagues. In particular, the ethical dimension to this form of research required that assurances were provided that respected participant anonymity and protection. For the researcher who adopts a Habermasian methodology, the research tools used are conditioned by the particular philosophical and ethical stance taken by the researcher. Kincheloe and McLaren (2003) describe how that research should have some 'catalytic validity' in that it is used to inform the improvement of the social world. In contrast to positivist research methodology, a Habermasian researcher rejects the objectivist view of knowledge and values-free research. For Habermas (1984/1987), all knowledge is the product of social construction and is therefore open to competing 'validity claims', which reflect differing positions in contemporary society. Burr (2003: 159) describes alternative claims such as usefulness, fruitfulness and soundness to those such as reliability, validity and transferability that are recommended by positivist researchers. Habermas (1984/1987) advocated a correspondence theory of knowledge formation and truth in which dominant ideas permeate society and distort its values. In response to this epistemological hegemony, Habermas (1984/1987) called for an inter-subjective dialogue between participants eased on equity. In so doing, the research should, it was anticipated, produce richer, in-depth insights into perspectives on work and toxic behaviours.

The research was conducted in two stages. The first stage involved a preliminary 'pilot' questionnaire that was sub-divided into four sections that was distributed to 20 teachers at a single institution. Section one contained a number of 10 statements that elicited a response from the participant using a Likert scale from 1-5. This series of 10 statements related to typical behaviours of toxic leaders, such as: 'X tended to display little concern for the well-being of others', 'X tended to leave others after a meeting feeling worse off', and 'X tended to control others through fear'. This series of 10 statements was then followed by section 2 where there was an opportunity for participants to make open-response comments. Section three offered 7 statements that called for a 'yes', 'no' or 'no response' answer- such as 'Have you ever been asked by a line manager to go against your own personal values? As well as 'How confident would you feel in reporting an ethical breach at work?'. These statements were drawn from the research undertaken by May and Pardey (2013) and sought to correlate the responses from two sectors to identify areas of commonality or difference. The fourth section offered participants the opportunity to express their views on whether they felt organisational leaders behaved ethically.

The second stage to the research involved an additional 53 discussions based on Habermas' (1984/1987) ideas of the 'ideal speech situation', as described above. The purpose of the 'research conversation' was to elicit much more developed thoughts from teachers with neither researcher nor participant dominating or leading the conversation. Often with such conversations, new and intriguing avenues open-up for exploration, although for a minority, these discussions led to a dead-end where it became evident that the root of a problem has been little more than a personality clash. The key to understanding the meaning of these research conversations is to identify key issues through effective coding of responses. Themes that emerged repeatedly and were of some importance were coded and clustered together into more manageable areas for analysis. This approach drew upon the methodological approach of Miles and Huberman (1994:17), in which they recommend an iterative approach that started with 'some orienting ideas' that could be categorised into thematic 'bins'. This process of sifting codes led to 'three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing' Miles and Huberman (1994:10).

There are limitations to this form of practitioner-based research exercise. In particular, the sample size was relatively small, with 73 teachers surveyed from only four SFCs. The sample size also tended to include a disproportionately larger proportion of main scale teachers and middle managers than senior leaders. In this sense, the sample had been limiting in terms of drawing conclusions. Although the findings are not transferable to the education system as a whole, the research did highlight a significant level of discontent within the SFC sector and unease with aspects of the approach taken by senior management. The main outcome of this paper is to highlight the existence of toxicity in the SFC sector and to serve as a 'catalytic agent' for change.

Findings:

There were a number of important findings that emerged from the research. In terms of section 1 and its 10 statements, the results generated are presented as an average on the Likert scale 1- 5, with 1 being very often and 5 very rarely:

1. X tended to display little concern for the well-being for others	2.1
2. X tended to micro-manage rather than empower sub-ordinates	2.0
3. X tended to be motivated by self-interest	2.0
4. X tended to generate a negative climate	1.6
5. X tended to leave others after a meeting feeling worse off	1.6
6. X tended to undermine others' dignity	1.9
7. X tended to spin news to serve their own interests	1.8
8. X was regarded as highly competent in achieving desired outcomes	2.0
9. X tended to be driven by their own ego rather than objective plans	2.2
10. X tended to control others through fear	1.7

Table 1. The data generated from section 1 in the questionnaire

This data suggests that statement 9 and 1 were the least well recognised as leadership behaviours, closely followed by statements 2, 3 and 8. The most common form of leader behaviours were described in statements 4 and 5, followed closely by statement 10. All three statements 4, 5 and 10 infer that toxic behaviours have a significant affective impact on teachers.

The feedback from section two provided some insights into the real-life experiences of teachers:

N, a middle-aged female English and Philosophy teacher with 18 years experience:

‘In a departmental meetings this manager used to use people’s full names rather than the names they preferred- so Vicky was Victoria and Dave was David. This tiny detail made the staff feel powerless and belittled but it was impossible to complain without seeming petty and foolish, subtle stuff!’

P, a lately-retired male Mathematics teacher with 30 years experience:

[When reflecting on the cause of toxicity] ‘I would say that the personality of the ‘toxic leader’ is probably the most likely cause, but perhaps the pressures acting on the system bring out this type of leadership!’

J, a very experienced male teacher of History with 35 years experience:

[Reporting on the behaviour of a toxic leader] ‘Naming and shaming subjects at staff meeting’ [and its cause] ‘Pressures are a factor, but personality is important. There is always a choice...’

S, a female Archaeology teacher with 21 years of experience:

[Described her experience of toxic leaders as:] Aggressive verbal instructions issued with no witness; unrealistic demands- just do it rather than support and guidance; constant stream of negatives emails to staff.

J, a male Geography teacher with 29 years of teaching experience:

‘Toxic leadership is where senior management create an environment of fear through which others are blamed for their failings. An environment in which little or no support is given to members of staff... I think poor management skills, large egos and protecting themselves are the main issues concerning toxic leadership which is partly caused by the education system.... I don’t feel the education system can be blamed as an entirety though it is a factor. I believe it is individuals, who are either incompetent or have no basic man management skills, who are the key.’

A, a male Politics teacher with 19 years experience:

‘They overloaded me- I was exhausted by the combination of management jobs and my teaching- it almost drove me to a breakdown’.

These comments are typical of the responses that were generated by section two of the questionnaire. Importantly, although the importance of the education system as a causal factor is recognised by many, it is the personal qualities of line managers and their inter-personal skills that emerge as central to the discussion on toxic leadership.

Section three aimed to establish any correlation between the findings from the education system and that generated by May and Pardey (2013) in the commercial world. The statements generated the following data:

1. Have you ever been asked [by a line manager] to go against your own personal values? Education: Yes [80%] No [10%] No answer [10%] Business: Yes [63%]
2. Have you ever been asked [by a line manager] to go against the organisation's values? Education: Yes [30%] No [50%] No answer [20%] Business: Yes [43%]
3. Is there a statement of organisational values at your workplace? Education: Yes [70%] No [10%] No answer [20%] Business: Yes [83%]
4. Were you involved in drafting the values of your organisation? Education: Yes [10%] No [90%] No answer [0%] Business: Yes [50%]
5. In general, do your colleagues follow the organisation's values? Education: Yes [50%] No [20%] No answer [30%] Business: Yes [84%] (management level)
6. How confident would you feel in reporting an ethical breach at work? Education: Yes [20%] No [50%] No answer [30%] Business: Yes [44%]
7. Do you feel any conflict between your organisation's values and your own? Education: Yes [80%] No [20%] No answer [1%] Business: Yes [58%] No [41%]

Table 2. Data generated from section 3 of the questionnaire.

Discussion:

Interestingly, it would seem from statements 1 and 2 in section 3 of the questionnaire that there is some basis in considering that there is a 'crisis of ethics' in the workplace. In education, it appears that this crisis of ethics is more pronounced than in business with a significant majority reporting an ethical dilemma in statement 1. Indeed, it is clear that a majority of respondents in both the education and business sectors have experienced some form of conflict over values. Clearly, there are benefits in terms of organisational coherence for all employees to be involved in the drafting of the values statement, especially in relation to the education sector where there is a clear ethic of public service and care. Importantly, however, statements 3 and 4 suggest that although professionals are aware of corporate mission statements and organisational values, they are not always involved in the process of drafting such documentation. Unless all employees are included as part of the process of agreement over a set of organisational values, there will remain the possibility of dissent or ignorance within the workforce. Interestingly, statement 5 indicated only half of teachers believed that their colleagues adhered to their organisation's values compared with a much higher figure for business. This is a major concern as it infers a lack of coherence within the organisation's culture, and may reflect more profound concerns relating to

Government policy on education. Perhaps the most illuminating data was generated from statement 6 and 7; whereas a majority are in some form of conflict with the values of the organisation, few are prepared to act as a whistleblower. Finally, in section four of the questionnaire, teachers reported concerns with intimidation, the threat of redundancy and reactive decision-making. In general, however, most teachers felt that most leaders did try to practise professional standards albeit that their behaviour was occasionally flawed.

The views of teachers generated through co-constructed conversations developed stories of toxic leaders. The key themes that emerged from these conversations revolved around: the emotional impact of insensitive managers, the imposition of unfair or unrealistic demands, the impact of New Public Management techniques (NPM) and the absence of protection. Although there was recognition of the impact of managerial pressures on teachers, most sought to allocate the responsibility for toxicity to individual leaders rather than blame the education system as such. These findings would suggest that teachers identify NPM as a contextual factor in the manifestation of toxic behaviours but not as a pivotal causal factor. This observation echoes much of the literature on dark personality discussed elsewhere (Schyns, 2015) and infers that many of the behaviours identified correspond more with those characteristics associated with narcissistic self-interest and the micro-politics of institutional life rather than psychopathy. In this respect, we could tentatively think in terms of toxic leadership in 'lighter' (Boddy, 2015) terms in the case of educational institutions than has been the case of some 'darker' business organisations where psychopathy was embedded, as in the case of Enron.

There is also a clear need to address the role of individual leader figures in relation to toxicity, for as Cheang and Appelbaum (2015: 166) recognise, 'an important influence on the performance of an organisation derives from its managerial culture [and] the personality at the top manager since his/her personality will most greatly impact the managerial culture... and an organisation is largely driven by its leaders'. The data infers that senior leaders do need to revisit the manner in which they espouse the values of the organisation and engage more proactively with fellow professionals. Although senior leaders do not appear to engage in a policy of toxic behaviours, they remain responsible for addressing the issue among middle managers who interact more often with teaching staff. This research mirrors the findings of Ghadi and Fernando (2013) in which they argue that employees' positive attitudes to work can be reinforced or undermined by leadership behaviours.

The impact of toxic leadership behaviours on work engagement is therefore an important economic as well as moral issue which must be addressed. As Cohen (1993) recognised, organisational cultures are a combination of formal and informal components that interact to set social norms and expectations of behaviour. Ardichvili et al. (2010: 357) observed that 'an ethical culture is associated with a structure that provides for equally distributed authority and shared accountability. It also has policies such as an ethical code of conduct that is... enforced'. In terms of the formal components of an organisational culture, effective action may be taken through inclusive and thorough policy-making that embeds appropriate behaviours for all employees. Once this formal structure is in place, it is more likely that informal components will fall into line with established expectations. The findings from this study suggest that although

policies may be in place, these are not always embedded fully and acted upon. Such an observation should encourage organisational leaders to review the effectiveness of their policy statements and their implementation.

For some observers, such as Uhl-Bien and Carsten (2010: 367), toxicity is inherently linked to the traditional bureaucratic, top-down model of leadership. For such observers, a move to distributed forms of leadership that is based on the premise of shared leadership ‘promotes responsible leadership and accountability [and in doing so helps]... maintain ethicality’ (Uhl-Bien and Carsten, 2010: 368). Although superficially the dispersal of leadership may appear appealing, it should not be undertaken without appropriate training of employees. If not, we could not guarantee that toxicity would not spread to, or indeed emerge from, lower levels within the organisation. Finally, we should look to empowering all employees with the power of ‘upward ethical leadership’ Uhl-Bien and Carsten (2010: 371) wherein employees are encouraged through appropriate channels to challenge toxicity pro-actively. Such a position not only requires courage on behalf of employees but also recognisable and safe procedures for combating toxicity. Although procedures do exist within the SFC sector to complain about inappropriate behaviours, little empirical research has been undertaken to investigate the scale of complaints.

Conclusion:

This study of the experiences of Sixth Form College teachers reflected research reported elsewhere in the business environment in the USA (Gini, 2010; Ghadi and Fernando, 2013) and UK (May and Pardey, 2013) as well nursing (Speedy, 2005; Murray, 2010) and the military (Williams, 2005; Reed, 2008). As such it would appear that there is a problem in post-industrial organisational life. In specific terms, the problem that appears to exist across sectors and nations is one of excessive and unaccountable power that is held in the hands of particular types of people. In part, this problem is the result of the concentration of legitimate power within the managerial cadre and, as Boddy (2015) notes, those with psychopathic tendencies are drawn disproportionately to positions of organisational power. This bureaucratisation of organisational life was recognised early in the twentieth century by Weber as creating new social norms and social affiliation that ‘reduces every worker to a cog in this bureaucratic machine and, seeing himself in this light, he will merely ask how to transform himself... to a bigger cog...’ (Weber, 1994). In part then, one root cause of toxicity is to found in the nature of late modern organisations and in the people who manage.

This study also echoed the debate over whether socio-genic or bio-genic drivers are primarily responsible for toxicity within organisations. For Critical Theorist thinkers, such as Juergen Habermas (1984-1987), societal ills such as toxicity and the demoralisation are the result of late capitalist economic relations and the lack of democratic transparency in the workplace. Although this paper acknowledges the deleterious impact of New Public Management on teachers and an audit culture of their daily work, it suggests that toxicity is largely attributable to the failings of individuals and organisational systems rather than a direct consequence of NPM. Further research should be undertaken into what personality types are attracted to positions of power and

how these personality types relate to toxic forms of behaviour, as well as comparing organisational types both in the Public and Private sector for toxicity.

Finally, this paper suggests that leaders should display ‘process integrity’ (Ardichvili et al., 2010:362) as role models for the organisation as a whole. This invective requires all managers who hold some responsibility over others to behave in an exemplary fashion and display ethical behaviours at work. Furthermore, this paper contributes to the existing research in other organisational sectors that suggests leaders work to embed ethical standards within their organisation’s culture. In education, this should not be such a challenge as in other sectors, as there already exists the ethic of care and a professional code of behaviour. The challenge for leaders in colleges is to inculcate a values-based system that celebrates colleagues as fellow professionals and that encourages ‘whistle-blowing’. This is a significant challenge for many managers as their position of legitimate power enables them to exercise both ‘legitimate’ and ‘coercive power’ over colleagues based on their ‘expert status’ and professional trust within the organisational hierarchy (French and Raven, 1959).

Organisational development in the twentieth-first century will be determined by a multitude of factors, not least the example provided by institutional leaders. In those postmodern organisations (Clegg, 1999; Clegg et al. 2005) that display a de-layered organisational structure and promote flexible work roles, it may well be easier to inculcate a reformed organisational culture that is based on mutual respect, trust and professional support. Distributed forms of leadership, however, may be a short-sighted solution to toxicity and a recipe for extended forms of work for little reward (Fitzgerald and Gunter, 2006; Lumby, 2013), or indeed, merely recruit more inappropriate people into managing others. In those late modern organisations, such as educational institutions, that persist and are predicated on the exercise of asymmetric power-relations, effective measures need to be implemented that identifies, tackles and ends toxicity. This imperative requires sustained and genuine commitment on behalf of Government, employment sectors, organisations, and especially enlightened individuals.

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Title:

Determinants of Entrepreneurial Intentions: Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) Students in Sri Lanka

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Abstract:

This study has explored the determinants of entrepreneurial intention of Technical Vocational Education and Training (TVET) students in Sri Lanka. The research model is comprised of seven independent variables i.e. entrepreneurial attitude, perceived self-efficacy, social capital, demographic factors, perceived financial support, perceived regulatory support and perceived technical vocational education and training and dependent variable of entrepreneurial intention. The primary data was collected through administering structured questionnaire among hundred twenty eight TVET students represented by three TVET sector institutions in Sri Lanka. Linear regression was applied to test the hypotheses. Findings of the study revealed a positive and significant impact of the variables of entrepreneurial attitudes and perceived technical vocational education and training on entrepreneurial intention of TVET students of Sri Lanka. TVET student attitudes pertaining to entrepreneurship intention are positive since they perceive that TVET enhance their entrepreneurship education and this is very important to the policy makers in entrepreneurship development to initiate effective strategies to foster entrepreneurship for TVET students.

Key Words:

Entrepreneurial Intension, TVET sector, Self-efficacy, Entrepreneurial attitude

Introduction

Fostering entrepreneurship is a key prerequisite for economic development and it is important in knowledge creation for policy makers and decision makers pertaining to the field of entrepreneurship. It is widely accepted that behaviour of entrepreneurship as a planned behaviour and intension is referred as the best predictor of planned behaviour (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993). Although entrepreneurial intension and its determinants have been widely discussed, only few studies have been done regarding the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students. However technical students have much potential for fostering entrepreneurial skills and development of entrepreneurship is the key objective of the TVET sector (Buli & Yesuf, 2015).

The significant improvements in macro-economic conditions in the world, especially in the European markets, had favourably influenced the Sri Lankan economy. According to the statistics of Central Bank of Sri Lanka (2015) there is a 7.8% economic growth which generates favourable opportunities for the Sri Lankan industries, locally as well as internationally. The growth momentum of the country's economy is also reflected by the lower unemployment rate of 4% and the inflation rate around 6%. Moreover, infrastructure development is continuously taking place which is also a favourable condition for entrepreneurship development. Even though the economy is growing and the industries are expanding, young individuals are still struggling to find job opportunities that best fit with their qualifications. It is critical among young educated individuals since they make up the third highest unemployment category in the country. Conferring to the annual report in labour force survey (Department of Census and Statistics, 2015), the majority among unemployed are the new entrants to job market or new job seekers, who are in the age group 15 – 24. This is known as youth unemployment and the all Island youth unemployment rate is 20.3 %. Moreover, young individuals in the informal employment category also account for a third of the total workforce (Department of Census and Statistics, 2015).

The Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) sector is one of the major areas which contribute to develop and enrich the competencies in the young generation, not only to make them technicians, but also to make competent entrepreneurs. The Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) sector in Sri Lanka comprises of 417 TVET canters in 2015, including both private and public owned and accredited in Tertiary and Vocational educational commission. In 2015, the total number of students registered in TVET institutions are 173,421 for 1128 courses (National Skills development report, 2015). Entrepreneurship development and entrepreneurial intension are the areas that have been discussed extensively in the academic sector and it has been discussed in various aspects regarding the relationship between the factors of influencing in entrepreneurial intension (Buli & Yesuf, 2015; Kruger & Carsrud, 1993; Turker & Selcuk, 2008). The intension based models becomes more helpful in understanding the practical insight of any planned behaviour such as entrepreneurship behaviour than individual or situational variables (Kruger, Reilly & Carsrud , 2000). Luthje & Frank (2003) & Schwarz, Wdowiak, Almer-Jarz & Breitenacker, (2009) have emphasised the prominent role of attitude in cultivation entrepreneur intention among the students. Kruger and Carsrud (1993) have directed research about intentionality with more potential and testable antecedents such as demographic, social, cultural and financial support in future research in entrepreneur intension. Various intention-based models have been developed by the researchers from different perspectives. Furthermore, Theory of Planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991) and Model of the Entrepreneur Event (Shapero & Sokol, 1982) are the most common models used. Some other researchers also had proposed models

during the past few years (Luthje and Frank, 2003; Urban & Kujinga, 2017; Marques, Ferreira, Gomes, & Gouveia, 2012; Schwarz et al, 2009). However, the model which has been developed in current research is comprehensive with psychological, social and environmental factors towards the entrepreneurial intension. Therefore, we attempt to capture this gap through the present research via identifying antecedents of entrepreneurial intension in a more comprehensive manner including psychological, social and environmental context. Therefore, the purpose of this research is to examine the determinants of entrepreneurial intensions of TVET students in Sri Lanka.

Research objectives:

1. To examine the current entrepreneur intension of the technical students of Sri Lanka
2. To understand the influence of personal factors related to entrepreneurs on entrepreneurial intention among the technical students of Sri Lanka.
3. To understand the influence of environmental related factors on entrepreneur intension among the technical students of Sri Lanka.

Literature Review:Entrepreneurial intension

Entrepreneurship is mostly a psychological process which entails creativity and conceptualization. It is the way of thinking towards to identifying opportunities. Therefore, it is so, that is clearly an intentional process and therefore it is important to understand the entrepreneurial intentions in order to understand, explain and predict the entrepreneurial process.

Kruger et al (2000) have identified intensions as the single best predictor of any planned behaviour, including entrepreneurship. Bird defines intentionality more clearly as a state of mind of a particular person's attention towards a specific goal or path in order to achieve something (Misra & Kumar, 2000). Therefore, an intention depicts how hard people are willing to try, or how much of an effort they are planning to exert, in order to perform the behaviour. Entrepreneurial intention is the initial step of the long journey of the process of entrepreneurship and this can be described as the individual's conscious state of mind which stimulate the person to make a firm and strong decision to become an entrepreneur (Lee and Wong, 2004; Liñán and Chen, 2009; Moriano, Gorgievski, Laguna, Stephan, & Zarafshani, 2012). Consequently, entrepreneurial behaviour is planned or intentional and it is best predicted by intensions towards the behaviour not by other factors either personal or demographic (Ajzen, 1991; Kruger et al., 2000).

Determinants of entrepreneurial intension

Theory of planned behaviour provides the basic framework to determine the influencing factors for entrepreneurial intension and behaviour. Attitudes towards behaviour, subjective norm and perceived behavioural control are the determinants of the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). According to the Model of Entrepreneurial behaviour presented by Misra & Kumar (2000), two main factors which influence entrepreneur behaviour are named as background factors which include demographic characteristics and psychological characteristics of the entrepreneur. Family background, birth order, age, educational level of

the parents, sex, marital status, previous work experience are the variable of demographic characteristics and achievement motive, locus of control, risk taking, and values are the psychological characteristics. As explained by the Misra & Kumar (2000), entrepreneurial intension is influenced by the attitude towards the entrepreneurship which is mediated by situational factors.

As per the theory of planned behaviour, attitudes have a significant and direct impact on intension (Ajzen, 1991) and attitudes towards the entrepreneurship become the key factor that contributes to the entrepreneurial intention in technical students (Luthje & Franke, 2003). Furthermore, the model of entrepreneurial intension concludes the positive causal relationship among the entrepreneurial experiences to attitudes and for entrepreneurial intention (Devonish et al, 2010). Luthje & Franke, (2003) further elaborate the relationship between the attitudes towards the entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial intent, with four constructs to predict the propensity to start a new venture; namely risk taking propensity, the locus of control, the environmental support and the contextual barriers. The first two constructs have been identified as the personality traits which indirectly impact entrepreneurial intention through the attitude towards the entrepreneurship. Other two constructs were identified as contextual factors that have a direct impact on entrepreneurial intent. It is observed that student's personality structure also impact the student's entrepreneurial attitudes i.e., more positive response from the students with a propensity to high risk taking and an internal locus of control. The technical students with personality features of high risk taking and internal locus of control have higher probability to start-up new venture, which is found in the research done among MIT engineering students (Luthje & Franke, 2003).

Another important constructs of the entrepreneurship intension is the entrepreneurial self-efficacy pertaining to personal factors. Which becomes one aspect of the human personality and it involves the individual's beliefs regarding their capabilities for attaining success and controlling cognitions for successfully tackling challenging goals during the business start-up process (Drnovsek, Wincent & Cardon, 2010). This is one of the major socio-cognitive factors which determine entrepreneur's behaviour. Self-efficacy is the construct with the assessment of how individual confidence regarding his/her personality and opportunities, threats or the external environment. This relates with the entrepreneur intension. How individual perceives particular situation as the opportunity or a threat, and the action on it greatly depends on the self-efficacy of his/her (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994).

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1999) has emphasised the interdependence of personal agency and social structure. The model has identified the reciprocal causality between the internal factors and the social factors of the human being. In this model of reciprocal causality internal personal factors in the form of cognitive, affective and biological events; behavioural patterns, and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants that influence one another bi-directionally. Although that psychological and socio-structural theory is in different directions pertaining to human behaviour, there should be an integrated approach between these in order to get a full understanding about it. Therefore, the human behaviour is the outcome of the socio-structural influences through the psychological mechanisms. Consequently, these socio-structural and psychological factors are considered as the co-determinant of human behaviour within a unified causal structure (Bandura, 1999). This delineates the significance of the association in psychological and social dimensions for human behaviour analysis.

Therefore, Social capital is one of the significantly important factors which have an impact over the entrepreneur intension and behaviour. Social capital can be described in different ways and most simply, it is the “goodwill available to individuals or groups” (Adler & Kwon, 2002). It is the return obtained by business through the development and maintenance of effective relationships with various business stakeholders. These relationships allow individuals to access more information, reduce transaction cost through greater coordination between people, easy access to the skilled human capital, improve the trust, self-confidence and facilitate for collective decision making etc. (Linan & Santos, 2007). Including the opinions of family members, friends & colleagues there is a significant impact from social capital or the social norms of network members towards the intension of new business creation (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993).

However, the demographic factors are also very significant determinant criterion in entrepreneurial behaviour, as most of the studies discussed (Linan and Chen, 2009). The research done by Marques et al (2012) has been highlighted the relationship between demographic factors such as age, gender, education, family background and entrepreneurial intension. It has been revealed that the individual differences such as gender, education level and family background are positively associated with entrepreneurial intension as according to the study done with the MBA students (Chant, 1996). Gender, family background and the education level are the mostly related determinants of demographic factor discussed below. The above discussion concerned the two main determinants of entrepreneurial intension pertaining to the psychological, social and personal aspect of the individual. Other than the psychological, social and personal factors, the environment-based factors also play a significant role in determining entrepreneurial intent, especially in terms of environmental barriers and support factors (Luthje & Franke, 2003; Schwarz et al., 2009). Entrepreneurial environment is the combination of factors related to the development of entrepreneurship and this is comprised of all economic, socio cultural & political factors that have an impact on the development of entrepreneur intention among people. As per the study conducted by Ibrahim (2016), it has been found that there is a positive relationship between the environment factors and entrepreneurial intension. Gnywali & Fogel, (1994) have grouped these environmental impacts into five dimensions as the government policies and procedures, socio economic conditions, entrepreneurial and business skills, financial assistance and Non- financial assistance. As being similar to the personal factors, perceived environmental support also becomes a key factor which determines the entrepreneurial behaviour of the individual. Although government policies and procedures have become a critical factor in determining the entrepreneurial intention, there have been only few studies conducted about this aspect in entrepreneurship. Government can formulate entrepreneurial friendly atmosphere within the country through securing patents & copyrights, institutional support for the business start-up, lifting out the rules and regulations to encourage the SME sector and enhance the business infrastructure etc. Effective support of the government for the new business start-up is very important, since new entrepreneurs usually begin their business with lack of capital, entrepreneurial etc (Fatoki, 2010). Government’s regulatory mechanism of the country is a key factor which affects the expansion of business and simple and speedy response regulatory process induces the intension of business start-up. It has been proved that countries that have less credit regulations reflect positive entrepreneur intension (Ghosh, 2017). Availability of entrepreneurial family background, availability of successful entrepreneurial role models,

higher social recognition of entrepreneurship as the profession and resource availability are the favourable conditions for entrepreneurship development in terms of socio-economic aspect.

In addition to the regulatory environment, another key environmental factor of entrepreneurial intension is the perceived financial support. Although it is not much discussed, low interest rates, favourable credit conditions and availability of specified financial support schemes for the entrepreneurs are the important aspects of financial environment (Schwarz et al, 2009) which helps to create positive perception among the individuals towards the entrepreneurial intension.

Furthermore, entrepreneurship development had suggested that the education plays a vital role in entrepreneur intension of the individual and there is a positive relationship among the entrepreneurial education and entrepreneurial intention (Bae, Qian, Miao, & Fiet, 2014). Generally, it is believed that the formal education which begins from early years, have an impact on development of Technical vocational education and training (TVET). Biavaschi, Eichhorst, Giulietti, Kendzia, Muravyev, & Pieters, (2012) identifies five types of TVET models in different degrees, starting with the general academic based education and progress up to the dual vocational education and training, School based vocational education and finally towards the apprenticeship in countries of sub-Saharan Africa. In contrast to the general academic education, technical education offers practical competencies to the students but not in the business or entrepreneurial aspects. Therefore it is suggested that TVET Curricula should be developed with a more integrative approach, including the competencies of technical vocational and entrepreneurial competencies such as opportunity seeking, strategic and innovative thinking to enhance the entrepreneurial skills in TVET students (Buli & Yesuf, 2015; Sandirasegarane et al, 2016;). Although several researchers had concluded about the positive relationship between the entrepreneurial intention and entrepreneurial education (Bae et al, 2014; Turker & Selcuk, 2008), very limited number of researches have been carried out regarding technical-vocational education and training (Buli & Yesuf, 2015). However, it is perceived that the people who are qualified in technical sector perform much higher in dynamic and innovative; therefore, they can contribute significantly to encourage entrepreneurship (Roberts, 1991). Technical-vocational education and training in Sri Lanka is focused to enhance the entrepreneurial culture among the youth and entrepreneur development. Hence it is clear that Technical and vocational education of Sri Lanka is one of the key sources of entrepreneurial education in Sri Lanka (Ministry of Youth affairs and skills development, 2013; Balasundaram, 2010). Buli & Yesuf (2015) have identified three independent determinants of entrepreneurial intention at study of the entrepreneurial intension of Technical-vocational education and training students in Ethiopia as Personal attitudes toward behaviour, Subjective Norms and Perceived behaviour control being followed by the Ajzen's (1991) Theory of Planned Behaviour.

Model of Entrepreneurial Intension

Based on the previous literature, we have developed the following model by encapsulate the key important determinants of entrepreneurial intention. An important factor that has been established is that interaction among all personal, social and environmental factors develop the intension towards entrepreneurship (Bird, 1988).

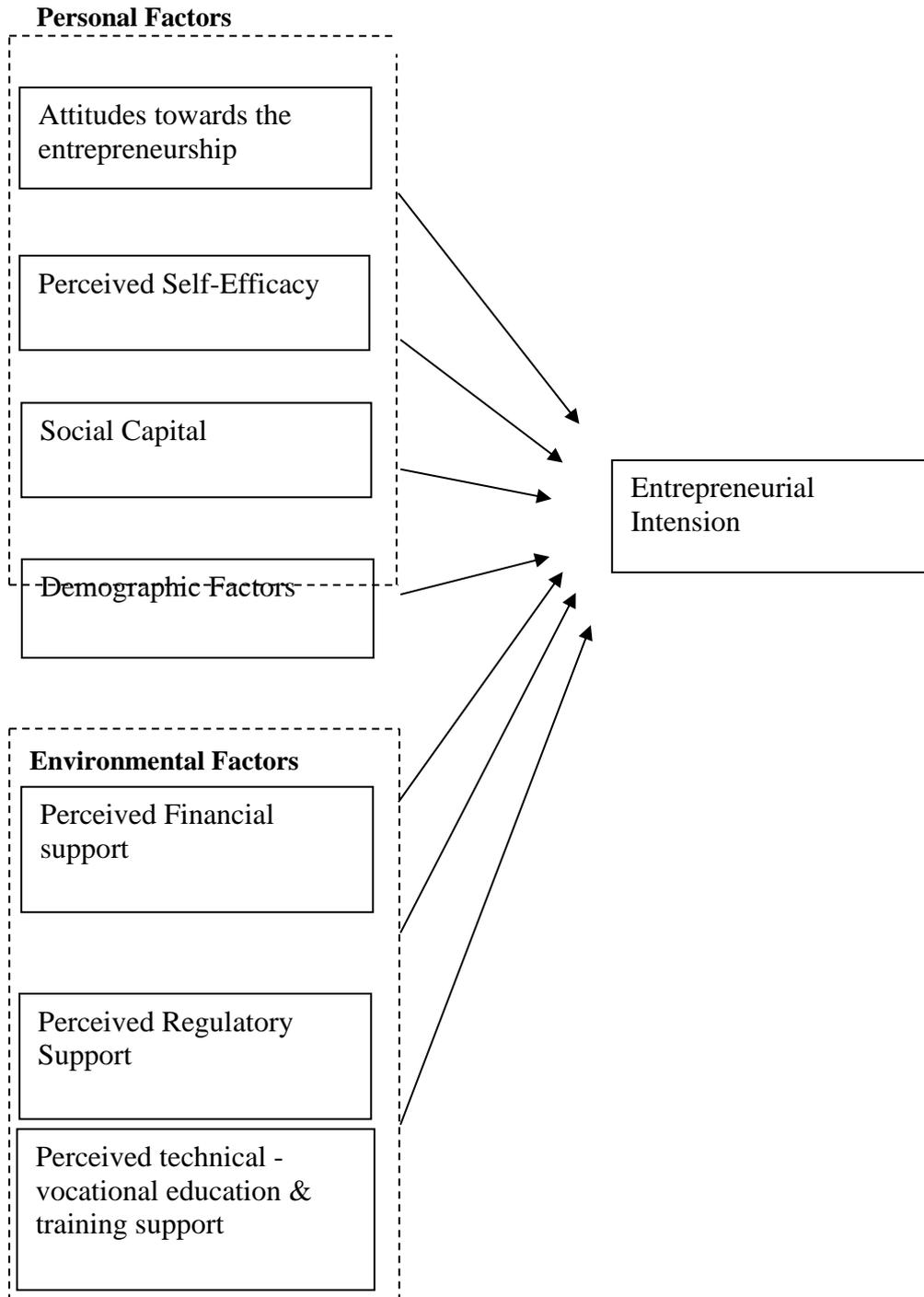


Figure 1: Conceptual framework

As illustrated in figure 1, this study attempts to examine the impact of five independent variables to the single dependent variable, which is called entrepreneurial intension. The seven independent variables are the individual attitudes towards the entrepreneurship, perceived self-efficacy, social capital, demographic factors, and perceived financial support, perceived regulatory support and the perceived technical -vocational education and training

Hypothesis development***Attitudes towards the entrepreneurship (AE)***

The attitude towards the entrepreneurship explains certain beliefs of the individual towards the entrepreneurship behavior based on attributes. The successful attributes pertaining to the entrepreneurship behavior forms the positive beliefs (or attitudes) vice versa (Ajzen, 1991). Therefore, the attitudes have a direct impact over the entrepreneurial intention (Kruger & Carsrud, 1993). More specifically the entrepreneurial intent of the technical students is strongly affected by their attitudes towards entrepreneurship (Buli & Yesuf, 2015; Luthje & Franke, 2003). Therefore, we developed the first hypothesis as follows.

Hypotheses 01: Personal attitudes of entrepreneurship have a positive influence on the entrepreneurial intention of TVET Students.

Perceived Self Efficacy (PSE)

In social cognitive theory, perceived self-efficacy plays a pivotal role and it affects not only directly and throughout the other determinants of individual's social cognition. How individual belief or confidence about their competency level to perform a particular activity in successfully to achieve intended outcome is usually referred as the self-efficacy (Bandura, 1989, 1997). This has emphasized much relevance of self-efficacy towards the field of entrepreneurship and it's become a salient factor towards the formation of entrepreneurial intention to become entrepreneur (Bandura, 1982, 1997, 2001). Entrepreneurial self-efficacy can be defined as the individual's beliefs regarding their capabilities to attain goals and control positive and negative cognitions that an entrepreneur has during the process of starting-up a business (Drnovsek et al, 2010). It has been intensively employed the individual self-efficacy as a key Scio cognitive factor which influence career intention (Bandura et al, 2001). The same ideology could be applied towards the entrepreneurial intention as the individual should have strong self-confidence about his or her competences to initiate and further develop the entrepreneurial concept into the actual enterprises, since starting up a business is associated with uncertainties, complexities and higher dedication (Wilson, Kickul & Marino, 2007). This has been further postulated by Dissanayake (n.d.) as per the research done regarding the entrepreneurship intention and the factors affect in to it. It has clearly concluded the significant impact of self-efficacy towards the entrepreneurial intention among the undergraduates. Therefore the following hypothesis can be developed.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived Self-efficacy has positive influence on the entrepreneurial intention of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Social Capital (SC)

Social capital refers to all positive outcomes obtained by individuals from all kinds of relationships such as friendship, colleagues, relatives and other general contracts (Burt, 1992). Social capital can be defined as the capital which has been captured from various social relationships by the entrepreneur (Lin, 2003) pertaining to the perspective of entrepreneurship. Carolis & Saporito (2006) suggest that social capital networks have a positive influence towards the new idea creation. This is because relationships transmit information and those can impact entrepreneurial intention to start a firm (Linan & Santos, 2007). Therefore social capital has on a positive impact towards the entrepreneur intention (Bosma, Praag, Thurik, & De Wit, 2002). This is much similar in the local context and Premaratne (2002) concludes that social networks have become an important nonmaterial

resource in various aspects, especially in obtaining financial resources. The third hypothesis we have developed as follows.

Hypothesis 3: Social capital of the individual has a positive influence on entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka

Demographic factors

In addition to the psychological and social factors, empirical evidence suggests that demographic factors of the individual are also influenced by entrepreneurship intension (Marques at el, 2012). Although several factors are available among the demographic factors which have an impact on entrepreneurial intension, it has specifically selected the most highlighted two factors i.e., since gender and family background have significant behavioural influences over the people. Linan & Chen (2009) have identified the significant relationship between the demographic features and the entrepreneurial intention. It has been identified that gender has become a significant factor towards the entrepreneurship intension and females have additional constraints in obtaining financial support from the formal sector as per the latest research findings in the Sri Lankan context (Kuruppu, 2015). Some researchers have concluded there is no relationship between family background and entrepreneurial parents with the entrepreneurial intension (Hatak, Harms & Fink, 2015), but most of others (Chaudhary, 2017; Gamage, Cameron & Woods, 2003; Mohamed at el, 2012) concluded the impact of family background towards entrepreneurship intension. Much research has been conducted on gender and entrepreneurship intention. It is a very common phenomenon that male entrepreneurship is predominant in most of the countries in the world and woman entrepreneurship is comparatively low due to the various barriers perceived by woman and therefore, it negatively impacts entrepreneurial intention (Marlow & Patton, 2005; Wilson, Kickul & Marino, 2007). The following two hypotheses can be developed initially pertaining to the above discussion regarding demographic factors.

Hypothesis 4: Gender has a significant impact on entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Hypothesis 5: A family background of the TVET students has a positive influence on their entrepreneur intension.

Perceived Financial Support (PFS)

Individual's perception of availability of equity & debt capital sources, easy access & convenience of obtaining financial facilities are referred to as the perceived financial support (Pennings, 1982). It is difficult for small entrepreneurs to obtain financial facilities from the formal debt market due to the lack of limited assets availability which are suitable for the collateral, lack of strong relationship with the financial institutions and lack of credit history (Bruder, Neuberger & Rathke –Doppner, 2011). In other words, it is believed that perceptions of financial barriers are negatively associated with the business startup decision (Roper & Scott, 2009). Although some researchers do not accept financial constraints as a barrier for the business start-up and survival (Cressy, 1994) most of the research had emphasised constraints to the financial capital as the barrier for the new venture creation. This has become the most significant issue in Sri Lanka and most of the Sri Lankan entrepreneurs depend on their own personal funds than the external funds, including the debt funds due to many issues. Difficulties of providing collaterals, higher interest rates, lack of strong relationships with the financial institutions, complex and lengthy procedures are the most highlighted issues that Sri

Lankan entrepreneurs are faced in relation to the financial environment (Kuruppu, 2015). Based on the above discussion the following hypothesis can be developed.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived financial support positively influence to the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka

Perceived Regulatory Support (PRS):

Government is the main institutional body which enjoys the constitutional power to regulate the business practices and the market mechanism. Most importantly the government is the main influencer towards the economic and business system of the country in various ways. Doing Business (2017) concludes that unnecessary regulations hinder the entrepreneurship development and therefore the governments need to engage with more regulatory reforms to bring smarter regulations which specially encourage the private sector or the individual's entrepreneur intension. Government can influence in various ways such as determining the business rules and regulation system, development of business infrastructure, and deciding on the fiscal & financial policy etc. It is expected to assess the students' perception on government influence towards entrepreneurial intension (Gnyawali & Fogel, 1994). As per t Guerrero, Rialp & Urbano (2008), the regulatory environment has a positive influence on TVET.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived regulatory support positively influences entrepreneurship intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Perceived Technical- Vocational Education and Training (PTVET) support:

Generally, it is considered that Technical-vocational education and training (TVET) provides students technical skills and practical skills which are usually neglected by the general academic curricula in secondary schools. But traditional TVET programs are not imparting the students entrepreneurial and business skills and directly focus on the creation of skilled employees (Biavaschi et al, 2012). However, the well-established non-school based independent TVET institutions successfully integrate technical and vocational skills with entrepreneurial education in their curricula. These dual aspects i.e., vocational training skills and entrepreneurial education and training foster the entrepreneurial intension behaviour (Onstenk, 2003). Buli & Yesuf (2015) also found the positive relationship between personal attitudes and entrepreneurial intention via the research carried out in TVET students in Ethiopia. The performance report of Ministry of Youth Affairs and Skills Development (2013) of Sri Lanka, which controls and inspects all public TVET institutions, had identified entrepreneurial development as a main objective and function. The TVET institutions such as NAITA conduct specific programs to enhance the entrepreneurial intention of technical students (NAITA, 2017). We are able to develop following hypothesis as above discussion pertaining to the Technical education and training of the TVET students.

Hypothesis 8: Perceived Technical & Vocational Education and Training positively influence the entrepreneurship intention of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Research Methodology:

Population

This research is dedicated to investigating the entrepreneurial intension of technical students of Sri Lanka. We aim to study the factors that have influenced the entrepreneurial

intension of the technical students of Sri Lanka. All the students studying in the institutions under the purview of the Ministry of Youth Affairs and Skills Development represent this population. There are 10 institutions established under the Ministry of youth affairs and Skills development; namely, Tertiary and Vocational Education Commission (TVEC), Department of Technical Education & Training (DTET), The University of Vocational Technology (UNIVOTEC), Vocational Training Authority (VTA), The University of Vocational Technology (NAITA), Ceylon-German Technical Training Institute (CGTTI), National Institute of Business Management (NIBM), The National School of Business Management (NSBM), National Institute of Fisheries & Nautical Engineering (NIFNE), Sri Lanka Institute of Printing (SLIOP).

Sample Selection

We had selected a sample of students at technical institutions in Sri Lanka and it carries out by using a sample of hundred and thirty students selected from three technical institutions belonging to the above population. The most appropriate research method, given time and cost constrain, is the survey method. Questionnaire was distributed among the students to collect primary data and it consist 8 Pages and 19 questions. The research instrument is employed with including multiple choice questions and question statements based on the five-point Likert scale with levels 1= "strongly disagree" to 5= "strongly agree". All elements includes in the questionnaire pertain to the research constructs are listed in following table.

Operationalisation

Whenever reliable and valid measures were available in e literature, they were used for current study. Entrepreneurial attitude was measured by adopting scale developed by Buli & Yesuf (2015) and Marques at el (2012). Sample items include 'A career as entrepreneur is attractive for me' and 'Being an entrepreneur implies more advantages to me'.

The measure of perceived self-efficacy, we had taken from Wilson, Kickul & Marlino, (2007), as it is specific to the situation of starting a business and has been shown to be reliable in their research. It comprised of six items including problem solving ability, creativity, ability to managing money, decision making ability and leadership ability by following Turker & Selcuk (2008) and Perez at el(2014) measured social capital by using three indicators that focused on availability of emotional support family members, close friends and colleagues. The perception of the technical vocation and education and training support refers to the degree to which the technical college is perceived as a supporting organization to start a new venture. The construct was measured by a set of three statements and a similar scale has been used by Schwarz et al in 2009. The perception of possible support from regulatory environment and financial support relates to the degree to which external conditions to start a business, particularly financing factors are perceived positively. The measures were adopted from Schwarz et al (2009).

For measuring the TVET students' entrepreneurial intentions to new venture creation, the researcher adopted the set of questions proposed by Buli & Yesuf (2015). This instrument consists of six items aimed at unveiling the respondents' intentions to start their own businesses in the future. The items were built as five-point Likert-type scale, being 1 'strongly disagrees' and 5 'strongly agree'. Sample items include 'I will make every effort to start and run my own firm' and 'My professional goal is to become an entrepreneur'.

Data Presentation and Analysis:

Profile of the sample

Respondent's age has been distributed among the 16 to 31 years and the mean value becomes 20.5 years. Therefore, the data sample is appropriate to assess the youth entrepreneurship. Mean value of the Education levels of the respondents is 3.08 and it reveals the higher percentage of the students who belong to the categories of over the O/L passed and A/L passed. Another significant feature is the father's profession. Most of the respondents' fathers are not entrepreneurs and only 19.5% of respondent fathers are entrepreneurs.

Reliability and validity of scales

We have applied here the most common measure of scale reliability, Cronbach Alpha, to assess the reliability or the internal consistency of each variable. According to the Merchant (1985), the lowest acceptable reliability of the Cronbach alpha is 0.5 and the value is over the 0.7 means the acceptable reliability (Nunnally, 1978). The six variables are successfully over the Cronbach Alpha value of 0.7 (>0.7), and remaining two variables attained 0.65 and 0.69. The highest reliable value is 0.892, which is available with the construct of "Entrepreneurial intension". All the variables of current research are ranged between the Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.69 and 0.89, i.e. within the acceptable range.

Personal Information	Variables	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	108	84.4
	Female	20	15.6
	Total	128	100.0
Ethnicity	Sinhalese	125	97.7
	Tamil	1	0.8
	Other Races	2	1.6
	Total	128	100.0
Education	Less than O/L	3	2.3
	Up to O/L	36	28.1
	O/L Passed	36	28.1
	A/L Passed	53	41.4
	Total	128	100.0
Religion	Buddhist	117	91.4
	Hindu	1	0.8
	Islam	2	1.6
	Other Religions	8	6.3
	Total	128	100.0
Father's profession	Others	103	80.5
	Entrepreneur	25	19.5
	Total	128	100.0

Table 1: Descriptive Analysis of personal information

Variables	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Attitudes Towards the Entrepreneurship	05	0.78
Perceived Self-Efficacy	06	0.70
Social Capital	03	0.69
Perceived Financial support	03	0.71
Perceived regulatory support	05	0.78
Perceived TVET	03	0.77
Entrepreneurial Intension	06	0.89

Table 2: Reliability Statistics of the research constructs

Descriptive Statistics of Research constructs

The following discussion pertained to the analysis of descriptive statistics of each research construct. The descriptive statistics of all these constructs are summarized in table 3. When we summarize the descriptive statistics of the research constructs pertain to TVET, entrepreneurial attitudes and self –efficacy reflects higher mean value, while perceived financial and regulatory support have the lowest mean value among all the constructs (see table 3).

The respondents indicated that they have mostly agreed with perceived technical education and support (Mean= 4.29), entrepreneurial attitudes (Mean=4.05), perceived Self-Efficacy (Mean= 4.05), and Entrepreneurial intention (Mean= 3.96). And moderately agreed with the constructs of social capital (Mean=3.88) and perceived regulatory environment (Mean= 3.39).

On the other hand, the respondents mostly had not agreed with the perceived financial environment and which is reflected from the low value of mean (Mean=2.42).

Variables	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Attitudes Towards the Entre:	1.60	5.00	4.05	0.62
Perceived Self-Efficacy	2.50	5.00	4.05	0.48
Social Capital	1.00	5.00	3.88	0.65
Perceived Financial Support	1.00	4.67	2.42	0.78
Perceived Regulatory Support	1.00	4.60	3.39	0.69
Perceived Technical Edu: & Sup:	3.00	5.00	4.29	0.60
Entrepreneurial Intention	2.00	5.00	3.96	0.77

Table 3: Summery of the descriptive statistics of research constructs

Correlation among the research constructs

This section analyses the correlation between the research constructs and the correlation among the elements of each research construct.

	ATE	PSE	SC	Gender	Fath: Job	PFS	PRS	PTET	EI
ATE	1								
PSE	0.46**	1							
SC	0.35**	0.38**	1						
Gender	0.07	0.12	-0.01	1					
Fath:									
Job	0.01	0.15	0.05	-0.11	1				
PFS	-0.16	-0.27**	-0.12	-0.02	-0.04	1			
PRS	0.16	0.10	0.12	0.04	0.08	0.04	1		
PTET	0.21*	0.36**	0.30**	0.03	-0.07	-0.25**	0.14	1	
EI	0.51**	0.41**	0.31**	0.09	0.06	-0.16	0.20*	0.41**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4: Correlation results among the research constructs

Table 4 presents the correlations coefficients of dependent and independent variables. It indicates the results of correlations coefficient between the dependent variable of EI and independent variables of ATE, PSE, SC, Gender, Fathers Job, PFS and PRS. The highest positive correlation was obtained between the dependent variable of Entrepreneurial intention and the independent variable of Attitudes towards the entrepreneurship ($r = 0.51$). Although it does not reflect much strong correlation, there is a significant and positive correlation among the student's attitudes and their entrepreneur intension. However, that negative and much weak correlation is depicted from the perceived financial support ($r = -0.16$), with the entrepreneurial intention and weak but positive correlation is indicated by the regulatory environment ($r = 0.20$).

Regression analysis

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	0.51a	0.26	0.25	0.66
2	0.59b	0.35	0.34	0.62

a. Predictors: (Constant), Entrepreneurial attitude

b. Predictors: (Constant), Entrepreneurial attitude, Educational Support

Table 5: Model Summery

ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19.18	1	19.18	43.44	0.00
	Residual	55.63	13	0.44		
	Total	74.80	13			
2	Regression	26.10	2	13.05	33.50	0.00
	Residual	48.70	12	0.39		
	Total	74.80	13			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Entrepreneurial attitude

b. Predictors: (Constant), Entrepreneurial attitude, Educational Support

c. Dependent Variable: Entrepreneurial Intention

Table 6: ANOVA Table

Variables	B	t (F-value)	P	Corr:
Attitudes towards the Entrepreneurship	0.44	5.94	0.00	0.51
Perceived Self-Efficacy	0.13	1.53	0.13	0.41
Social Capital	0.07	0.92	0.36	0.31
Demographic Factors:				
• Gender	0.05	0.70	0.49	0.09
• Father's Job	0.08	1.08	0.28	0.06
Perceived Financial support	-0.02	-0.23	0.82	-0.16
Perceived Regularity support	0.09	1.27	0.21	0.20
Perceived technical education & training	0.31	4.22	0.00	0.41

Table 7: Regression results of the research coefficients

The correlation table indicates the positive association among the dependent variable of Entrepreneurial Intention and all independent variables, except the perceived financial support. Although it indicates the association between the dependent variable among the independent variables, it does not reflect the strength and direction of the relationship. Regression is the statistical methodology which investigates the which intends to find out the strengths direction of the relationship between two variables, i.e. dependent variable and the independent variables (Buli & Yesuf, 2015) as per the overall analysis, the model successfully predicts the 33.9% of the variation in Entrepreneurial intention ($R^2 = 0.34$) in the 99% significance level; Therefore, the model assesses the impact of independent variables on dependent variable (see table 5).

As per the information of regression analysis given in table 7, there is a considerable positive impact of TVET student's attitudes towards the entrepreneurship ($\beta=0.44$, t -value = 5.94, $p=0.00$) for entrepreneurial intension. The beta value is positive and acceptable with F-value ($t = 5.94$) at significant level $P = 0.00$. But the the statistical result ($\beta= 0.13$, $t= 1.53$ & $p=0.13$) shows the low impact of the independent variable of Self efficacy towards the dependent variable of Entrepreneurial Intension (Table 7).

Similar to this, the regression result reflects low association between the predictor variable of Social capital and the outcome variable entrepreneurial intension. The regression model has given F is as 0.92 and it is significant at $p = 0.36$. The very low value of beta ($\beta = 0.07$) shows the insignificant impact of social capital towards the entrepreneurial intention. More importantly, the regression results ($\beta = -0.02$, $t = -0.23$, $p = 0.82$) are illustrated in table 7, the very weak and negative impact among the student's entrepreneurial intension and perceived financial support.

The regression information reflect the impact of regulatory support towards the entrepreneurial intension with $\beta = 0.09$ and 1.27 F value ($p=0.21$), the impact is positive but weak among the perceived regulatory support and entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka.

However, the regression results are significant and it indicates that student's perceived Technical & Vocational Education & Training has a positive influence on entrepreneurial intention ($\beta = 0.31$, $t = 4.22$, $p = 0.00$).

Furthermore, table 7 articulates the statistics of regression and which indicates the conclusion of hypothesis, whether is supported or. The statistical relationship between the entrepreneurial attitude and entrepreneurial intention and Perceived technical education and entrepreneurial intension are positive and significant, supports to accept H1 and H8. However, it is not supported by the statistical results in table 7 pertaining to other hypothesis in the research model.

Hypothesis testing

Hypotheses 1: Personal attitudes of entrepreneurship have a positive influence on the entrepreneurial intension of TVET Students.

Higher agreed mean value (4.05) of the construct, significant positive correlation with the entrepreneurial intension (0.51) and also the regression analysis highlight the potential impact of the attitudes of TVET students towards the entrepreneurial intension. These statistical findings are supported not to reject null hypothesis, i.e. Personal attitudes of TVET students have the positive influence towards the entrepreneurial intension.

Hypothesis 2: Perceived Self-efficacy has a positive influence on the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Although the mean value of the construct is much higher (4.05), the positive correlation is noticed with the dependent variable which is not significant. Regression analysis reflects less impact towards the change in dependent variable although it is positive. Positive but very weak beta value ($\beta= 0.13$) at the significance level of $P = 0.13$ reflects this weak

interrelationship and all above statistical information support to reject the null hypothesis; therefore, Self-efficacy has a positive influence towards the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Hypothesis 3: Social capital of the individual has a positive influence on entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

The slightly above average mean value reflects the considerable level of respondents does not have a positive response towards the entrepreneurial intention. The correlation is positive but not material impact and therefore the regression analysis had excluded the impact of social capital towards the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students.

Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected and there is no positive influence from social capital towards the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Hypothesis 4: Gender has a significant impact on entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Hypothesis 5: Family backgrounds of the TVET students positively influence their entrepreneur intension.

According to the statistical analysis of the research study, it is evident that the research constructs of gender and father's job do not significantly impact the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students. The regression analysis had excluded both constructs of gender and father's job and therefore, null hypothesis of both gender and fathers are rejected.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived financial support positively influences the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka

We could notice negative correlation among perceived financial support and the entrepreneurial intension. The Beta value of the regression analysis also depicts the negative and non-significant impact towards the entrepreneurial intension. Hence all these statistical figures exemplify the insignificance of the perceived financial support towards the entrepreneurial intension and null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived regulatory support positively influences the entrepreneurship intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Nearly 3.3 mean value, positive but less significant correlation and very low impact of beta value ($\beta=9.3\%$) towards the entrepreneurial intension exemplify the statistical insignificance of perceived regulatory support towards the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students.

Hypothesis 8: Perceived Technical & Vocational Education and Training positively influences the entrepreneurship intention of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

As per the regression analysis, the construct of perceived Technical and Vocational Education & Training has been included and it has 31.2% of impact towards the dependent variable. Also, it is exemplified that the correlation coefficient between the technical education & training, with the entrepreneurial intension, is the acceptable level.

All these statistical findings disclose that all dimensions are significant in explaining the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka and this analysis helps to accept the null hypothesis of Perceived Technical & Vocational Education & Training is positively correlated with the entrepreneurship intention of TVET students of Sri Lanka.

Discussion:

Personal Factors

We can say that the statistical analysis support to accept the first hypothesis and therefore it concludes the impact of TVET student's attitudes towards their entrepreneurial intension. The variable of entrepreneurial attitudes had obtained the highest beta value of the model and all the statistical details display positive and significant impact towards the entrepreneurial intension. This exemplify that Sri Lankan TVET students' attitudes have a considerable impact towards the development of entrepreneurial intension and mostly if they have opportunities and resources they mostly intend towards the entrepreneurship. Most of the previous researchers had concluded the impact of attitudes towards the intension (Ajzen, 1991; Kruger et al, 2000) and more specifically, the theory of planned behaviour specifies three types of attitudinal impact towards the intension (Krueger & Carsrud, 1993). Furthermore, we observed that the attitudes towards the entrepreneurship is the strongest variable among all other variables in this research model and this has similar to the findings of the Luthje & Franke (2003) pertaining to the entrepreneurial intension of the technical students of MIT and the study in regarding the TVET students in Ethiopia (Buli & Yesuf, 2015). Similar studies also have concluded that attitudes of the entrepreneurship become the most powerful variable which explains the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students.

The null hypothesis pertaining to the perceived self-efficacy is that "Perceived self-efficacy has the positive influence towards the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka". However the research data does not provide enough statistical evidence to accept this hypothesis. In other words, the students of TVET students of Sri Lanka do not reflect the potential positive influence in terms of perceived self-efficacy towards the entrepreneurial intension. Although the model reflects higher mean value and positive correlation between self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intention, it does not confirm the significant impact of self-efficacy on entrepreneurial intension as per the results of regression analysis. Sri Lankan TVET students positively think about their abilities and competencies to start a business and become entrepreneurs, but still they lack confidence in leading others and getting people to agree with them. In contrast to this, some researchers had revealed the positive relationship between the self-efficacy and entrepreneurial intension (Boyd & Vozikis, 1994; Kruger et al, 2000). Elali & Al-Yacoub (2016) also had concluded self-Efficacy as one of the key personal factor which has a positive impact towards the entrepreneurial intension in Kuwait. As per the Bausch & Michel (2014), the gender & age effects on self-efficacy and concluded that older woman reflect more positive development with higher self-efficacy than the older men. Also the research study carried out with the nursing students in Northeast Ohio had revealed that seniority or the experience increases the self-efficacy of the students, since those seniors are much confident about them (Wilson & Byers, 2017). The average age level of the research respondents of the current research is 20 years and 84% is male, this also has a considerable impact on the research results pertaining to self-efficacy.

The previous researchers such as Carolis & Saporito (2006) had emphasized the impact of social capital in entrepreneurial intension and importance of further studying with

empirical research. Bosma et al (2004) had also concluded the strong relationship between the investments in enhancing the social capital and developments of entrepreneurial intension. Moreover, the recent empirical research done in Kuwait regarding the factors that affect entrepreneurial intension had concluded the significant positive relationship among variable of social capital and the entrepreneurial intension (Elali & Al-Yacoub, 2016). However, we can conclude that the research result of the present study does not reveal the significant impact of social capital towards the entrepreneurial intention of TVET students in Sri Lanka. As per the statistical analysis, most of the students responded in “no idea” and comparatively positive but not significant correlation among the social capital and entrepreneurial intension. This is somewhat different than what can be expected from the Sri Lankan context. Since the relationship among the family members and friends are much strong when compared to the western context, and they are strongly impacted by the family members and friends. However, these findings are compatible with the research done by the Turker & Selcuk (2008), regarding the factors which affect the entrepreneurial intension of University students.

As per the findings of Wilson, Kickul & Marino (2007), entrepreneurship intension is still dominated by the male and most of women believed that they have not enough potential to be entrepreneurs and therefore they have comparatively low intension towards the entrepreneurship. Research conclusions of Marlow & Patton (2005) forward the same notion as females have a specific set of barriers due to gender and therefore this impact in negatively towards the entrepreneurship intensions of woman. These perceived barriers associated with gender can negatively impact on the entrepreneurial intension of women. Higher entrepreneurial intension is associated with male than female (Crant, 1996). However, Yukongdi & Lopa (2017) & Hatak, Harms & Fink, (2015) have concluded that there is no difference between the entrepreneurial intension among the men and woman based on their researches done in recently. The statistical analysis of the present study also brings similar conclusion, i.e. “no impact of gender towards the entrepreneurial intension”. The random selected sample of TVET students are represented in both males and females, but more than the 84% (see table 1) of them are males and this reflects more closely the actual gender composition of males and females in the population. However, that our sample is not reliable in terms of gender and therefore it is required to do further studies with more reliable sample in terms of gender in order to assess the impact of gender towards entrepreneurial intension.

Environmental Factors

The randomly selected sample of TVET students of Sri Lanka consisted of only 19.5% of respondents who have entrepreneurial family background, and this reflects the low percentage of TVET students in Sri Lanka with entrepreneurial family background. As according to our statistical analysis, there isn't sufficient evidence to accept the above hypothesis and null hypothesis is rejected. Chaudhary (2017) has identified that the greater impact towards the entrepreneurial intension is parent's professional role and family background has a significant influence on entrepreneur intension (Amos & Alex, 2014; Crant, 1996; Marques et al, 2012). The current research sample contained only 25 students whose father is a businessman among the 128 total samples of students. As per these mix results, we emphasizes the importance of conducting further research in this area, with stronger sample base and a higher number of sample units from the entrepreneurial family background.

Similar to the importance of human capital, financial capital is also considered as the most basic type of resource required for the business start-up and therefore it has an impact on entrepreneurial intension of the individual (Neuberger and Rathke, 2009). Therefore,

perceived financial support of TVET students has been identified as a variable of the current study; however, the statistical analysis of the respondents does not support to accept the null hypothesis called “Perceived financial support of TVET students positively relates with the entrepreneurial intension”. This conclusion is confirmed by Turker & Selcuk (2008), through their study carried out regarding the factors that affect the entrepreneurial intension of the university students in Austria. Although financial support is emphasized as the important requirement for the new business creation (Gnyaweli & Fogel, 1994), majority of the respondents in current study responses reflect the “no idea” relating to the perceived financial support. It shows that the lack of understanding about the financial support towards the business among the TVET students in Sri Lanka. This is a very important implication for the authorities in TVET sector and also emphasizes the requirement of further study regarding this matter.

We also can conclude that there is no significant impact of perceived regulatory support on the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka as per the findings of this research study. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis, and the research conclusion can be derived is “no significant impact of the perceived regulatory support towards the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka”. The mean values and correlation coefficients of the dimensions of perceived regulatory support reflects the respondent’s lack of knowledge regarding the regulatory environment with respect to the entrepreneurship intension. Due to the young age (Average 20. 58 yrs.) and less experiences may cause this situation and the career guidance officers in TVET sector should take this factor into consideration when empowering their knowledge to empower their knowledge. Similarly to this notion, Ghosh (2017) concludes there is no significant impact of business regulations towards the entrepreneurial intension upon the facts including the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) report for 79 countries from 2001 to 2016. Since most of the individuals in developing countries are starting businesses in informal sector, they may not much concern about the government subsidies or other regulatory influences. In contrast to this, some other researchers had concluded with significant and positive influence towards the entrepreneurship intension in individuals (Urban & Kujinga, 2017).

Technical education is somewhat different from other educational areas and it stimulates the significant economic development of the country since it involves many dynamic and innovative areas (Roberts, 1991). TVET programs are specifically designed to empower the youth with entrepreneurial skills to enhance entrepreneurial intension to be self-employed (Buli & Yesuf, 2015). Consequently, the Students in Technical Education and Vocational Training institutions should display a higher intension towards the entrepreneurship. This had been confirmed by the statistical information derived from the current study. Our regression model includes the hypothesis of perceived Technical & Vocational Education & Training, which impacts towards the entrepreneurial intension, since it has a positive and significant impact towards the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka. Therefore, we accept the null hypothesis and “Perceived Technical & Vocational Education & Training positively correlates with the entrepreneurship intention of TVET students of Sri Lanka”. TVET institutions in Sri Lanka, such as Vocational Training Authority, conducts entrepreneurship promoting programs for its students other than the TVET programs and it may have helped to enhance the entrepreneurial intension among the TVET students as the data set had confirmed. The implementation of TVET programs and Entrepreneurial promotion and training programs can foster the entrepreneurship intension among the TVET students (Sandirasegarane et al, 2016).

Conclusion:

The research problems of the current study are “What is the current level of entrepreneur intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka and how is the impact of personal and environmental factors towards their entrepreneurial intension?” The results of the findings through the statistical analysis revealed that their intension is at a good level (Mean value of the variable of entrepreneur intension= 3.96) and that would be a good indicator of development of entrepreneurship among the TVET students. The overall statistical analysis also revealed that personal attitudes towards the entrepreneurship is positive and significantly influences the entrepreneurship intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka. However the other personal factors, i.e. perceived self-efficacy, social capital and demographic factors do not have a significant impact on the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students of Sri Lanka. Perceived Technical & Vocational Education & Training is positive and significant towards the entrepreneurial intension of TVET students of Sri Lanka. Nevertheless, other environmental factors of the model of the entrepreneurial intension (Perceived financial and regulatory support) do not impact entrepreneurial intension.

Limitations of the Study:

The 173,421 students were registered in all private and public TVET institutions of Sri Lanka, with more than thousands of training centres Island wide (National Skills Development Report, 2015). However, we conducted this research study with 128 samples of students comprised with three public owned TVET institutions. This is one of the key limitations of our study. Also, the conceptual model of this research has been limited to some selected personal variables and environmental variables due to the operational limitations of the study. We carried out this study to assess the entrepreneurial intension of the TVET students therefore it is limited the research study to the TVET sector. Another limitation is that the gender composition and the random sample obtained in this study do not represent enough females to conclude the impact of gender on entrepreneur intension.

Suggestions for future research:

The present research has been restricted for some selected variables and therefore the future researchers can be done with empirical studies with all other important variables that have an impact on entrepreneurial intension. Also, this research study was carried out with 128 samples of TVET students from 3 institutions (DTET, NAITA & VTA) in the Colombo district. Hence future researchers can conduct the study by broadening the sample with students representing other institutions in TVET sector Island wide. On the other hand, this research has been limited to assess the young entrepreneurial intension and influential factors pertaining to the TVET sector of Sri Lanka; therefore it is suggested to conduct further researches regarding the entrepreneur intension of the undergraduates of Sri Lanka. Also, it is suggested that future researches to conduct the study & compare the results of the present study with undergraduates and the students in other higher education sectors.

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Title:

Relationship between Ethnocentrism and Impulsive Buying Behaviour: A Case of Sri Lankan Dairy Market

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Abstract:

The purpose of this study is to analyse the Impact of Consumer Ethnocentrism on Consumer Impulsive Buying Behaviour, in dairy product market in Sri Lanka. This sector is highly competitive and few years ago dairy industry faced an unexpected and serious crisis regarding the Dicyandiamide (DCD) factor. With this serious issue the main players of the dairy market, lost their market share and currently trying to rebuild the brands, focusing on the Ethnocentrism application. Identifying whether really Ethnocentrism impacts on the buying behaviour patterns of the consumers, especially the impulsive situation is a key issue in this study. This is a quantitative study empirically done in the Sri Lankan dairy product market. In this study the main concepts that researchers have examined were Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Impulsive Buying Behaviour. The researchers have empirically tested the conceptual model to examine the impact of ethnocentrism on impulsive buying behaviour of the dairy consumers. The hypothesis was formulated to verify the relationship between the variables; in order to answer the research question. The data collection was done with a sample of 350 dairy product consumers from the dairy consumer population in Sri Lanka. As the data collection method the survey strategy and as the instrument a questionnaire were used. The questionnaire was developed using the Consumer Ethnocentrism Tendency Scale (CETScale) developed by Shimp and Sharma in 1987 and the measurement was adjusted according to the Sri Lankan context. The impulsive buying behaviour was measured using the scale developed by Irem Gure in 2012. The data was analysed using the SPSS 19 version. The key findings are that the Sri Lankan dairy users have medium level tendency of Ethnocentrism and the consumers who have the ethnocentrism trait most of the time purchase with a planned manner not in impulse. Therefore it is recommended that the local and multinational companies not only to focus on Ethnocentrism perspective to promote and rebuild the brands within the dairy users, because they are not motivated for impulse buying in the dairy products based on the ethnocentric appeals.

Key Words:

Consumer Ethnocentrism; Impulsive Buying Behaviour; Dairy Product Market; Sri Lanka

Introduction:

Dairy market is a very complex and competitive market in Sri Lanka where domestic brands and international brands are operating in a competitive manner. Domestic Dairy industry has capability of producing substantial amount of quality milk and milk products to the prevailing market at affordable prices while keeping reasonable profit margins to all stakeholders in the production marketing chain and government policy is encouraging the local milk production and fresh milk consumption (Mangaleswaran, Gnanaseelan, & Morais, 2010). But currently the international dairy brands are playing a bigger role in the Sri Lankan market. The marketing of milk in Sri Lanka is complex and varied (Ranaweera, 2010). The dairy product marketing practices are more focused on the customers and their buying behaviour patterns due to the growing demand (Bogahawatte & Herath, 2006).

The dairy industry has a great potential to contribute to the Sri Lankan economy (Jayaweera, et al., 2007). In the dimension of supply, the total monthly milk production in Sri Lanka in the year 2017 is 33,016,500 liters and annual milk production is 396,198,000 liters (Department of Census and Statistics, 2017). Compared to the 2016 statistics the monthly (32,000,700 liters) and annually (384,008,400 liters), productions are increased by 3.17 percent. In 2014 the fresh milk production is 282,000 MT, powdered milk local production is 12,530 MT and 86,320 MT imports, condensed milk local production is 7,680 MT and 20 MT imports, milk food local production is 11,210 MT and 30 MT imports (Department of Census and Statistics, 2017).

The buying patterns are more impacted by the customer psychological factors such as perception, cognition, attention, emotion, phenomenology, motivation, brain functioning, interpersonal relationship and personality. In the buying behaviour patterns the impulsive buying behaviour is special occasion. For the impulsive buying behaviour also the same factors which impact the buying behaviour is influencing. In this impulsive buying behaviour pattern personality is very important factor (Wanninayake & Chovancova, 2012). According to the consumer personality, the customer is willing to do their purchasing. Currently there is a high competition in the dairy market and the industry faced a real crisis regarding the milk powder quality. Basically, the dairy products can be identified as local and foreign brands. Some local and foreign brands are focusing on the ethnocentric appeals and come up with the brand activations and other marketing activities. With the special DCD factor crisis in the market, the foreign brands had to face a huge problem in Sri Lankan market. Especially with the milk powder crisis, the personality trait of impulsiveness was aroused in consumers. Therefore, in the dairy market the buying type of impulsive buying pattern can be seen in a huge manner.

Though the marketing activities are more focused towards the ethnocentrism implication, there is no such a proving that the ethnocentrism is impacted on the buying patterns of the customers in dairy market in Sri Lanka. Therefore, this research is focused on assessing the impact of Consumer Ethnocentrism on Impulsive Buying Behaviour: with special reference to Dairy Products in Sri Lankan Market.

The objective of this study is identified as; to identify the impact of ethnocentrism on consumer impulsive buying behaviour in dairy product market in Sri Lanka. The research question of this study is that what is the impact of ethnocentrism on consumer buying behaviour. The primary data was used for the research study using the survey strategy to identify the impulse buying pattern and the personality trait of ethnocentrism. The limitations

of this study were identified as sample size was 350 compared to a huge population of all the diary consumers in Sri Lankan market, the selected area for the study was not represented all the areas of Sri Lanka and only the impact of ethnocentrism personality trait is considered for the impulsive buying pattern, other factors are not considered.

Literature Review:

Consumer Ethnocentrism

Ethnocentrism is a personality trait which can be defined as “the beliefs held by consumers about the appropriateness, indeed morality of purchasing foreign-made product and the loyalty of the consumers to the products manufactured in their home country” (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). The concept of consumer ethnocentrism has been derived from the general concept of ethnocentrism, which was firstly introduced in 1906 by sociologist William Sumner. According to Shimp and Sharma (1987), consumers refuse to buy foreign products because they are harmful to the national economy and cause unemployment. Shoham and Brenevic (2003), reported that consumer ethnocentrism had a significant impact on consumers’ intentions to purchase locally produced goods. Many other studies have examined the impact of consumer ethnocentric tendencies on purchase intentions. However, the results are different from country to country and the characteristics of the consumers. Kaynak and Kara (2002) have noted that significant population growth and increasing purchasing power of consumers in such developing countries offer market opportunities to foreign companies whose domestic markets have already reach maturity.

The measurement of consumer ethnocentrism was made possible with the development of the Consumer Ethnocentrism Tendency Scale (CETScale). Shimp and Sharma (1987) were the first to develop an effective instrument for measuring the ethnocentric tendencies of consumers’ buying decisions. CETScale has become the most commonly used instrument for measuring consumer ethnocentrism (Renko, Karanovic, & Matic, 2012). This includes 24 questions regarding the ethnocentrism that can measure the tendency of the customer towards the ethnocentrism. Finally, the consumer ethnocentrism must be considered as an influential factor that is used to understand the consumer behavior in order to determine the impact to the Impulsive Buying of the consumers. In this study also the researchers have used the CETScale adjusting the measurement according to the Sri Lankan context.

Impulsive Buying Behaviour

The impulse buying behaviour is an unplanned decision to buy a product or a service, made just before a purchase. Rook and Gardner (1993), defined impulse buying as an unplanned behaviour involving quick decision making and tendency for immediate purchasing of the product. According to Beatty and Ferrell (1998), the impulse buying refers to immediate purchase which is without any pre-shopping objective either to purchase the specific product category or to fulfil a specific need. Rook (1987) argued that during impulse buying, the consumer experiences an instantaneous, overpowering and persistent desire. He characterized the impulse buying as unintended, non-reflective reaction, which occurs soon after being exposed to stimuli inside the store. According to Engel and Blackwell (1982), impulse buying is an action undertaken without previously having been consciously recognized or a buying intention formed prior to entering the store (Engel & Blackwell, 1982). Based upon the different description, researchers conclude that impulse buying involves hedonic purchase decisions which are made inside a store and excludes the reminder purchasing activities (Muruganatham & Kaliyamoorthy, 2005).

The classification of a purchase planned, or impulse began with the Stern (1962) study where he provided the basic framework of impulse buying by categorizing a buying behaviour as planned, unplanned or impulse. Planned purchases involve time consuming, information searching with rational decision making; whereas unplanned buying refers to all shopping decisions made without any advance planning. Impulse buying is distinguished from the unplanned buying in terms of quick decision making. In addition to being unplanned, an impulse purchase also involves experiencing a sudden, strong and irresistible urge to buy. Pure impulse buying is novelty or escape purchase which a shopper breaks the trend of usual shopping (Stern, 1962). Han et.al, (1991) described fashion-oriented impulse as a type of suggestion impulse where the purchase is motivated by self-suggestion to buy the new fashion product. In case of fashion oriented impulse buying, shopper has no previous experience with the new and fashionable product. Mattila and Enz (2002) later argued that fashion oriented impulse buying can be influenced by shopper's own positive emotions when shopping. According to Rook and Hoch (1985), buying impulses actually begin with a consumer's sensation and perception driven by the external stimulus, and are followed by a sudden urge to buy. Mattila and Wirtz (2008) found that store environmental stimuli positively affect impulse buying behaviour especially when the store environment is perceived as over-stimulating. Stimuli in the retail store environment are likely to affect consumer emotions (Donovan, Rossiter, & Marcoolyn, 1994), which are other variables that have been found to affect the impulse purchases (Rook, 1987; Zhou and Wong, 2003).

Dave (2011) pointed out that retail stores in Indian setting and found that all of the in-store measures taken by the retailer affects the impulse stimuli of the customer and therefore contributes towards conversion, but overall the promotional mix can act as base for differentiating a store from others and attracting customers to it. Dawson and Kim (2009) observed that impulse buying is linked to up and cross-selling strategies. Yu and Bastin (2010) studied the effect of in-store Point of Purchase (POP) posters in supermarkets and found them to induce impulse purchase behaviours and cost-effective. In-store stimuli are promotional techniques employed to increase impulse buying of products. Some examples of these techniques include in-store settings, on-shelf positions, price-off promotions, sampling, and point of payment (POP) displays, coupons, and in-store demonstration. Today with the technology innovations not only the shopping environment but also the online buying environment also can be seen. Currently the online impulse buying also is a new area for the researchers.

Association Between Ethnocentrism and Impulsive Buying Behaviour

According to the objectives of this study, identifying the association between Ethnocentrism and Impulsive Buying Behaviour is very important. With the DCD factor issue lot of consumers suddenly changed and switched to different dairy brands. Therefore, lot of multinational brands who were the main players in the market lost their market share. Currently they are trying to rebuild the brands using many brand activations and promotions using the Ethnocentrism application. Therefore, there should be a considerable association between Ethnocentrism and Impulsive Buying Behaviour in the dairy product market. Previous researchers have empirically studied the impact of Ethnocentrism on Impulsive Buying Behaviour of customers. Most of researchers (Youn and Faber (2000); Wanninayake & Chovancova, 2012) noted that the intensity of Impulsive Buying intention can be vary in different context. On the other hand, few researchers only investigated on association between consumer ethnocentrism and impulsive buying behaviour. However, there is no consensus in previous researches regarding those phenomena. When it comes to Sri Lankan context

Impulsive Buying Behaviour can be seen commonly in dairy products due to rapidly changing macro factors. Co-instances in the crisis situation most customers rejected some international dairy brands due to DCD context. However strategically some marketers promote their brands to the consumers based on Ethnocentric appeal. However, there is no sufficient empirical evidence to say their effort is successful. As a result, there is a significant literature gap relating to Sri Lankan context. Therefore, the present study is designed to fulfil that literature gap as much as possible.

Methodology:

Conceptual Model and Hypotheses

The conceptual model for this study is designed as follows. The consumer ethnocentrism is the independent variable, and the impulsive buying behaviour of the consumer is the dependent variable. The consumer behaviour may change according to the changes of the ethnocentrism trait of the consumer.

The conceptual framework is shown in the Figure 1. Conceptual Framework. Previous studies about ethnocentrism tendencies have revealed many factors about the customer behaviours. One study says that the concept of consumer ethnocentrism can improve understanding of how consumers and corporate buyers compare domestic with foreign made products and how and why their judgments may be subject to various forms of bias and error (Nisbett & Ross 1980; Jhon, Scott, & Bettman 1986). One study says that highly ethnocentric consumers are probably most prone to biased judgments by being more inclined to accentuate the positive aspects of local products and to discount the virtues of the foreign made products (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Especially the research done in Sri Lankan market, reveals that young educated customers in Sri Lanka are willing to buy local brands of consumer products (Wanninayake & Chovancova, 2012). Kollat & Wilett (1967) argued that customer's characteristics and demographics influence the impulse purchase. Ethnocentrism is a trait inside the person, and it may impact the impulse buying of the customers. Therefore, in this study how the ethnocentrism impacts on the impulsive buying situation was tested on following hypothesis that was developed based on the previous research.

Hypothesis 1: There is an impact of ethnocentrism on consumer impulsive buying behaviour in dairy product market, Sri Lanka

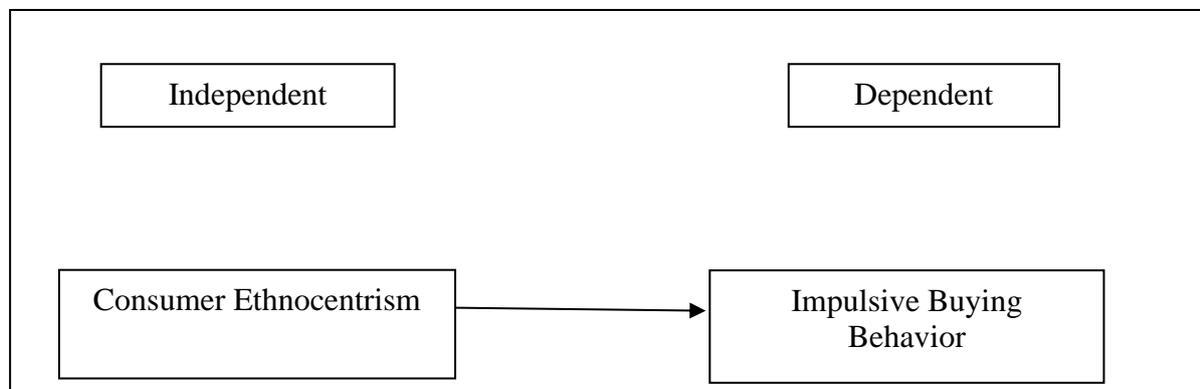


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework. (Source: Researcher developed)

Research Design:

The research study is quantitative, and a field survey was conducted among the selected sample of dairy product consumers. They were asked about their personality trait tendency using popular and different researcher developed models for the variables of Ethnocentrism and Impulsive Buying Behaviour.

Data collection was done through a survey strategy by using a questionnaire. A questionnaire is a set of questions which is an efficient data collection method (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Since the population was large and the population is scattered all over the country, the questionnaire was the best suitable way of collecting data. For the research survey the population was all the dairy product users in Sri Lankan market. From that population 350 people were selected using non probability convenient sampling method and as it name implies, convenient sampling involves collecting information from member of the population who are conveniently available to provide this information (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). Both male and female dairy product users are included in the sample. The respondents were handed a self- administrative questionnaire for data collection. No uncompleted or rejected questionnaires were found. Accordingly, the sample consisted with 123 males and 227 females.

The questionnaire was consisted with questions regarding ethnocentrism and impulsive buying behaviour mainly and relevant few demographic factor testing questions were also included. Consumer Ethnocentrism Tendency Scale (CETScale) developed by Shimp and Sharma (1987) was used to measure the consumer ethnocentrism of the sample. The impulsive buying behaviour was measured using the scale developed by Irem Gure (2012), which consists 6 measurement items on the construct. All the scales were scored on a five-point Likert scale ranging 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). 100 percent accuracy checked when feeding the data to the SPSS format. Before analysing the data, a factor analysis was done in order to assure the internal consistency. Then the reliability was checked using the Cronbach’s Alpha and the validity was assured through the measurements that are already validated by other researchers. Data analysing was done using the SPSS 19 package, to find out the relationship between the ethnocentrism and impulsive buying behaviour.

Discussions and findings:

The factor analysis was run by the researcher in order to test the internal consistency of the variables. Fourteen items from the Ethnocentrism Tendency Scale and four items from the impulsive buying behaviour scale were removed due to weak loading and loading in other components columns. As per the KMO and Barlett’s test the selected sample is adequate, since the value is 0.593 which is more than 0.5 and the value is significant (.000). The KMO and Bartlett’s Test is tabulated in Table 1.

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.593
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1.244E3
	Df	91
	Sig.	.000

Table 1. KMO and Bartlett's Test (Source: Survey data)

The factor loading cut-off mark was decided as 0.5 which is commonly used by the researchers. The factor loadings were tabulated in Table 2. Factor Loadings.

	Component	
	Ethnocentrism	Impulsive Buying Behaviour
Buy Sri Lankan made products. Keep Sri Lanka working	.895	
We should buy from foreign countries only those products we cannot obtain within our own country	.525	
Sri Lankan products first, last and foremost	.838	
I carefully plan most of my purchases		.830
Even when I see something I really like, I do not buy it unless it is a planned purchase		.821

Table 2. Factor Loadings (Source: Survey data)

Further reliability analysis was done to measure the internal consistencies of the total scores for each scale through Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient as shown in the Table 3. Reliability Statistics.

Scale	Cronbach's Alpha	No of Items
Ethnocentrism (CETScale)	.793	3
Impulsive buying Behaviour	.730	2

Table 3. Reliability statistics (Source: Survey data)

The analysed data was reliable according to the Cronbach Alpha coefficient as the all values were above 0.7 for all the variables of Ethnocentrism and Impulsive Buying Behaviour.

According to the collected primary data the mean values for measurement items and the average were as tabulated in Table 4. Descriptive statistics of Ethnocentrism trait. According to descriptive statistics shown in Table the Consumer Tendency Scale gets the average mean value of 3.42 (in the range of 2.33-3.67) which reveals that in Sri Lankan context the ethnocentrism tendency is in medium level.

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Buy Sri Lankan made products. Keep Sri Lanka working	350	3.40	1.137
Sri Lankan products first, last and foremost	350	3.35	0.997
We should buy from foreign countries only those products we cannot obtain within our own country	350	3.52	0.942
Average	350	3.42	0.8649

Table 4. Descriptive statistics of Ethnocentrism trait (Source: Survey Data)

Descriptive statistics of Impulsive Buying Behaviour are presented in Table 5. According to the descriptive statistics of impulsive buying behaviour scale shown in the table 5, the average mean value is 3.76. In Sri Lankan context the consumer impulsive buying behaviour is more towards middle level.

Sri Lankan customers are motivated to buy the dairy products impulsively in a moderate level. When 35 percent disagree on impulsive buying another 42 percent is involving in impulsive buying behaviour. Especially consumers are more concerning about the situations in dairy market. For the impulsive dairy purchases the dairy market issues are impacted as; for 20 percent of people issues are not much impacted, for 35 percent it is neutral and for 45 percent the issues in the dairy product market has impacted for impulsive purchases. Therefore, the impulsive buying behaviour of the Sri Lankan customers are in moderate level. Pearson Correlation and Multiple Regression methods are used to test the hypothesis of the study. Hypothesis is tested for possible rejection or acceptance in order to answer the research question. Hypothesis testing is used to provide solution to research problem.

Item	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
I carefully plan most of my purchases	350	3.73	0.719
Even when I see something I really like, I do not buy it unless it is a planned purchase	350	3.79	0.821
Average	350	3.762	0.685

Table 5. Descriptive statistics of Impulsive Buying Behaviour (Source: Survey data)

The Correlation statistics of the variables are shown in the Table 6. According to the correlation statistics, there is a negative relationship (-0.157) between Consumer Ethnocentrism and Consumer Impulsive Buying Behaviour that is significant at the level of 0.013. With the analysed data, the relationship between ethnocentrism and impulsive buying behaviour can be assured in the confidence level of 95 percent.

According to the analysis 35 percent were males and 65 percent were female respondents. Majority of them (55 percent) are in the age range of 15 to 30 years and 25 percent of the respondents are in the age range of 31 to 45 years. These age ranges are the decision makers of the family and the heavy users of the dairy products in the market.

According to Wanninayake & Chovancova (2012), it is proved that the Sri Lankan consumers have the medium level of ethnocentric ideas in their buying patterns. In this study also the descriptive analysis gives Ethnocentrism average mean value as 3.42. This gives the idea of that in Sri Lankan dairy product market, the consumers have medium level of Ethnocentrism personality trait. Sri Lankan people are not much concerning about the ethnocentric ideas when they decide on the impulsively purchases at the dairy market.

Correlation analysis reveals that the relationship between the variables. According to the analysis, Consumer ethnocentrism and consumer impulsive buying behaviour has a negative relationship (-0.157). The impulsive buying behaviour of the consumers is not highly impacted by the consumer ethnocentrism trait. This reveals that the consumers who have the ethnocentrism trait in most of the time purchase with a planned manner not in impulse.

Item	Value
Pearson Correlation	-0.157
Significance	0.013
Number	350

Table 6. Correlation statistics (Source: Survey data)

The model summary of the regression analysis is shown in the Table 7. According to the regression analysis, the significance level is 0.013 that the relationship between the Ethnocentrism and the Impulsive Buying Behaviour is significant at the confidence level of 95 percent.

Item	Value
Adjusted R Square	0.021
F value	6.279
Df	1
Beta	-0.157
Significance level	0.013

Table 7. Model Summary (Source: Survey data)

Conclusion:

This research study focused on identifying the impact of ethnocentrism on consumer impulsive buying behaviour in dairy product market in Sri Lanka. According to the findings, the hypothesis of; ‘There is an impact of ethnocentrism on consumer impulsive buying behaviour in dairy product market, Sri Lanka’ is accepted since there is an impact from the ethnocentrism personality trait of the Sri Lankan dairy product consumers.

Sri Lankans are not very much concerning about the ethnocentric ideas when they decide on the purchasing the dairy product. But for certain extent Sri Lankans think that they should buy Sri Lankan products rather than foreign products. But in the dairy product market consumers are not much concerned about ethnocentrism. Though the consumers have the idea of those consuming foreign brands, is not meant that it is un-Sri Lankan. Rather than more concerning about the ethnocentrism, consumers are more concerning about other factors that happen in the market. Sri Lankans think that they should buy Sri Lankan products and limit imports. But according to the analysis in the Sri Lankan dairy market, ethnocentrism impacts on the consumer buying behaviour in a medium level.

The Adjusted R2 value is 0.021 that shows the impact of the ethnocentrism trait on the impulsive buying behaviour for dairy product market is only 2.1 percent. The consumers are buying the local dairy products more not because they are more ethnocentric, but they concern other factors that happening in the dairy market such as DCD crisis and health issues. The multinational companies who lost their market share adversely are trying to come up with ethnocentric ideas with the promotional activities. But according to the study the customers are not very much concerned about the ethnocentrism when they get purchasing decisions in dairy market. The dairy product market is highly growing and competitive market. The local and multinational companies should not only focus on Ethnocentrism perspective to promote and develop the brand within the dairy users.

This research study has the managerial implications that are useful for the stakeholders of the dairy industry. The domestic company marketers this research may help to get the idea of the personality traits of ethnocentrism. Some local brands are promoting their brands focusing on the ethnocentrism. But they do not know whether there is a real impact from ethnocentrism. Therefore, from this research the local company marketers can get the idea whether there is any effectiveness of promoting the dairy products focusing the ethnocentrism. Also, the marketers can get to know the impulsive buying behaviour patterns in the dairy market for their branding and promotional plans. For multinational dairy companies, this research gives information how the ethnocentrism impacts and the competitiveness of the dairy product market with the local brand promotions with the ethnocentrism. To give a counter-attack of the local branding activations the multinational companies should know the market behaviour. The multinational companies also can get the idea of how the personality trait of ethnocentrism impacting, to identify the impulsive buying behaviour patterns of the customers in dairy market and to come up with the promotional activities. This research is connected to the sociology, marketing anthropology, psychology etc. Therefore, for the researchers who are seeking for interesting and important areas, this research may give a guidance to do research on dairy market in new areas. Especially for the prevailing dairy product, which was in a crisis, needs more research to be done. For the academics such as undergraduates this research may provide good guidance on how the customers' behaving in the dairy market specially the subjects like consumer behaviour. The academics can get the idea of with the recent issues in dairy market whether the customer attitudes and mind set has changed, and how the personality traits impacts on the consumer buying behaviour. From this research customers can get their own evaluation on their buying patterns, how their personality trait impact on the purchasing and especially knowing their impulsive purchasing in dairy products.

For new early career researchers there is more research to be done in the dairy market with the recent issues happened. Researchers can do research on what are the factors affecting to rebuild the brand trust, what is the main criteria that customers concern when buying dairy products, what are the major factors that impact on impulsive buying in dairy market etc. From doing these research areas may help marketers and companies to get idea about what, how and where they should promote their brands in a successful way.

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