

# **Training and the Policy Entrepreneurship ‘Intention-Behavior Gap’ amongst Public Workers: Essays on Policy Entrepreneurship**

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## **Introduction**

### **Research Problem**

The goal of the proposed research is to answer the question: can policy entrepreneurship training affect the policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gap amongst public workers? If so, how and why? Recently, the business administration literature has shown a growing interest in entrepreneurship education and its impact on minimizing the intention-behavior gap towards entrepreneurship. Intention-behavior gap is the correlation between intentions to perform a behavior and the actual behavior (Van Gelderen et al. 2015). This stream of research is based on two assumptions: first, an assumption that while many people have intentions to act as entrepreneurs only few will turn these intentions into actual behavior (the ‘intention-behavior gap’); and second, an assumption that entrepreneurs are not “born,” but can be trained to be successful entrepreneurs and the intention-behavior gap can be minimized (Dickson et al., 2008; Kuratko, 2005; Piperopoulos and Dimov, 2015). Yet, despite a growing interest in policy entrepreneurship in the public domain (Mintrom, 2000; Roberts and King, 1991; Zahariadis, 2007, 2014), this strand of literature has not yet dealt with researching policy entrepreneurship intentions and behaviors amongst “common” public workers, but rather focused on analyzing the rare phenomena of successful heroic policy entrepreneurs (Mintrom, 2000).

Policy entrepreneurs differ from other entrepreneurs. They are innovative individuals from the private, public or third sectors who pursue opportunities to influence policy formation and outcomes beyond the resources they hold (Kingdon, 1984; Mintrom, 2000, 2013; Zahariadis, 2007; Zahariadis and Exadaktylos, 2016). Successful policy entrepreneurs invest a great deal of effort in garnering attention for their proposed policies (Mintrom, 2000). They are active *throughout the*

*policy process*: defining problems and placing their proposed solutions to them on the political agenda, formulating policies in the direction they desire, legitimizing them, facilitating their implementation and promoting their evaluation. These persistent individuals are willing to risk what they have-time, money and reputation--in order to promote a policy they favor (Kingdon, 1984).

The focus of this research is on policy entrepreneurs from the public sector. In the last two decades public management has undergone a dramatic change. Transforming administration from controlling bureaucracies and delivering services to a new, leaner, and increasingly privatized government has forced public administrators to “steer rather than row” (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2015). The demand to be entrepreneurs and create a new path for administration both by bringing innovation into the public sector and by influencing policy outcomes has increased significantly. These changes have led to a growing interest in entrepreneurship amongst public servants (Roberts and King, 1991).

I present two distinct but connected essays using multiple research methods consisting of quantitative and qualitative methods to advance the scholarly debate on policy entrepreneurship. In the first essay I develop and test a model detailing how the policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gap develops. According to the model, there is a gap between policy entrepreneurship intentions and policy entrepreneurship behavior amongst public workers, which entails that public workers hold intentions to affect policy that do not turn into action. I offer two moderators to explain this gap: coupling self-efficacy and perceived policy network characteristics. In the second essay I will conduct a first-of-its kind field experiment that measures the effect of policy entrepreneurship training on policy entrepreneurship intentions and behaviors. In addition, qualitative data will be collected using two focus groups and 20 in-depth interviews with participants in the field experiment in order to deepen the understanding of the mechanism through which policy entrepreneurship training may affect entrepreneurial intentions, behaviors and thus, minimizing the ‘intention-behavior gap’.

### **Potential Research Contributions**

From a theoretical perspective, this study has the potential to advance the public administration and policy literature. If we can measure the effect of policy entrepreneurship training on intentions and behaviors, we may be able to modify these intentions and behaviors. Establishing that such is the case may add to the ongoing debate about whether the determinants of policy entrepreneurship are endogenous or exogenous. The theoretical model suggested allows for a deeper theoretical understanding of policy entrepreneurship intentions and behaviors amongst public workers. It sheds light on the perceptions of public employees towards policy entrepreneurship and policy making, and aims to explain why the phenomena of policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gap exists. This advances both the public administration literature and its understanding of public employees' intentions and behaviors, and more specifically the policy entrepreneurship literature by adjusting theories from social psychology to this area of study.

From a methodological point of view, this study is useful for its creation of scales for measuring policy entrepreneurship intentions and behaviors, the intention-behavior gap as well as perception moderators, that can be used extensively in future works. Such an assessment device paves the way for comparative analyses and the possibility of gathering more data on policy entrepreneurship. To date, the lack of such a tool has meant that most research in policy entrepreneurship research has typically been conceptual, and the empirical research has generally been qualitative. While qualitative research is better for theory building (Sutton and Staw, 1995), quantitative research is necessary for empirical evidence (Bacharach, 1989). In addition, I will develop a rationale and curriculum for a policy entrepreneurship training workshop that can also be used as an intervention tool.

From an empirical point of view, this research focuses on policy entrepreneurship in Israel at the national and local level. It concentrates on the unique aspects of Israeli policy making and professional training, but can be applied to other developing societies that have experienced similar policy changes in recent decades.

Finally, from a practical point of view, the thesis will provide recommendations about how to structure action based policy entrepreneurship training programs that can be used amongst decision makers and managers. Such programs will create an environment that inspires and nurtures policy entrepreneurship as a form of political participation that strengthens democracy (Almond and Verba, 2015).

## **Essay 1: A Model Explaining the Policy Entrepreneurship Intention-Behavior Gap Amongst Public Workers**

### **Research problem**

The goal of this essay is to offer a model explaining the intention-behavior gap of policy entrepreneurship amongst public workers. Lately, there is a scholarly debate on how professional public workers, such as nurses and social workers, effect policy formation (Gal and Weiss- Gal, 2013). This is based on a normative assumption that the active intervention of these professional, skillful and knowledged workers on the policy process may yield a better policy. Moreover, a vast stream of the literature in public administration has claimed that workers in the public sector have a unique public service motivation (PSM) that includes attraction to policy making (Perry and Wise, 1990). One can therefore assume that a will to shape public policy exists amongst many public workers.

Yet, despite an assumption that these intentions exist, the literature on policy entrepreneurs focused mainly on heroes, rare and unique personalities that acted as policy entrepreneurs (Zaharadias, 2007; Mintrom, 2000). The literature is based on the analysis of successful policy entrepreneurship, thus not dealing with potential policy entrepreneurs or with policy entrepreneurs that have intentions that have not yet turned into behavior. In this essay I aim to address this lacuna by measuring the intention- behavior gap of policy entrepreneurship amongst public workers, and then by offering a model to explain this gap. I ask several questions: *Do public workers have intentions to shape policy and if so to what extent? Do public workers actually shape policy and if so to what extent? To what extent is there a gap between their intentions and their actual behavior? What moderators can explain this gap?*

To address these questions, this study links the theory on policy entrepreneurs with the social psychology well cited theory of planned behavior (Ajzen, 1991 ; Ajzen, 2011) in a quest to study the actions, or lack of actions, that follow the formation of policy entrepreneurial intentions. The theory of planned behavior is based on two assumptions: (1) behavioral performance can be predicted from the intentions to engage in the behavior in question, and (2) the intentions can be

predicted from the cognitive antecedents that are derived from the attitudes of the individual towards the behavior, the way s/he perceives the attitudes of others towards the behavior and his/her perceived capabilities of doing the behavior (Ajzen, 1991).

Lately, the theory of planned behavior was criticized for holding the assumption that forming a strong intention is enough for causing behavior. Having strong intentions to perform a behavior was not found to be sufficient in health behavior (Rhodes and Bruijn, 2013), commercial behavior (Carrigan and Attalla, 2001) as well as in entrepreneurial behavior (Adam and Fayolle, 2016). Thus, intention is now understood to be only a preliminary stage of successful goal attainment, because implementation issues remain to be resolved (Gollwitzer and Sheeran, 2006). By offering a model to explain the intention-behavior gap of policy entrepreneurship I add to the on-going debate on the intention-behavior gap.

### **The intention- behavior gap of policy entrepreneurship: Model and hypotheses**

#### **Policy entrepreneurship ‘intention-behavior gap’**

A behavioral intention is a person's motivation to perform a behavior, encompassing both the direction (to do X vs. not to do X) and the intensity (time and effort the person is prepared to invest in doing X) (Sheeran, 2002). The behavior is the action steps taken. While the literature acknowledges the importance of intention as the first step toward behavior, Ajzen (1987) has shown that intentions only explain about 30% of the variance in behavior. This is confirmed by Armitage and Conner (2001) who found that only an average 27% of the variance in behavior was explained by behavioral intentions, in 185 researches.

In a meta-analysis of meta-analyses, Sheeran (2002) has found that the intention–behavior correlation is higher for single acts than for goal intentions requiring complex constellations of actions. This is not surprising because a single act requires less emotional and practical capabilities. On a contrary, policy entrepreneurship is complex both in mind and in actions. Emotionally, it entails a large amount of courage. As Kingdon notes, "policy entrepreneurs are individuals who are willing to invest "time, energy, reputation, money--to promote a position for anticipated future gain in the form of material, purposive or solidary benefits" (Kingdon, 1995, p. 179). These individuals

have a lot to lose if they fail, and people hate to lose (Tversky and Kahneman, 1981). Moreover, the complexity of the policy process creates uncertainty that is emotionally hard to bear. The need to couple the problem, policy and politics in order to open a "policy window" creates uncertainty and dependency on many outside variables, as "the effects of any one variable on policy outputs depend on the values of other independent variables" (Travis and Zahariadis, 2002: 497). Therefore. This task is not only about the individual taking the action (eating healthy vs. not eating healthy), but rather on his dependence on other factors and players in the policy process, which in turn raises the uncertainty. From an action prospective, policy entrepreneurship requires many practical skills that are necessary for coupling the streams together (Mintrom, 2000), which make this mission complex and challenging. Because the policy entrepreneurship task is s complex and risky, I assume that there is a gap between intentions to shape policy amongst public workers, and actual policy entrepreneurship behavior. I therefore hypothesize that:

*H1: There is a gap between intentions to affect policy and policy entrepreneurship behavior; intentions will be higher than actual behavior amongst public workers.*

#### Moderators: Coupling self- efficacy and policy making setting

Zahariadis (2008: 520) has emphasized that "The likelihood of coupling success increases under four conditions: entrepreneurial effectiveness, framing, venue-shopping, and policy modes. The first refers to individual attributes, the other two to strategies, and the last to institutional context". Following this claim, I identify two critical parts for successful policy entrepreneurship: the skills of the entrepreneur and the institutionalized policy making setting in which the entrepreneur works in. Institutions matter, because entrepreneurs work within the institution, are maneuvered by institutions and maneuver institutions to their will. In the absence of institutional constraints entrepreneurs are free to use their skills effectively to pursue their own objectives, and in many institutional constraints the most skillful entrepreneur will fail. In this work, I focus on the "intention-behavior gap," reflecting the black-box nature of the underlying psychological process that leads from intention to action. Next, I present two cognitive moderators that may shed light on this black-box in the context of policy entrepreneurship.

## **Coupling self-efficacy**

Self-efficacy is based on an individual's self-perceptions of their skills and abilities. The concept reflects an individual's inner thoughts on whether they have the abilities to perform a certain task, as well as the belief that they will be able to turn these skills into a chosen outcome (Bandura, 1989, 1997). Research has shown that self-efficacy is a key factor in determining human agency (Bandura, 1989), and in predicting one's success, as those with high self-efficacy for a certain task are more likely to pursue and then persist in that task (Bandura, 1997).

Coupling self-efficacy is the public worker's self-perception that he has the skills and abilities needed to be a policy entrepreneur and the perception that he can actually be a policy entrepreneur. I follow two main scholars on policy entrepreneurship (Michael Mintrom and Nikolas Zahariadis) to list the main skills and abilities a successful policy entrepreneur needs, which are: Access to the center of power by position and presence, resources: time and money, technical expertise, knowledge of the policy process (Zaharadias, 2008). In addition, an ability to define problems, capacity to build teams and an ability to lead by example (Mintrom and Norman, 2009). I assume that the more the public worker perceives himself as having stronger capabilities, the less uncertainty and more confidence he will have, and that in turn will higher the chances of acting as a policy entrepreneur. I therefore hypothesize that:

*H2: Coupling self-efficacy moderates the relationship between intention strength and taking action such that the effect of intention strength on taking action will be stronger when coupling self-efficacy is higher.*

## **Perceived policy network characteristics**

The intention-behavior gap is not only moderated by a public worker's perceptions of his own capabilities, but rather also by the way he perceives the policy process, the institutional setting in which he/she works in and the unique attributes of the policy he wants to push through. As Christopoulos (2006) noted, "Personal and positional attributes as well as structural and institutional constraints affect the ability of actors to influence policy and therefore be 'entrepreneurial'" (p. 758).

As discussed above, three streams run simultaneously in the policy process: problem, policy and politics. Next, I focus on the policy network and use the literature on policy network and policy entrepreneurs to hypothesize how perceptions of the policy network may moderate the intention-behavior gap, causing public workers not to pursue their policy pet solution.

“A policy network consists of a group of actors who share an interest in some policy area and who are linked by their direct and indirect contacts with one another” (Mintrom and Vergari, 1998). Recent research on policy entrepreneurs has paid attention to the power of the networks in which policy entrepreneurs operate in potentially controlling policy entrepreneurship behavior (Arnold et al., 2016; Christopoulos, 2006; Zahradis and Allen, 2005; Mintrom and Vergari, 1998). Christopoulos (2006) explains how networks affect policy entrepreneurship abilities in any stream and in coupling the streams: “Networks can (1) facilitate coalition building; (2) ameliorate shocks from institutional transformation; (3) facilitate efficient sourcing and allocation of resources; (4) apply a filter to the information reaching actors; and (5) ameliorate risks and therefore lead to impunity of higher risk-taking” (p. 761).

Being the first to link policy networks and policy entrepreneurs, Mintrom and Vergari (1998) use the internal-external categorization. Internal policy networks are composed of people outside the entrepreneur’s organization, mainly colleagues and professionals in the policy domain. These networks were found important primarily for facilitating agenda setting. Internal policy networks are made up of people in and around the entrepreneur’s organization, mainly local politicians and decision makers. Thus, internal networks are mainly important for ensuring approval of policy ideas. Rhodes (1988) differentiates between three forms of policy networks: professional networks, producer networks and inter-governmental networks. In this research I follow Mintrom and Vergari (1998) and relate both to the inter-governmental network (internal) and the professional network (external) in which the policy entrepreneur works in.

Zahariadis and Allen (2005) propose the notion of policy network integration, which accounts for the “linkages among participants” (p. 75). They offer to measure policy network’s integration by four dimensions: size, mode, capacity, and access. I use this terminology to

hypothesize on the policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gap, as hereby offered. Size is the number of participants, the larger the network is the more persuasive work is needed internally and the more power it has externally. Mode refers to the dynamics, conflictual or consensual. In a more consensual network it will be harder to push through new ideas. Capacity refers to the extent to which the network has the tools to manage policy. The more capacity the network has, the more chances that the policy will be accepted. Access refers to the ability of the policy entrepreneur to offer his idea, in a higher access, less hierarchical network, it will be easier to push through ideas. In the next hypothesis I use the external-internal categorization, as well as the integration categorization:

*H3a: The size of the internal and external network moderates the relationship between intention strength and taking action such that the effect of intention strength on taking action will be stronger when the perceived network size is bigger.*

*H3b: The mode of the internal and external network moderates the relationship between intention strength and taking action such that the effect of intention strength on taking action will be stronger when the perceived network mode is competitive.*

*H3c: The capacity of the internal and external network moderates the relationship between intention strength and taking action such that the effect of intention strength on taking action will be stronger when the perceived network capacity is higher.*

*H3d: The access of the internal and external network moderates the relationship between intention strength and taking action such that the effect of intention strength on taking action will be stronger when the perceived network access is higher.*

The suggested full model of the policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gaps moderators, is presented in Appendix A, Figure 1.

## Method

### Research design

The study will be conducted in two stages. First, scales will be developed and validated to measure the variables in the model: policy entrepreneurship intentions, policy entrepreneurship behavior, coupling self-efficacy and perceived policy network characteristics. The development of new scales is not an easy task and to make sure it is reliable, I will build it gradually based on the following steps as suggested in scale development guides (Clark and Watson, 1995). First, As Churchill Jr. (1979) and Verzat and Bachelet (2006) suggested, the scales will be constructed based on a thorough literature review. The review will include constructs from previous studies in social psychology and entrepreneurship. Second, I will create an item pool that will be as inclusive as possible and demonstrate content validity which answers the question whether the new scale captures the entire meaning of the variable, and face validity, which focuses on the value of the new scale in the eyes of others (Clark and Watson, 1995). Third, three experts on policy entrepreneurs will test the scales validity and reliability through a pilot study (Churchill Jr., 1979). Fourth, I will examine the construct validity of the measures using a sample of 500 subjects from Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk; [www.mturk.com](http://www.mturk.com)), which is a panel of individuals who self-select to participate in research studies for a small monetary compensation. MTurk samples have been shown to be well suited for employee-focused research in management research (Barger and Sinar, 2011). This will also allow to measure internal consistency, equivalence reliability (comparison between divergent contexts), and representative reliability (comparison between sub-populations). I will use Cronbach's alpha to assess the internal consistency; Split-Half technique and Spearman-Browne Correlation Coefficient to test the equivalence reliability; and independent samples t-tests for groups of different demographics characteristics to test the representative reliability, independent samples t-tests for groups of different demographics characteristics. Last, I will assess the discriminant validity by confirming that all items corresponding to a specific construct will have a higher loading with the appropriate construct than with any other construct using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Fox, 1983).

Special attention will be paid to common method bias that may affect the outcomes of this survey. I will follow MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012) who point to the importance of adjusting the survey to the capabilities of the respondents as a means to minimize common method bias. Therefore, I will select currently working respondents with enough expertise to answer survey questions, avoid referring to vague concepts, use clear language, label all response options, and relate to current situation rather than retrospective situations. Moreover, I will enhance motivation by explaining research aims and scope.

In the second stage, I will measure the individual's public workers perception using a sample of 250 public servants currently working in Israel (professional in government offices, nurses, social workers and local government employees). To reach a large sample of currently working public employees in different policy domains and at different government levels, I will collaborate with the State Civil Service Commission from the central government and the Mifa'm from the local government, as well as with hospitals and universities where public employees are engaged in M.A studies (Masters of Public Administration, Masters of Public Health etc.).

### **Measures**

It is important to note that while the intention- behavior gap is a theoretical concept hereby used, empirically I will measure the correlation between the two variables: policy entrepreneurship intentions and policy entrepreneurship behaviors (and not the actual gap) as relate to them as two different phenomena.

#### Dependent variable: Policy entrepreneurship behavior

The dependent variable in this study, policy entrepreneurship behavior, captures whether and how the respondent had engaged in policy entrepreneurship behavior. The operationalization of this variable relies on the concept of the entrepreneurial ladder (Van der Zwan et al., 2010). Instead of treating the decision to become a policy entrepreneur as a binary choice, the concept of the entrepreneurial ladder views the process as consisting of a series of ordered engagement levels where each level represents an increasing level of involvement in the entrepreneurial process. Thus it relates to the behavior as a process, rather than an outcome (Ajzen, 1981). The strategies identified

in literature on policy entrepreneurship would form this ladder. A Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (often) will be used. (For examples of questions to be included in the questionnaire: see appendix B.).

#### Independent variable: Policy entrepreneurship intention

The independent variable in this study, policy entrepreneurship intentions, captures whether, and to what extent, the respondent has intentions to engage in policy entrepreneurship behavior. According to Thompson (2009), having entrepreneurial intention is not a binary yes or no question, but rather an extent ranging from ‘very low’ to ‘very high’. To measure policy entrepreneurship intentions, I will use the specific policy entrepreneurship strategies, i.e the activities or tasks identified, and ask on the extent to which the respondent has the intentions to engage in this behavior (Ajzen, 1991; Gollwitzer, 1999). I will follow Armitage and Conner (2001) in formulating the items on the questionnaire. They identified three distinct kinds of measures of intention: desire (“I want to . . .”), self-prediction (“How likely it is . . .”) and behavioral intention (“I intend to . . .”), which they determined to be the most accurate (p. 483). A Likert scale ranging from 1 (low intentions) to 7 (high intentions) will be used (Appendix B.).

#### Moderators: Coupling Self efficacy

The first moderator in this study, coupling self-efficacy, captures the extent to which the respondent feels confident that he has the skills and abilities to perform policy entrepreneurship tasks. Following Zhao et al. (2005), and opposed to the general self-efficacy strand (Chen et al. 2011), I claim that self-efficacy expectations generalize to a set of specific interrelated tasks (Gist, 1987). I will therefore develop items to measure self-efficacy regarding specific policy entrepreneurship tasks, as described above. I will ask respondents how confident they are in getting access to the center of power by position and presence, having resources: time and money, technical expertise, knowledge of the policy process, ability to define problems, capacity to build teams and an ability

to lead by example. A Likert scale ranging from 1 (no confidence) to 7 (complete confidence) will be used (Appendix B.).

### Perceived policy network characteristics

The second moderator in this study, Perceived policy network characteristics, captures the ease/difficulty of the policy network in which the respondent works in. I will ask respondents on the size, mode, capacity and access of the policy internal (inter-organizational, local-political) and external (professional, national-political) policy networks in which they work in. A Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7 will be used for every aspect (Appendix B.).

### Control variables

To ensure sufficient internal validity, I will employ a number of control variables that might provide alternative explanations: (1) Policy domain, (2) Government level, (3) Age, gender, tenure, and education of the public worker, (4) Size of organization.

### **Statistical Analysis**

Statistical analysis will be performed using the SPSS 23.0 program. After completing a reliability and validity tests for the research variables as described, data will be manipulated, described, and analyzed. A bivariate analysis would be conducted, using Pearson's test to examine correlations between the continuous variables. Then, a multivariate analysis would be conducted using stepwise linear regression, and the moderating hypothesis would be tested with the regression-based bootstrapping approach described by Hayes' PROCESS macro model #1 (Hayes, 2015). In addition, I will perform structural equation modeling (SEM) using AMOS (Ullman and Bentler, 2003).

### **Essay 3: Can Training Affect the Policy Entrepreneurship ‘Intention-Behavior Gap’?**

#### **Research problem**

In the era of New Public Management and Post-New Public Management there is a call for reinventing government. Part of the expanding literature calls for new types of public employees, those who are entrepreneurial and innovative, who can address the rapidly changing needs of citizens, public goods and policy (Osborne and Gaebler, 1992). Thus, if scholars regard policy entrepreneurship as a positive behavior (Mintrom, 2000), a crucial task for policy entrepreneurship researchers is to understand what interventions can actually impact the likelihood of policy entrepreneurship behavior occurring.

The effect of entrepreneurship training on entrepreneurship intentions is the focus of recent research in the commercial (for an overview see: Liñán and Fayolle, 2014) and social entrepreneurship literature (Hockerts, 2016), yet it focuses mainly on intentions, and not on the effect of training on the intention-behavior gap. In the first essay, and even more so in this essay, I broaden the scope and use the social psychology and the general entrepreneurship research fields as a departure point for deepening our understanding of policy entrepreneurship intentions and behaviors. In doing so, I relate to policy entrepreneurship as a sub-discipline of entrepreneurship and place this study in the field of entrepreneurship research, with the goal of advancing the field of policy entrepreneurship by adopting insights from related areas (Mintrom, 2000).

Mintrom (2000) suggests that policy entrepreneurs are not a unique phenomenon of a small number of heroic figures, but rather can be found amongst many actors in the policy domain. This notion is widely accepted amongst scholars in the commercial entrepreneurship literature (Fayolle and Liñán, 2014; Krueger et al., 2000; Liñán, 2004; Martín et al., 2013), thus assuming that entrepreneurship can be taught. In this essay I aim to test how training affects policy entrepreneurship intentions and behaviors. By doing so, I contribute to the long scholarly debate

over whether entrepreneurship is a trait one is born with, or if it can be learned. The main research question I therefore address is: *What impact does policy entrepreneurship training have on the policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gap?*

### **Lessons from the literature on entrepreneurship education: A starting point for the extended model**

Despite the lack of research on entrepreneurship training in the policy entrepreneurship literature, studies in business management have extensively investigated the effect of entrepreneurship education, mainly on entrepreneurship intentions, neglecting the behavior outcome. There has been a significant growth in entrepreneurship education in business schools around the world (Martin et al., 2013), which reflects a widespread belief in the positive impact of such training on intentions. Research has contributed to this belief and underlined the positive impact of entrepreneurship education (Bae et al., 2014; Fayolle, 2013; Martin et al., 2013). Liñán (2004) classified entrepreneurship education programs in business schools into four main groups. The first, "*Entrepreneurial Awareness Education*", seeks to increase knowledge about entrepreneurship and influence the attitudes that may impact intentions. The second, "*Education for Start-Ups*", is aimed at people who already have an entrepreneurial idea and need to solve practical questions about becoming self-employed. The third, "*Education for Entrepreneurial Dynamism*", focuses on people who are already entrepreneurs and want to promote dynamic behaviors after the start-up phase. The last category, "*Continuing Education for Entrepreneurs*", describes life-long learning programs and focuses on experienced entrepreneurs. My proposed research falls into the first group, because it focuses on increasing entrepreneurial intentions.

The pedagogical content of entrepreneurship education is rather fluid. As Fayolle and Gailly (2008) state, entrepreneurship education's teaching models are "rarely used in the entrepreneurship field [since] there is no common framework or agreed good practices regarding how to teach or educate" (p. 571). Johannisson (1991) introduces a framework for identifying the competences needed for an entrepreneurial career and categorizes them into five levels of knowledge that an entrepreneur needs: "know-why", the attitudes, values, and motivations; "know-how", the

abilities, “know-who”, the social skills; “know-when”, choosing the right moment, and “know-what”, the theoretical and practical knowledge. Addressing these levels of knowledge can minimize the intention-behavior gap. Knowing why affects attitude, while the remaining factors can affect perceived control of the behavior. Knowing how, when and with who makes the entrepreneur more certain of his or her abilities, and the perceived policy networks support of the behavior.

Despite the vast and growing body of research on entrepreneurship education, there are some main limitations of the research so far. Most important limitation that this research aims to address is that research has extensively measured the effect of training on intentions, neglecting the effect of training on actual behavior (Van Gelderen et al. 2015). This calls for a need to investigate under what conditions people turn their entrepreneurship intentions into actions or fail to do so. Fayolle and Liñán (2014) point to two more limitations. First, neglecting the element of institutions and their influence on entrepreneurial intentions. By considering the phenomenon in public institutions, this research can shed light on this matter and extend theory beyond business administration. Second, there is a methodological gap that calls for the use of a treatment group and a control group, randomization in assigning participants to these two groups, and measures of the variables before and after interventions. My proposed research uses this methodology.

Although there are vast differences between business entrepreneurs and policy entrepreneurs, Cohen (2012; 2016) suggests that they share three defining characteristics: 1) exploiting an opportunity; 2) creating a profit; 3) acting without regard for alienable resources currently not in their control. Hence, there is solid justification for and great potential in applying lessons from one field to another. In addition, as described above, entrepreneurship education may influence entrepreneurial intentions. Hill (2003) acknowledges “learning as a critical ingredient in street-level change. The more learning opportunities police officers, teachers, or other implementers are given, *the more reform they create...*” (p. 266). Thus, comparing the fields of entrepreneurship education and policy entrepreneurs may yield important conclusions on the work of public entrepreneurs.

## **The effect of training on the intention-behavior gap: Research hypotheses**

In the previous essay I introduced the model of policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gap, and claimed that two moderators affect this gap. This is important for this essay because in the case of behavior change, it is necessary to understand why people engage (or do not engage) in the behavior of interest, in order to plan specific behavior change methods that target specific beliefs (Kok et al., 2016). In this essay I develop this model by adding the variable of policy entrepreneurship training (for an overview on program as an intervention variables see: Donaldson, 2001). Next, I present two hypotheses on the positive effect of policy entrepreneurship training on the two moderators of the policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gap: coupling self- efficacy and perceived policy network characteristics. Last, I hypothesize that if the training positively affect the moderators, the intention- behavior link will become stronger.

The notion that training affects behavior is based on human capital theory, which posits that knowledge increases people's cognitive abilities, leading to more productive and efficient potential activity (Becker, 1967; Schultz, 1959). Human capital refers not just to formal education, but also to experience and the practical learning that takes place on the job, as well as non-formal education, such as specific training courses that are not part of traditional formal educational structures (Becker, 1967).

The policy entrepreneurship training that will be used in this research is based on action regulation theory (Frese and Zapf, 1994). According to this theory, training should be based on practical guidelines. It includes the following components: teaching in the form of action principles, learning-by-doing, providing action feedback, and active training tasks and real-world tasks. Next, I present hypotheses about the effect of such training on coupling self-efficacy and perceived policy network characteristics.

### Training's effect on coupling self-efficacy

Coupling self-efficacy consist of one's confidence in his capabilities to engage in the behavior. Policy entrepreneurship training can affect the perceptions about one's internal personal abilities. Such training should include strengthening the policy entrepreneurs' rhetorical and

persuasive skills, and their ability to form coalitions and network in policy cycles and circles, work with teams and interact effectively with other players in the policy arena and lead by example (Mintrom and Norman, 2009). Finally, training can improve the policy entrepreneurs' confidence in their abilities by, for example, providing positive experiences in entrepreneurship-related tasks (Kuehn, 2008), or by using modeling, providing a policy entrepreneur model to reinforce the desired action.

By providing information about how to access resources (Van Gelderen et al., 2008) and strengthening the knowledge about policy problems, policy solutions and the political actors, as well as the possibilities for a window of opportunity, the perceived external process may seem more familiar and achievable. I therefore hypothesize that:

*Hypothesis 1: Participation in policy entrepreneurship training will have a positive effect on coupling self-efficacy.*

#### Training's effect on perceived policy network characteristics

Policy entrepreneurship training cannot change the policy network characteristics, but it can change the one's cognitive perception of the internal and external policy networks he works in. first, it can do so by identification and facilitation (Social Cognitive Theory; Bandura, 1989) thus creating an environment that makes the action easier or reduces barriers to action. This is done through the identification of barriers and facilitators, and by learning skills to overcome these barriers. Many public workers don't recognize or know the players, the dynamics and the relationships in their internal and external networks. Mapping these characteristics may remove barriers. Through role playing, the participant learns to better understand the networks in which he works in.

Participating in policy entrepreneurship training may create a new policy network made up of potential policy entrepreneurs. Moreover, if the training is through the work place, it may signal that policy entrepreneurship is welcomed and appreciated. Policy entrepreneurship training can change how participants assess the opinions and norms of social reference groups about policy entrepreneurship as a highly regarded, socially accepted behavior (Krueger and Brazeal, 1994). It is therefore hypothesize that:

*Hypothesis 2: Participation in policy entrepreneurship training will have a positive effect on perceived policy network characteristics.*

### Training's effect on intention-behavior gap

Last, in the former essay we assumed that because the policy entrepreneurship task is complex and risky, there is a gap between intentions to shape policy amongst public workers, and actual policy entrepreneurship behavior. This gap was offered to be moderated by coupling self-efficacy and perceived policy network characteristics such that the effect of intention strength on taking action will be stronger when coupling self-efficacy is higher and when the perceived policy network characteristics are more enabling. In this essay I claim that if the training can raise both moderators it will close the intention-behavior gap. I therefore hypothesize that:

*Hypothesis 3: Policy entrepreneurship training will lead to higher coupling self-efficacy and higher perceptions of the enabling of policy network characteristics. In turn, these will result in stronger relationship between policy entrepreneurship intentions and behaviors, thus minimizing the intention-behavior gap.*

The suggested full model of the effect of training on the policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gaps moderators, is presented in Appendix A, Figure 2.

### **Method**

To measure the effect of policy entrepreneurship training on the policy entrepreneurship intention-behavior gap, I will use a two-stage, multi-method approach consisting of quantitative and qualitative methods.

**Stage 1:** Quasi-experimental research: I will collaborate with the two main bodies responsible for training in the public sector in Israel--the State Civil Service Commission from the central government and the Mifa'm from the local government—and offer a policy entrepreneurship training program (see: intervention tool. Appendix B.). The proposed training will be merged into the training programs offered by these bodies to public servants in Israel. The training will be offered for free in order to obtain a broad sample.

I will use a pretest–post-test control group design (Cohen and Manion, 1989). The assignment to the treatment (policy entrepreneurship training--5 groups) and control group (other training programs--2 groups) will be random. I will use three measurements. The scales developed in essay 2 will be used in the current questionnaire. The questionnaire at Time 1 (t1) will measure intentions, behaviors and moderators at time of entering the program. The Time 2 (t2) questionnaire will measure the intentions, behaviors and moderators at the end of the program. The Time 3 (t3) questionnaire will measure the intentions, behaviors and moderators six month after the end of the program. This methodology overcomes the lack of rigor in the approaches used so far (Fayolle and Gailly, 2015; Martin et al., 2013). Data will be analyzed as describes in essay 2. For measuring the training’s effect I will control the intentions at t1 and measure the correlations at t1, t2 and t3.

**Stage 2:** Additional qualitative analysis: Following the workshop, I will crosscheck the quantitative data with qualitative data. At the end of the experiment, I will conduct 10 in-depth interviews with participants who appeared to be influenced by the intervention, as well as a focus group, with the goal of understanding the causes of the effect. Next, six months after the end of the workshop, I will conduct 10 additional in-depth interviews, as well as a focus group, with graduates of the workshop to shed more light on the relationship between intentions and behavior, and assess the effect of the training on their behavior. I will address the following questions: How did the type of pedagogy affect intention levels? How did the profile and background of the trainers influence the students’ intentions? How did the entrepreneurial intentions of the trainers impact their students’ entrepreneurial intentions?

### **Research Limitations and Future Research**

As with all studies, this research has its limitations. The first limitation stems from the decision to restrict the type of policy entrepreneurship to public workers. Future research should use comparative analysis to validate the model amongst policy entrepreneurs from the private and third sectors as well. Second, the current study will focus on the Israeli case. Future research in different institutional settings should expand our knowledge. Third, there is a lack of prior research

in policy entrepreneurship using models of intentions. Therefore, I will be developing relatively new measurements for complicated theoretical variables, with all the implications.

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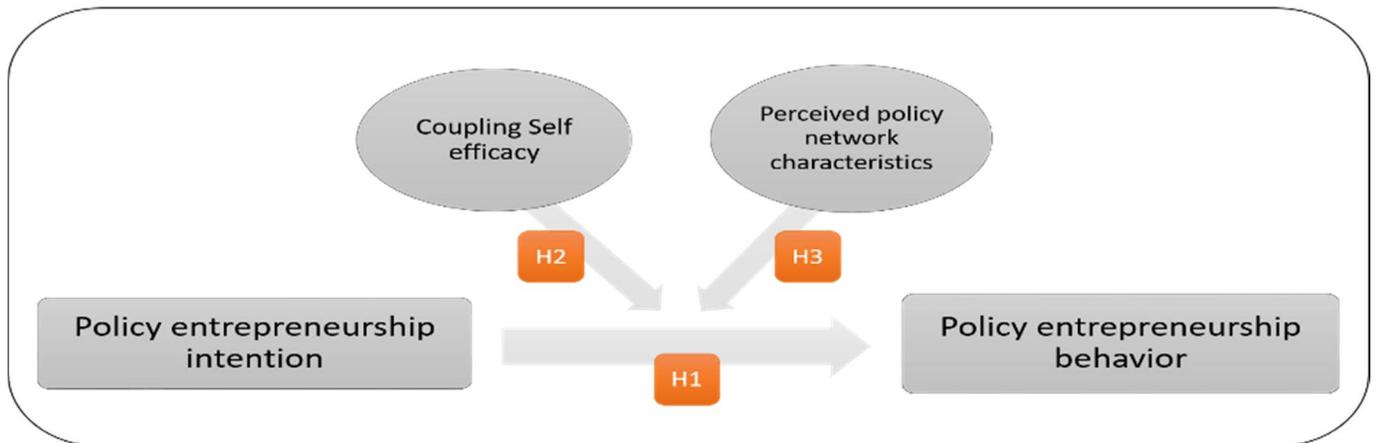
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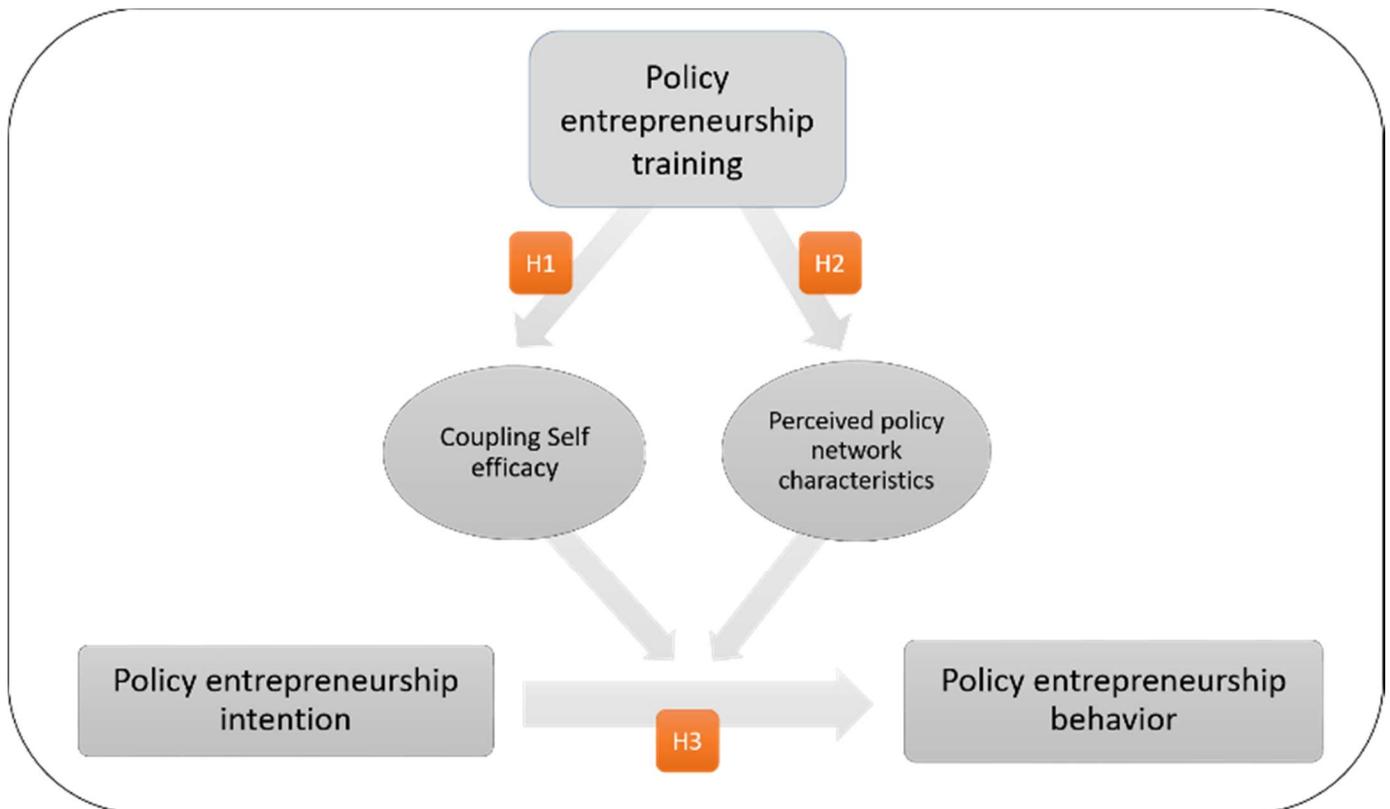
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## Appendix A: Figures

**Figure 1. Suggested model of formation of the intention-behavior gap**



**Figure 2. Suggested full model of effect of training on the intention-behavior gap**



## **Appendix B: Examples of Items to be Included in the scales**

### **Policy entrepreneurship behavior**

1. Currently, I recognize a policy problem related to my job
2. Currently, I'm searching for a solution to a policy problem I acknowledged
3. Currently, I'm leading a network to promote a policy change
4. Currently, I'm risking my professional reputation to promote a policy change
5. Currently, I'm actively persuading politicians to accept my offered policy

### **Policy entrepreneurship intentions**

1. I want to change policy
2. How likely is it that I will risk my reputation and money for changing policy
3. I have a strong intention to become a policy entrepreneur

### **Coupling self-efficacy**

1. I feel confident that I have access to important political actors
2. I feel confident in my ability to lead by example
3. I feel confident in my ability to create teams

### **Perceived policy network characteristics**

1. My professional community is large in size
2. My professional community is consensual and conservative
3. My professional community has the capacity to change policy
4. My professional community is hierarchical
5. The political network that I work in is large in size
6. The political network that I work in is consensual and conservative
7. The political network that I work in has the capacity to change policy
8. The political network that I work in is hierarchical