

企業家精神と社会変革：中国、日本、韓国 の事例研究

기업가 정신과 사회변화: 한중일 사례연구

企业家精神及社会变化

中日韩案例研究

Editors / Joel Glassman, Masato Kimura, Ki-Hyoung Sohn, and Shuming Zhao

*Entrepreneurship and Social Change:
Case Studies from China,
Japan,
and South Korea*



南京大学出版社

企業家精神と社会変革：中国、日本、韓国 の事例研究
기업가 정신과 사회변화: 한중일 사례연구

企业家精神及社会变化

中日韩案例研究

Editors / Joel Glassman, Masato Kimura, Ki-Hyoung Sohn, and Shuming Zhao

**Entrepreneurship and Social Change:
Case Studies from China,
Japan,
and South Korea**

常州大学图书馆
藏书章

图书在版编目(CIP)数据

企业家精神及社会变化：中日韩案例研究：英文 /
(美) 格拉斯曼 (J. Glassman) 等主编. — 南京：南京
大学出版社，2017. 6

ISBN 978 - 7 - 305 - 18810 - 7

I. ①企… II. ①格… III. ①企业家 - 企业精神 - 研
究 - 英文 IV. ①F272 - 05

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字(2017)第 109672 号

出版发行 南京大学出版社

社 址 南京市汉口路 22 号

邮 编 210093

出 版 人 金鑫荣

书 名 企业家精神及社会变化——中日韩案例研究

Entrepreneurship and Social Change: Case Studies from China, Japan, and South Korea

主 编 Joel Glassman, Masato Kimura, Ki-Hyoung Sohn, and Shuming Zhao

责任编辑 唐甜甜 徐云飞

编辑热线 025-83594087

照 排 南京南琳图文制作有限公司

印 刷 江苏凤凰数码印务有限公司

开 本 787×1092 1/16 印张 18.5 字数 344 千

版 次 2017 年 6 月第 1 版 2017 年 6 月第 1 次印刷

ISBN 978 - 7 - 305 - 18810 - 7

定 价 59.00 元

网址：<http://www.njupco.com>

官方微博：<http://weibo.com/njupco>

官方微信号：njupress

销售咨询热线：(025) 83594756

* 版权所有，侵权必究

* 凡购买南大版图书，如有印装质量问题，请与所购
图书销售部门联系调换

Introduction

Across the globe, and particularly in the Pacific Rim, nations are concerned about combining economic dynamism and social inclusion. At every turn, we find nations and their national economic policies seeking to satisfy this demand for growth by encouraging entrepreneurship. In other words, in this globalized environment, there are limits to the ability of governments to promote economic and social policies without activating more diversified human resources and cultivating business leaders who could manage and succeed to ensure the stability and profitability of companies for a long term.

In this collection of essays, researchers examine many of the issues associated with this increased reliance on entrepreneurial firms to promote economic growth and intensify their impact on society. In particular we include case studies from China, Japan, and South Korea in the attempt to better understand entrepreneurship and social change because these three countries have been and will be engines of economic development and social change for the Pacific Rim. This book is composed of three sections: (a) Women and Entrepreneurship, (b) Succession Planning in Entrepreneurial Firms, and (c) Survival Conditions for Entrepreneurial Firms: Education, Innovation, and Human Resources.

In the first section, authors focus on women entrepreneurs from a variety of perspectives, including barriers to entry and attitudinal differences between male and female entrepreneurs. Ruta Aidis analyzes the workplace environment of women business leaders. The author shows us how to conceptualize and measure the conditions that foster high potential female entrepreneurship in East and Southeast Asia in order to expand women's prospects for future contributions to the economy. The author shares several

important findings and viewpoints regarding the potential development of women's entrepreneurship, with examples from five East and Southeast Asian countries: China, Japan, Malaysia, South Korea, and Thailand. The research is based on the results of the 2014 Gender-Global Entrepreneurship and Development Index (GEDI). Next, Machiko Asai argues in support of women entrepreneurs and how to improve the female labor force participation rate in Japan. Her supporting statistical data references not only Japan but also other Pacific Rim countries. The author also introduces her unique experiences as an entrepreneur who established a translation business, and the difficulties she had to overcome. The discussion of the challenges for nurturing female entrepreneurs in Japan and the prescriptions offered is consistent with current circumstances. Chunyan Jiang offers a theoretical and statistical analysis of entrepreneurs' activities in China and presents several important characteristics of Chinese women entrepreneurs in comparison with Chinese male entrepreneurs, based on the results of an extensive survey questionnaire. This contribution confirms the importance of enhancing the advantages and reducing the disadvantages for the future success of women entrepreneurs, a goal applicable to not only Chinese but also Korean and Japanese society. Eunhee Kim clarifies the characteristics of Korean female entrepreneurs in the technology sector, focusing on two distinguished female entrepreneurs: Dr. Yoon-Sun Yang and her company, MEDIPOST and Ms. Romi Haan and her company, Haan Corporation. Each displayed shrewdness in grasping the opportunity to establish a new company, a particularly fascinating story at the start-up phase, and both continued as managers after company creation.

These four chapters, based on both qualitative and quantitative analysis, deepen our understanding of historical and social factors that contribute to present-day weaknesses associated with the contemporary state of women's entrepreneurship in the countries analyzed, as well as in other countries in the world.

In the second section, authors discuss the challenges associated with

succession in entrepreneurial firms, especially in family-owned businesses. They address the education and training of future leaders of entrepreneurial firms, and how the founder's legacy can be maintained and can serve to inspire future generations of company leaders. Frank Hoy's contribution is an extensive survey and review of the literature relating to succession in entrepreneurial family businesses, applying capital theory and human and social perspectives. He then discusses the characteristics of Chinese entrepreneurship succession in family businesses. As most Chinese family businesses do not have long histories, we can anticipate many cases of entrepreneurial succession in the near future, cases in which succession patterns may differ significantly in comparison with Japan and Europe (where one can find many cases of family businesses with one-hundred-plus years of history). Xichun Li and Lihong Son examine the relationship among succession intention, family control, and the moderating effect of industry competition from the perspective of traditional system and governance. A sample survey conducted among 1,826 small and medium-sized private enterprises in 2010 reveals the characteristics of and relationships between ownership transition, succession intention, and family control. Yasuhiro Ochiai clarifies how Japan's centuries-old companies promote proactive behavior in the business succession process by introducing the Autonomy Under Guardianship (AUG) model. In particular, the author pays attention to the relationships between the old and new generations and how each generation deals with both tradition and innovation. The author also highlights a case study of a typical Japanese centuries-old company through qualitative analysis. Sangmoon Park tackles the question of entrepreneurship education, addressing how universities cultivate students as entrepreneurs through curricular offerings in Korea and elsewhere in the world. The author presents detailed statistical data—some 3,000 samples—relating to the Korean cases.

The third section contains papers that address the persistence of entrepreneurial firms and the challenges they face as they innovate, manage risk, deal with government regulations, and seek to grow. Haruo Funabashi

focuses on family-owned businesses that are mostly small and medium-sized businesses. The author discusses how to foster a next-generation company owner, based on firsthand inspections of and interviews with some one hundred owners of family businesses in Japan. His findings survey types of business succession, rules for selecting a successor, the education of successors, the family charter and family precept that give the successor the discipline to keep the business running, and the concept of family business that is unique to Japan. Moongoo Huh and Guktae Kim investigate the effects of innovation on firm survival. The authors conceptualize innovation types as comprised of exploration and exploitation, testing the hypotheses that balance these two contradictory innovation activities. Balancing exploratory and exploitative innovation is a critical challenge for entrepreneurial firms that lack the resources and capabilities of large firms. The authors also discuss theoretical and practical implications of these findings and offer research ideas for future studies. Shuming Zhao and Yixuan Zhao introduce the reader to past studies of the human resource/entrepreneurship theme. Their paper incorporates several important statistics from the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) Global Report, 2013. The authors also explore the effectiveness of the role of universities on human resource management in entrepreneurial firms in China, and how central and local government taxing authority and policy changes could affect the human resource management of entrepreneurial firms. The concluding chapter's analysis represents one of the most interesting future questions facing Chinese entrepreneurs, as both central and local governments may play a leadership role in support of the national business strategy that is potentially more effective than that found in other countries, such as the United States, Japan, and Korea.

Joel Glassman
Masato Kimura
Ki Hyoung Sohn
Shuming Zhao

Contents

Introduction I

Women and Entrepreneurship 1

- Ruta Aidis, George Mason University, *Expanding the Horizon: Conceptualizing and Measuring the Conditions that Foster High-Impact Female Entrepreneurship in East Asia* 3
- Machiko Asai, A & People Corporation, *Female Entrepreneurs: Improving Their Labor Force Participation Rate in Japan* 38
- Chunyan Jiang, Nanjing University, *The Characteristics of Chinese Women Entrepreneurs* 64
- Eunhee Kim, Chonnam National University, *A Case Study of Female Technological Entrepreneurs in Korea* 102

Succession Planning in Entrepreneurial Firms 121

- Frank Hoy, Worcester Polytechnic Institute, *Entrepreneurship Succession in Family Businesses* 123
- Xichun Li, Sun Yat-sen University and Lihong Song, Shantou University, *Succession Intention, Industry Potential, and Family Control: Evidence from the Chinese Private Enterprise Survey* 155
- Yasuhiro Ochiai, Japan University of Economics, *Proactive Behavior of Successors in Japanese Business Succession* 174

- Sangmoon Park, Kangwon National University and Mee-Soon Lee,
Korea Small Business Institute, *Entrepreneurial Intention and
Entrepreneurship Education: Korean Undergraduate Students'
Perspective* 197

***Survival Conditions for Entrepreneurial Firms: Education, Innovation and
Human Resources* 219**

- Funabashi Haruo, Sirius Institute, *Fostering Company Owners of
Small and Midsize Japanese Companies: An Analysis of Succession
Processes in Long-Lived Businesses and Their Management* 221
- Guktae Kim and Moon-Goo Huh, Kyungpook National University,
Innovation and Survival in Entrepreneurial Firms 248
- Shuming Zhao and Yixuan Zhao, Nanjing University, *Human
Resource Management Issues in Chinese Entrepreneurial Firms* 258

***Conclusion* 283**

Women and Entrepreneurship

Expanding the Horizon: Conceptualizing and Measuring the Conditions that Foster High-Impact Female Entrepreneurship in East Asia

Ruta Aidis^[1]

Introduction

Are female entrepreneurs different from male entrepreneurs? After decades of study, the overarching consensus to this question is: it depends. Numerous studies have tested and retested the differences between male and female entrepreneurs. Some studies have identified differences but others have not. Nelson and Duffy (2010) postulate that differences between male and female entrepreneurs are often exaggerated, extrapolated, or occur because the masculine male entrepreneur is taken as the ideal.

As compared to men, a number of researchers have found that the large majority of micro, small, and medium enterprises are run by women, and that the percentage of female ownership declines with firm size grows (World Bank, 2012; Bruhn, 2009; Hallward-Driemeier, 2011a; Sabarwal, et al. 2009; Costa and Rijkers, 2011). The decline becomes even sharper when using more restrictive definitions of ownership that account for actual decision making power in the presence of multiple owners (Hallward-Driermeier, 2011a).

Worldwide, female entrepreneurs tend to be “crowded” in the service sector and in businesses that “conform” to the female roles—such as beauty parlors, food vending, and sewing (Bates, 1995; Hallward-Driermeier,

[1] Senior Fellow, George Mason University. raidis@gmu.edu.

2011b; Verheul et al. , 2006). In addition, women tend to work in sectors, industries, occupations, and jobs with lower average (labor) productivity and this explains a large fraction of the gender gap in productivity and earnings (World Bank, 2012, p.207). Productivity differences between female-owned and male-owned businesses are often explained by differences in access to and use of productive resources, but these differences are primarily a function of the business size and sector of operation rather than a gender-specific factor (Sabarwal et al. , 2009; Hallward-Driemeier, 2011) such as amount of startup capital. There is evidence to suggest that women are as efficient as men in production when given access to the same inputs and resources (World Bank, 2012).

There is also increasing awareness of a gender dimension to entrepreneurship that affects female entrepreneurship development at all levels: from business startup to growth. Gendered institutions such as laws, social norms, and expectations as well as gendered access to resources continues to impact women in their abilities to start and grow new businesses.

Focusing efforts specifically on women's enterprise development in terms of gendered data collection, policy development and advocacy is paramount.

Many forms of entrepreneurship exist, ranging from micro entrepreneurs to high-growth startups. In this chapter, we focus on high-impact female entrepreneurs in East Asia. We define high-impact female entrepreneurs as those leading startups^[1] that are innovative, market expanding, and export oriented.^[2] Through their entrepreneurial activities, high-impact female entrepreneurs not only contribute to improving their own economic welfare but also to the economic and social fabric of society through job creation, innovative products, processes, services, and cross-border trade. By focusing on the gender differentiated conditions that often affect high-impact female entrepreneurship development, we identify areas

[1] Female entrepreneurs who have been engaged in startup activities for 42 months or less.

[2] See also Aidis, et al. 2015a.

where public policy can address these bottlenecks. In this chapter, the East Asia region is represented by five countries: China, Japan, South Korea, Malaysia, and Thailand. Data from Australia and the United States are included for comparative purposes.

This chapter is structured as follows: Section 2 presents research findings on comparative studies of high-impact female entrepreneurs and Section 3 introduces the “Melting Middle” approach for identifying the most conducive group of high-impact female entrepreneurs for public policy interventions. In Section 4, the conditions for high-impact female entrepreneurship in East Asia are analyzed and compared to a larger 31-country sample in terms of five main issues: (a) female startup activity and education, (b) leadership and legal rights, (c) access to capital, (d) entrepreneurship crowding, and (e) policy development. This chapter ends with a conclusion in Section 5.

Research on High-Impact Female Entrepreneurship

In the past, female entrepreneurship was considered a narrow field of interest; however, there is a growing recognition that lower rates of female entrepreneurship has negative economic consequences that affect national economic performance and competitiveness. In a recent report, Lesa Mitchell, Vice President of the Kauffman Foundation, stressed that “lower levels of female entrepreneurship is an economic issue that affects everyone” (2011). Fewer female entrepreneurs result in fewer ideas being realized, less innovation, reduced export impact, and fewer jobs created. Moreover, the increasing growth of the female consumer market and the “Internet of Things” offers new opportunities for female entrepreneurs to address the needs of this underserved and often overlooked market segment.

The shift in focus to the importance of female entrepreneurship takes on broader implications that call forth the need for public policy to rectify the gender inequalities that seem to result in lower levels of high-impact female entrepreneurship. As the World Bank’s 2012 World Human Development

Report notes, gender inequality is more costly in an integrated world because it diminishes a country's ability to compete internationally.

Three studies have attempted to illuminate the environmental characteristics that influence female entrepreneurship worldwide. Using the Global Entrepreneurship Monitor's (GEM) dataset for 55 countries from 2001—2006, Saul Estrin and Tomek Mickiewicz (2011) found that the size of the state sector has a significant and negative impact on high-aspiration female entrepreneurs^[1] and postulate that this effect occurs due to the disincentives caused by higher taxes that characterize larger state sectors. The impact of formal gender discrimination, when measured by restrictions on women's freedom of movement, is also highly significant and negatively associated with high-aspiration entrepreneurship. Interestingly, the provision of maternity leave does not have a significant effect on high-aspiration female entrepreneurs and the provision of childcare affects this group rather less than it does female entrepreneurship as a whole. It is possible that maternity/childcare effects could be mitigated by the age and number of children in the households of high-aspiration female entrepreneurs.^[2]

Amanda Elam and SiriTerjesen (2010) use data from the 2001 GEM dataset from 11 countries to investigate the linkages between gendered institutions such as occupational segregation,^[3] gender wage inequality, female business leadership, public childcare support, and individual-level perception. Their findings provide evidence supporting the notion that variations in opportunity structures and individual social positions explain cross-national patterns of entrepreneurship rates. Their research highlights the complexities of identifying the correct drivers and influences affecting female startup rates. For example, although the United States and Canada have very similar gender wage inequality, the gender gap in business startups

[1] High-aspiration female entrepreneurs are defined as those female entrepreneurs who aspire to create ten jobs or more over the next five years.

[2] These effects were not controlled for due to lack of data.

[3] These authors analyzed occupational segregation in terms of agricultural and non-agricultural work.

in Canada is significantly larger, indicating there are additional unmeasured factors influencing these results.

The Global Women Entrepreneur Leaders Scorecard (hereafter the Scorecard) was introduced in 2015 as a gender-focused, action-oriented diagnostic tool (Aidis and Weeks, 2016). The Scorecard ranks and scores the conditions for high-impact women's entrepreneurship across a global sample of 31 countries based on a composite index. The Scorecard also utilizes supplemental data to rank each country's commitment to gendered data collection and gender procurement. It provides a watch list of comparative data on women's attainment of leadership positions in the private sector and provides examples of actions that countries can take to foster a growing pool of high-impact female entrepreneurs. By taking these recommended actions, countries can expand the pool of innovative and thriving women-owned businesses.

The Scorecard is unique in its emphasis on high-impact women entrepreneurs as leaders. Though not often mentioned in the literature, women who have successfully grown their businesses often become leaders and role models by default. The Scorecard highlights examples of how successful women entrepreneurs have leveraged their networks, talents, and resources to provide support for other women entrepreneurs.

As shown in Figure 1.1, the Scorecard's composite index is comprised of 21 variables grouped into five categories. Gendered variables are exclusively used for four of the five categories. Business Environment is the only gender-neutral category in the Scorecard. For this category, high scores are given to countries where businesses are not overly burdened by regulations or corruption, markets are free of monopolies, capital is available for business growth, R&D investments are high, and the innovative ecosystem is supported.

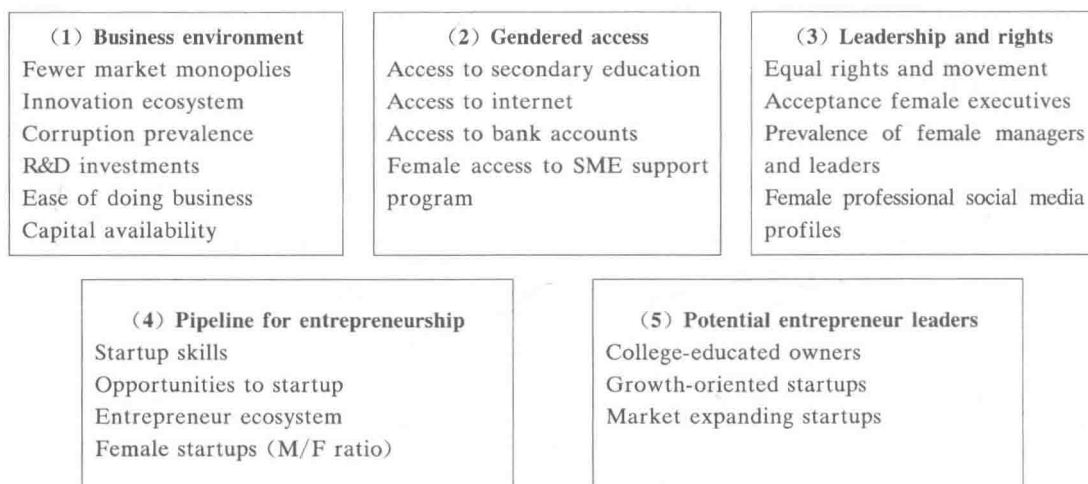


Figure 1.1 The global women entrepreneur leaders scorecard framework

Source: Adapted from “The Global Women Entrepreneur Leaders Scorecard 2015: From Awareness to Action,” by R. Aidis, J. Weeks, and K. Anacker. Executive Report.

The second category is Gendered Access. High scores are given to countries where women’s access to fundamental resources is ensured, including access to education, the Internet, bank accounts, and small and medium-sized enterprise (SME) training programs. The third category is Leadership and Rights. High scores are given to countries where women enjoy equal rights, women are accepted as executives, and higher percentages of women are active in decision-making positions and professional and social media networks. The fourth category, Pipeline for Female Entrepreneurship, includes four indicators that reveal the “entrepreneurial spirit” among the female population. High scores are given to countries where women are engaging in startups at an equal rate to men and where higher percentages of the female population know entrepreneurs, see business opportunities, and feel they have the skills to start a business. The fifth and final category, Potential Entrepreneur Leaders, is based on three measures that embody the characteristics of a high-impact female entrepreneur leader. High scores are given to countries where higher percentages of women who start businesses are college-educated, growth-