

A Comparative Analysis of the Entrepreneurial Styles of Second, Third, and Fourth Generation Overseas Chinese and Filipinos in the Philippines

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This study used the multiple case study research approach and presents a comparative analysis of the similarities and differences in entrepreneurship styles among second, third and fourth generation overseas Chinese and Filipinos in the Philippines. Specifically, it aimed to compare the entrepreneurs' entrepreneurial characteristics, leadership styles, and value orientation. The results indicate that the two groups are heterogeneous even though they operate business in the same country. However, slowly, the influence of Filipino culture is seen in the fourth generation overseas Chinese. The study hopes to provide new generation of entrepreneurs insights on entrepreneurial styles that need to change to cope with the fast-paced economy brought about by globalization, and traditional styles they can still adopt to capitalize on their rich cultural and ethnic background.

Keywords: Entrepreneurs, culture, leadership styles, values

Entrepreneurial activities are considered an important source of technological innovation and economic growth (Zahra, 2002). It is *a key driving force to organizational health and national economic growth* (Chu, 1996). As such, decades-worth of academic literature have focused on studies that try to identify the particulars relating to the business acumen of successful entrepreneurs. However, while past researches have identified success factors unique to entrepreneurs of certain countries, few have investigated success factors across generations.

Even fewer are studies that make a comparative analysis of entrepreneurial success factors across different races belonging to the same country, and across three generations. Cross-cultural and cross-generation studies become relevant since the business landscape has changed dramatically over the past years due to globalization and because of the growing economic position of China in the world. This study builds on a previous research by Po (2008) which explored the entrepreneurial styles, across generations, of overseas Chinese in the Philippines.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP AND THE ENTREPRENEUR

There have been countless definitions of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs. Liu (2006) aptly summarizes the two terminologies.

The study of entrepreneurship and its role in modern society has been fundamentally shaped by Joseph Schumpeter (1883-1950), considered as “*the main figure in the literature on entrepreneurship*” (Swedberg 2000, p. 12). Schumpeter defines the entrepreneur as someone who carries out new combinations in five different cases: (1) the introduction of a new good—that is one with which consumers are not yet familiar—or of a new quality of a good; (2) The introduction of a new method of production; (3) the opening of a new market; (4) the conquest of a new source of supply of raw materials or half-manufactured goods; and (5) the carrying out of the new organization of any industry, like the creation of a monopoly position of the breaking up or a monopoly position. The individuals whose function is to carry these new combinations out are called “entrepreneurs” (Schumpeter 1961, pp. 66, 74). According to Max Weber, “entrepreneurship means the taking over and organization of some part of an economy, in which people’s needs are satisfied through exchange, for the sake of making a profit and at one’s own economic risk” (cited in Swedberg 2000, p. 26). Douglas North (1990, p. 83), on the other hand, sees the individual entrepreneur as “the agent of change” who responds to incentives embodied in the institutional framework. In a similar vein, Peter Drucker argues that “entrepreneurs see change as the norm and as healthy. Usually, they do not bring about change themselves. But—and this defines entrepreneur and entrepreneurship—the *entrepreneur always searches for change, responds to it, and exploits it as an opportunity....* The entrepreneur, by definition, shifts resources from areas of low productivity and yield to areas of high productivity and yield” (Drucker 1999, p. 23, emphasis is original). Mark

Casson defines the entrepreneur in the context of two conventional approaches, functional and indicative. The functional approach “specifies a certain function and deems anyone who performs this function to be an entrepreneur. The indicative approach describes an entrepreneur in terms of his legal status, his contractual relations with other parties and his position in society, and so on.” In the light of the former approach, “an entrepreneur is someone who specializes in taking *judgmental decisions* about the coordination of scarce resources” (Casson 2003, pp.19-20; emphasis is mine). The above definitions of entrepreneurship highlight the fact that it is necessary to approach the subject from both the internal dimension (cultural and ethnic) and external environments (resources and socio-political framework). The features of these two dimensions and their relationship are of course constantly changing, contingent upon time and space.

Gartner (1990), in trying to define entrepreneurship, emphasized on creating a new venture, adding value, capitalizing on opportunity, bringing resources to bear, and innovating. According to Schumpeter (as cited in Chavez, 2000), the entrepreneur, in turn, is responsible in disturbing the economic status quo through these innovations. Table 1 provides a summary of the definitions of an entrepreneur as identified by Kao (1991).

Approaches in Studying Entrepreneurs and Entrepreneurship

In the study of entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship, researchers have used two major approaches – psychological and socio-cultural (behavioral) (Chu, 1996). A study on the psychological aspect means that the researcher examines the traits and behaviors of the entrepreneur. On the other hand, centering on the socio-cultural or behavioral aspect indicates a focus on the social and cultural background of the entrepreneurs, identifying entrepreneurship as a

Table 1*Summary of Definitions of an Entrepreneur*

Proponent	Period	Definition
R. Cantillon	1730	A self-employed person with uncertain returns
Abbe Nicolas	1767	A leader of men, a manager of resources, an innovator
Jean Baptiste Say	1810	A coordinator of production with managerial talent
J. Schumpeter	1910	A creative innovator
F. Knight	1921	A manager responsible for direction and control
E. Penrose	1959	A person able to identify opportunities and develop enterprises
J. E. Stepaneck	1960	A moderate risk-taker
D. C. McClelland	1961	An achiever
R. Budner	1962	Has tolerance for ambiguity
O. Collins	1964	Has high need for autonomy
W.D. Litzinger	1965	Low need for support and conformity
J.B. Rotter	1976	Internal locus of control
J.A. Timmons	1985	Type A behavior pattern

function of the entrepreneurs' social and cultural identities (Chu, 1996). Some research, such as that of Chavez (2000), used the multi-perspective approach, which looked into the significant interplay of different dimensions, particularly psychological, socio-cultural, and values. Chavez (2000) studied entrepreneurial styles as a combination of different constructs – entrepreneurial characteristics or orientation, leadership style, and value orientation. To measure these characteristics, Chavez (2000) developed a survey instrument customized for the Philippine setting. The multi-perspective approach, together with Chavez's (2000) indigenous survey instrument, was used in this study.

National Culture and Entrepreneurship

Many economists, sociologists, and psychologists have observed that countries vary in levels of entrepreneurial activity. The relationship of national culture on entrepreneurship has thus been the focus of empirical scrutiny for the past decade. There are two streams of research related

to this. The first research stream looked into the impact of national culture on the aggregate measures of entrepreneurship, such as national innovative output or new businesses created. The second stream addresses the association between national culture and the characteristics of individual entrepreneurs. Within this stream of literature, researchers have investigated the values, beliefs, motivations, and cognitions of entrepreneurs across cultures (Zahra, 2002). Zahra (2002) stated that countries can be segregated into culturally homogeneous regions but it is unclear whether broad cultural characterizations can aptly describe the divergence in culturally heterogeneous regions in a single country.

Zahra (2002), after reviewing the body of literature, came up with a model that states that "culture, in various forms, is depicted as a moderator of the relationship between contextual factors and entrepreneurial outcomes. The moderating role of culture highlights that national culture acts as a catalyst rather than a causal agent of entrepreneurial outcomes. Though some studies find significant relationships between national

culture and entrepreneurial outcomes, the model suggests that cultural characteristics transform and complement the institutional and economic contexts to influence entrepreneurship” (pp. 1-2). Thus, it is essential that cultural differences be taken into context when studying entrepreneurs.

The Entrepreneur in the Philippines

Chavez (2000) used the value orientations of personalism, paternalism, and *pakikisama* to describe the entrepreneur in the Philippine context. Camandang et al. (as cited in Chavez, 2000) provided definitions for these. Personalism is a value orientation that puts emphasis on the person rather than on the job; paternalism views the manager as the head of the family; and *pakikisama* indicates that the leader gives in to suggestions of others or yields to the will of the majority to obtain a unanimous group decision.

Chavez (2000) labeled the combination of three constructs – entrepreneurial characteristic, leadership style, and value orientation – as entrepreneurial styles. She coined four entrepreneurial styles, resulting from a combination of the three constructs. These are *entrepatis*, *entrepera*, *entreperin*, and *entrepatis*. *Entrepatis* came from entrepreneurial, paternalistic, and innovation. “In the entrepreneur’s people orientation he allows participation, he negotiates with and develops his people. He has a paternal concern for the employees’ physical and emotional well-being, is perceptive of their creative talents and supportive of their innovative activities being an innovator himself” (Chavez, 2000, pp. 87-88). *Entrepera* came from entrepreneurial, personalistic, and achievement-oriented. “Being directive, this entrepreneur is very much aware of his role and his goal to achieve. He is sensitive and perceptive to the needs of his people as he performs his function so that he can enable his team to achieve the goal” (Chavez, 2000, p. 88). *Entreperin* pertains to entrepreneurial, people-orientation, and innovation. “This entrepreneur is very people-

oriented as indicated by his being negotiative, developing, and delegative in leadership styles. But his people orientation is geared towards the group as a clique. He has the ability to push the group to pursue innovative ways in doing things” (Chavez, 2000, pp. 88-89). Finally, *entrepatis* refers to entrepreneurial, paternalistic, and risk-taking. “This entrepreneur is directive, concerned that everybody is doing his job, but caters to the needs of his employees as a father. He initiates taking risks” (Chavez, 2000, p. 89). Chavez (2000) was particularly interested in determining if there are distinct Filipino entrepreneurial styles and developed an indigenous survey instrument to measure such styles. Based on her research, Chavez found that there is a predominant entrepreneurial style used by entrepreneurs in small and medium businesses among manufacturing firms in Metro Manila. The predominant entrepreneurial style used by small and medium enterprises in the Philippines is *entrepera*, or *mapagtagumpay at dominanteng entrepreneur*.

According to Jocano (1992), Filipinos are very authoritarian. They place high value on people in authority, on small groups, and on small group thinking. Intrinsically, Filipinos have *pakikipagkapwa-tao*, or harmonious relations with others.

Characteristics of Filipino Entrepreneurs

A publication by the Development Bank of the Philippines (as cited in Chavez, 2000) enumerated and described the characteristics of a Filipino entrepreneur to be *pagsasarili* (self-reliant), *lakas-loob* (risk-taker), *sipag* (quality-conscious), *pagpapakumbaba* (humble and single-minded), *pagkamatulungin* (cares for others’ personal welfare and development), *mapagtuklas* (creative), and *saya* (puts customers first). Edralin (as cited in Chavez, 2000), in her study of entrepreneurs in the Philippines, found that Filipino entrepreneurs attributed their success to traits such as being hardworking, responsible, self-confidence, industry, perseverance, self-control and discipline, sincerity, and achievement-oriented.

Characteristics of Overseas Chinese Entrepreneurs

Several definitions to classify Chinese living outside China abound. Scholars use the term *overseas Chinese* differently, based on culture, politics, economy, and ethnicity, giving rise to other terminologies like *ethnic Chinese*, *Chinese abroad*, *Chinese overseas*, and *Chinese diasporas* (Guotu, 2006). Since the concern of this study is the economic contribution of the Chinese in Southeast Asia, particularly the Philippines, it will hereon refer to overseas Chinese as people who are of Chinese descent but live outside of mainland China (Ahlstrom, Young, Ng, & Chan, 2004; Guotu, 2006).

The overseas Chinese are spread throughout the nations of the South across the Pacific, and into the Americas. They represent communities of people who share several distinct affinities that serve to distinguish them as a separate, sometimes heterogeneous, yet still coherent ethno-cultural group (Lewis, 1993).

It is estimated that overseas Chinese hold between \$200 billion and \$300 billion in assets. Their economic power when counted together is much bigger than that of China, being the third largest in the world, right after the U.S. and Japan. The overseas Chinese in South-East Asia not only dominate in trading and service industry, but are also big players in banking and property (*Overseas Chinese*, n.d.). The overwhelming control of overseas Chinese on the wealth in Southeast Asia can be seen in Tables 2 and 3.

The overseas Chinese communities together with China, Taiwan, and Hong Kong form such a strong economic power network that if a businessman enters business in East and South-East Asia outside of Japan and Korea, he actually transacts business with the Chinese (*Overseas Chinese*, n.d.).

The Chinese in the Philippines are intricately classified. The KAISA-Angelo King Heritage Center provides some definitions which help to distinguish the different groups of Chinese in the country (*The Chinese in the Philippines*, n.d.). Ethnic Chinese (*Hua-din sia-hue*) are people with

Table 2

Overseas Chinese Population and Control of Economy in South-East

Country	Percentage of the local population	Control of local economy
Thailand	3%	60%
Indonesia	4%	70%
Philippines	3%	70%
Malaysia	30%	50%
Singapore	75%	90%

Table 3

Percent of listed overseas Chinese companies in South East Asia

Singapore	81%
Thailand	81%
Indonesia	73%
Malaysia	62%
Philippines	50%

some measurable degree of Chinese parentage, who can speak and understand at least one Chinese dialect, who have received a minimum of Chinese-language education, and who have retained some Chinese customs and traditions enough to consider themselves and be considered by their neighbors as Chinese. Overseas Chinese (*Hua-quiao*) refer to China-born Chinese who have immigrated elsewhere. Filipino-Chinese (*Hui-lut-pin Hua-quiao*) pertains to the traditional or older Chinese who are predominantly Chinese in identity but Filipino in citizenship. Chinese Filipino (*Hua-fei*) refers to the young, mostly native-born ethnic Chinese who identify themselves as Filipinos first, but still maintain their Chinese cultural identity. Finally, alien Chinese are the Chinese who are not Filipino citizens, especially those from Hong Kong, Taiwan, mainland China, and so forth (*The Chinese in the Philippines*, n.d.). Strictly speaking, discriminating the use of these terminologies is recommended to take into account their historical significance. However, since most of these terminologies (except for alien Chinese) are used interchangeably by the common people in the Philippines, this study will use the definition of Ahlstrom et al. (2004) and Guotu (2006), referring to overseas Chinese as people of Chinese descent who live beyond the borders of mainland China. Thus, in this study, *ethnic Chinese*, *overseas Chinese*, *Filipino-Chinese*, and *Chinese-Filipino* are all taken together and classified as *overseas Chinese*.

The Chinese in the Philippines make up one of the largest Filipino ethnic groups, making up approximately 1.5% (1.14 million) of the country's total population (<http://www.ocac.gov.tw/english/public/public.asp?selno=1163&no=1163&level=B>). The Chinese in the Philippines are mostly business owners of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) and their life centers mostly in the family business. These SMEs play an important part in boosting the economy of developing countries like the Philippines. There are also a handful of overseas Chinese entrepreneurs who run large companies and are respected as some of the most prominent business tycoons in the Philippines.

Although overseas Chinese possess the same characteristics as most successful entrepreneurs in general, results of previous researches reveal that Chinese entrepreneurs are distinctly diligent, persistently hardworking (Lee & Chan, 1998), conscientious, and loyal to superiors (Weidenbaum, 1998). They draw on their Chinese connections or “*guanxi*” and give utmost importance to trust, or “*xinyong*”. Overseas Chinese differ significantly in background, growth paths, values, and business models (Lee & Chan, 1998; Xiang & Teng, 2007).

Overseas Chinese value hard work, ambition, strong family ties, family security, responsibility, self-control, and competence. Some ascribed their success to “distinctive aspects of Chinese business culture that favor alacrity, adaptability, networking, and close control of firm operations” (Ahlstrom et al., 2004, p. 263). Typical characteristics of overseas Chinese firms include simple organizational structure, tight family control, centralized governance and decision-making, lack of advertising and branding, little or no research and development, and minimal outside financing or interference. The Chinese would generally choose to maintain their current company size if expanding would mean sourcing funds externally and yielding some control (Ahlstrom et al., 2004). Chinese firms demonstrate good relationships with the public sectors of the countries where they are located and appear highly diversified, usually in unrelated diversification ventures (Haley & Haley, 1998).

Overseas Chinese entrepreneurs exhibit an inclination for secrecy, distrust of outsiders and close control (Ahlstrom et al., 2004). They exhibit entrepreneurial, intuitive and quick decision-making skills, and usually employ a paternalistic management style (Haley & Haley, 1998).

Overseas Chinese share a Confucian heritage and have a strong cultural identity. They are diligent and usually have a large *Guanxi* circle (network), whose members work in close cooperation relationships, backing up each other, and providing each other updates regarding the

latest business information (Overseas Chinese, n.d.). If they need to make difficult business decisions, these entrepreneurs usually depend on their network of friends and government officials for information (Haley & Haley, 1998). *Xin* (trust) and *Yu* (reputation) are of outmost importance to the overseas Chinese way of doing business. This attribute came about, to a certain degree, because in China and in Southeast Asia, law and legal protection for business has always been awfully poor, and furthermore destroyed by severe corruption problems (*Overseas Chinese, n.d.*).

The overseas Chinese like to be their own boss and operate their own business (Denggao, n.d.). They have a compulsion for autonomy and independence, have the desire to contribute to something valuable, have the need to break out of negative work or family circumstance, and have family business backgrounds (Lee & Chan, 1998). Overseas Chinese are frugal and hardworking, and entrepreneurship is highly valued and encouraged among the young (Koning, 2006; Lee & Chan, 1998).

Generational Differences

The challenge to remain competitive amidst rapid changes in a global world rests on the next generation of entrepreneurs. There are various changes in current political situation, religious-cultural trend, and demography that are changing the current business landscape and the entrepreneur's business style (Wijaya, 2007). There is also the influence of the changing educational background and related ideas on how to run a business. It is common for the younger generation to acquire higher education abroad, particularly in North America. With this education, they learn about management and professionalism and acquire more Western ways of doing business (Koning, 2006).

Koning (2006), in her study of what it meant to be overseas Chinese in the Indonesian context, revealed that older Chinese Indonesian entrepreneurs expressed disappointment and

feelings of loss of Chinese business practices, values, and customs, when referring to the younger generation. They complained that things were much better in the past. The younger generation agreed, saying that Chinese traditions are no longer significant to them. However, they recognize that Chinese roots do make a difference when it comes to doing business. They still believe that the Chinese have a better eye for business, are focused on how to make the business into a success, and are hard working. Furthermore, they still consider *Guanxi* (relationships and networking) and *Xinyong* (trust) essential in business.

It is interesting to ascertain if these results are also valid among different generations of overseas Chinese and Filipino entrepreneurs in the Philippine context.

CONTEXTUAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

This study defines generations according to a classification that permits the researcher to disentangle influences of immigration time period, nativity, and country of birth (Citrin & Highton, 2002), so that the researcher can make a more objective analysis of the differences in entrepreneurial styles among generations of overseas Chinese in the Philippines. The first generation of overseas Chinese is the foreign-born (born in mainland China and migrated to the Philippines), second generation is the native-born whose parents were born abroad (born in the Philippines but whose parents were born in China), the third generation are people born in the Philippines with parents also born in the Philippines, while the fourth generation is the descendant of the third generation, and so on. However, for Filipino entrepreneurs, since they are born and raised already in the Philippines, and their parents and ancestors the same, the study classified them according to age group. The first generation Filipino entrepreneurs are ages 50 and up, second generation ages 40-49, third generation 30-39 years old, while the fourth generation ages 20-39.

METHOD

This is a multiple case study done to confirm the relationships of three constructs – entrepreneurs’ entrepreneurial characteristics, leadership styles, and value orientation – across three generations and across cultures. To examine the entrepreneurial styles of Filipinos and overseas Chinese entrepreneurs in the Philippines, it adopts the indigenous survey instrument developed by Chavez (2000). The instrument measured the participants’ entrepreneurial styles according to personal characteristics, leadership style, and value orientation. The construct on entrepreneur’s personal characteristics dealt with innovation, achievement motivation, and risk-taking. Leadership styles were classified into directive, negotiative, participative, and delegating. Value orientation included paternalism, personalism, and *pakikisama*. The survey instrument was composed of 67 validated items. The study weighted the response of the participants for each item using the Likert’s five-point scale with the following equivalent weights: 5 – Strongly Agree;

4 – Agree; 3 – Neither Agree nor Disagree; 2 – Disagree; and 1 – Strongly Disagree. There were specific item numbers in the questionnaire that measured each dimensions. The categorizations can be seen in Table 4.

To determine which characteristic, leadership style, and value orientation are more dominant in each participant, the mean of the item numbers corresponding to each entrepreneurial style dimension is computed. Then, the results across generations and across groups (Filipinos and overseas Chinese) are compared.

To give light and understand the reasons behind any similarities and differences in the entrepreneur’s style across three generations and across groups, semi-structured interviews with local overseas Chinese and Filipino entrepreneurs were conducted. Semi-structured interviews allowed for a structured interview protocol with room for augmentation of key issues. Interview questions dealt with matters concerning ownership and structure of the firm, decision-making and governance, organizational financing, advertising and branding, and research and development.

Table 4
Survey Instrument Items on Entrepreneurial Styles

Entrepreneurial Style Dimensions	Item Numbers	Total Number of Items
Directive style	1, 2, 20, 35, 43, 45, 46, 60	8
Participative style	4, 12, 53, 62, 66	5
Delegative	30, 34, 55, 58(opposite coding)	4
Developing	7, 17, 47, 56, 61	5
Negotiative	22, 49, 52, 59, 67	5
Paternalistic	15, 16, 18, 19, 23, 27, 41	7
Pakikisama	40, 50, 51, 63, 65	5
Personalism	3, 5, 26, 54, 57	5
Risk-taking	9, 24, 28, 31, 32 (opposite coding), 33 (opposite coding), 36, 37	8
Innovative	6, 10, 11, 13, 14 (opposite coding), 25, 38, 39, 42	9
Achievement oriented	8, 21, 29, 44, 48, 64	6
Total number of items		67

One entrepreneur for each generation and for each group was chosen using purposive sampling. The study only sought to examine generational similarities and differences across three generations, namely, the second, third, and fourth generation. While there was no problem looking for first generation Filipino respondents, there was difficulty with first generation overseas Chinese as respondents. Since most first-generation overseas Chinese do not speak nor read fluent English, it was a challenge to use the survey instrument on them where items were written and explained in English and Filipino.

In choosing the participants for the study, some criteria for inclusion were taken into account. First, the participants must be the creator of the business. Second, the business must belong in the micro or small-sized categories since more than majority, or 99.2%, of the businesses in the Philippines are micro or small (*Current situation*, 2004). According to the Department of Trade and Industry of the Philippines, micro-enterprises have between one to nine employees and have less than

PHP 3 million worth of assets (approximately \$65,000). On the other hand, small enterprises have at least 10 employees at the minimum and a maximum of 99 employees with assets between PHP 3 million to PHP 15 million (approximately \$65,000 to \$325,000). Third, the business must be at least two years old. The study did not discriminate between the types of industry the participants' companies fell under. The type of business structure, whether sole proprietorship, partnership, or corporation, was likewise not part of the inclusion criteria when selecting participants.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 5 and Table 6 summarize the similarities and differences in entrepreneurial styles (measured in terms of entrepreneurial characteristics, leadership style, and value orientation) across three generations and among Filipinos and overseas Chinese, resulting from the participants' answers in the survey questionnaire.

Table 5

Similarities and Differences in Entrepreneurial Styles of Filipinos across Generations

Construct	2 nd Generation	3 rd Generation	4 th Generation
Entrepreneurial Characteristic	achievement oriented	achievement oriented	achievement oriented
Leadership Style	participative	negotiative	directive
Value Orientation	personalism	personalism	personalism

Table 6

Similarities and Differences in Entrepreneurial Styles of Overseas Chinese across Generations

Construct	2 nd Generation	3 rd Generation	4 th Generation
Entrepreneurial Characteristic	achievement oriented	achievement oriented	achievement oriented
Leadership Style	directive	participative	participative and negotiative
Value Orientation	paternalistic	paternalistic	<i>pakikisama</i>

Consistent with previous findings about characteristics of entrepreneurs in general, all six cases, regardless if Filipinos or overseas Chinese, demonstrated that they are achievement oriented. On the aspect of leadership style, only the second generation overseas Chinese are different. The third and fourth generation overseas Chinese are either participative and/or negotiative, similar to Filipinos for all three generations. This may signify that the younger generations of Overseas Chinese have now assimilated much of the Filipino culture, which affected their style of leadership.

In terms of value orientation, Filipinos are consistently personalistic across the three generations. On the other hand, second and third generation Overseas Chinese are paternalistic while the fourth generation values *pakikisama*.

Interestingly, the entrepreneurial style of fourth generation Filipinos is consistent with the findings of Chavez (2000). The predominant entrepreneurial style used was *entrepera*, which means that the entrepreneur is personalistic and highly task and achievement oriented. The leader tells subordinates what to do, dominates decision-making process, and exercises tight supervision. This was validated in the interview, when the fourth

generation Filipino respondent stated that all major decisions come from her. For the overseas Chinese, on the other hand, resulting combinations of constructs for all three generations did not fit any of Chavez's (2000) description of the Filipino entrepreneur. None of them came out to be *entrepatri*, *entrepera*, *entreperin*, nor *entreparris*. This may indicate that even if the overseas Chinese have assimilated many Filipino values, they are still able to maintain their Chinese ethnicity, especially when it comes to doing business. Table 7 lists the complete mean scores of the six cases for each entrepreneurial style dimensions.

The semi-structured interviews shed some light regarding ownership and structure of the firm, decision-making and governance, organizational financing, advertising and branding, and research and development. Table 8 presents a summary.

Although a lot of the firm characteristics are consistent with the traditional firm characteristics of Filipino and overseas Chinese respectively, the results of the survey show that the styles of entrepreneurs have changed to cope with realities of globalization and changes in business climate while trying to make use of traditional set-ups that worked.

Table 7

Comparative Mean Scores of Each Entrepreneurial Style Dimensions of Filipinos and Overseas Chinese across Generations

Entrepreneurial Style Dimensions	Filipinos			Overseas Chinese		
	2 nd gen.	3 rd gen.	4 th gen.	2 nd gen.	3 rd gen.	4 th gen.
Directive Style	3.88	4.00	3.63	4.00	4.125	4.25
Participative Style	4.60	4.00	3.80	3.40	4.20	4.60
Delegative	2.75	2.75	2.75	2.67	2.67	3.00
Developing	4.00	4.20	3.60	3.40	4.00	3.60
Negotiative	4.00	4.40	3.40	3.80	4.00	4.60
Paternalistic	3.57	3.57	3.29	4.00	4.29	3.86
Pakikisama	3.60	3.80	3.20	3.80	3.40	4.60
Personalism	4.00	4.20	3.60	3.40	3.80	4.00
Risk-taking	3.50	3.38	3.13	3.25	3.25	3.50
Innovative	4.00	3.78	3.22	3.33	3.56	3.89
Achievement oriented	4.17	4.17	4.00	3.67	4.33	4.67

Table 8
Summary of Firm Characteristics

Category	Filipinos			Overseas Chinese		
	2 nd gen.	3 rd gen.	4 th gen.	2 nd gen.	3 rd gen.	4 th gen.
Ownership & structure of firm	sole proprietorship; family control	corporation; non-family members also in control	sole proprietorship; family control	sole proprietorship; prefers hiring family control	sole proprietorship; prefers hiring family control	corporation; non-family members also in control
Decision-making and governance	centralized	centralized but empowers employees, asks for feedback	centralized but empowers employees, asks for feedback	centralized	centralized	centralized but empowers employees; open to feedback
Organizational financing	internal	internal but open to external	internal but open to external	internal	internal	internal
Advertising and branding	word of mouth, referrals	word of mouth, referrals, internet	word of mouth, referrals, flyers	word of mouth	word of mouth	word-of-mouth, referrals, radio, internet
Research and development	no	no	no	no	no	yes

It is also worth noticing that even if the overseas Chinese were found to be different from Filipino entrepreneurs in general (i.e., entrepreneurial styles did not fit the profiles of the Filipino entrepreneurs as identified by Chavez in her study), one distinct value of the Filipinos, *pakikisama*, was evident in the participants, particularly that of the fourth generation. This may signify that slowly, the future generations are adopting some local culture into the way they are doing business, even if the Chinese are known to be steadfast when it comes to preserving their Confucian culture. It is interesting to study whether a deeper assimilation of succeeding generations will drastically affect how the overseas Chinese do business in the future.

CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study is to come up with a comparative analysis of entrepreneurial styles of Filipino and overseas Chinese

entrepreneurs (according to entrepreneurial characteristics, leadership style, and value orientation) across three generations. This purpose was raised because for more than two decades now, the academic literature has focused on studies that try to identify the particulars relating to the business acumen of entrepreneurs but none has actually compared subgroups within a single country and across three generations.

Since the business landscape has changed dramatically over the past years, this study wants to determine how similar or different these groups are with each other and what each group can learn from the other.

It is apparent from the results of the study that the two groups are heterogeneous even though they operate business in the same country. However, slowly, the influence of Filipino culture is seen as the fourth generation overseas Chinese changes from being directive to participative and negotiative, and from being overly paternalistic to being *pakikisama*, which is considered a Filipino trait.

The acknowledgment that there is a need to change certain business styles to cope with the fast-paced economy brought about by globalization is an important impetus to ensure a firm's continued success. At the same time, an appreciation of one's cultural and ethnic background is a valuable tool so the entrepreneur, regardless of where he operates, may take advantage of his cultural roots when doing business. It is beneficial that the younger generation take stock of successful practices in the past which may still be adopted today, while vigilantly looking out for new ways to improve in the environment he operates.

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