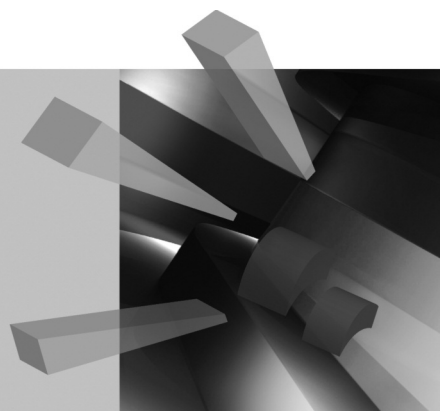


Human and work in a changing organisation. Management oriented on the employee interests



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BUSINESSMEN, MANAGERS, LEADERS. WHY IS IT SO HARD TO BE AN ENTREPRENEUR?

Summary: Analysis of selected aspects and theories of entrepreneurship, company management, and leadership is presented from the viewpoint of company founders and those who, in their professional careers, combine ownership and management functions. In the marked majority of small-business enterprises, those two functions are typically shared, resulting in a range of phenomena not readily observed in large companies or multinational corporations. In large economic entities, specialist knowledge and other duties closely related to future company success are typically delegated to specific teams, while the success of small enterprises, for the most part, is attributed to a single person.

Keywords: entrepreneurs, managers, leaders.

1. Introduction

New challenges faced by companies and studied by the management sciences create a demand for a new type of professional standard, the one that is based on resources and competences typical for entrepreneurs as individual and collective creators of economic transformations. Entrepreneurship should be regarded as a valuable social trait bringing tangible benefits to society as a whole. A dynamic and innovative entrepreneur is able to satisfy the demands of innovation creation and implementation processes. By way of eliminating past limitations, this group generates new and creative enterprises and supervises their operation. Entrepreneurs acquire funds, buy patents, recruit personnel, attain and retain customers, make arrangements..., in effect, forming a company out of dispersed and seemingly unproductive elements [Lichtarski (ed.) 2005, p. 54]. Entrepreneurs take on many challenges; they show initiative and dedication in their strive to create, organise, control, and develop new economic entities. They are the prime driving forces of economy, a force that integrates productive potential with ideas by coordinating allocation of resources left at their disposal.

Nowadays, some authors even go as far as to emphasise the notion that company success is neither a result of structures and material resources nor modern methods and instruments of management, but of unique and outstanding personages, whose activities determine the future of companies under their management. Those exceptional individuals – entrepreneurs – are gifted with a skill to utilise potentials unforeseen or neglected by the competition, minimise the risks, and generate new, better, more advanced products.

Human entrepreneurship is best observed in those areas of economic activity that presently undergo tumultuous development [Fridson 2000, pp. 22-29]. Generations born before 1800 met this opportunity in agriculture and trade. Later generations saw immense potential of industry and industrialisation processes. Some found their opportunity in exploitation of natural resources found in great demand by new industries, such as oil. Others drew immense profits and social advances from provision of transport infrastructure (mostly railroads). Later years saw a dynamic development of banking and financial services. When gasoline started to replace crude oil and became the most valuable product of oil refining process, many entrepreneurs sought their opportunities in this sector. Since 1950, economic success has been associated with the spheres of communication, computer software, and retail trade.

This enumeration clearly shows that the highest potential is always related to the sectors of key importance for economic development in a given time and space. At present, these include communication, services, and new technologies. Another promising segment is environmental protection and waste utilisation – of great importance in modern societies, forced to drastically increase their spending on this aspect of life in the years to come – and biotechnology. At the same time, for obvious reasons, these areas are also burdened with greatest risk, particularly in the light of fierce competition on the markets.

This paper focuses on the analysis of selected aspects and theories of entrepreneurship, company management and leadership, which are presented from the viewpoint of company founders and those who, in their professional careers, combine ownership and management functions. In the marked majority of small-business enterprises, those two functions are typically shared, resulting in a range of phenomena not readily observed in large companies or multinational corporations. In large economic entities, specialist knowledge and other duties closely related to future company success are typically delegated to specific teams. Success of small enterprises, for the most part, is a fruit of one man's labour.

As shown in the practice of economic activities in Poland in the period of economic transformation, development of entrepreneurship is a fundament of social changes and a basic factor stimulating the pace of economic growth and structural transformations in the period of economic boost. Hence, sources of entrepreneurship and its limitations have been in the centre of interest of many disciplines of science, such as economics, intercultural psychology, applied psychology and psychology of labour, organisation and management (including human resource management).

Those sciences aim to understand the nature of entrepreneurs as well as explain their role in a company, sector, and economy as a whole.

As noted by Fridson [Fridson 2000, pp. 22-29; Bieniok 2006, pp. 186-197; Kliszczak 2003, pp. 81-96], the main motives behind the aspiration for riches were neither, historically speaking, a question of lust for luxury nor want of overcoming poverty. According to Fridson, it was more about securing financial independence – an effect of childhood experiences. This particular need cannot be satisfied by any measurable amount of financial resources. Entrepreneurs wanted more and more, but it must be noted that their predominant stimulant was the need to win and enjoy the success and not the benefit as such. In the light of the above, one may pose questions: What makes a person an entrepreneur? What features characterise this notion? Is there more of a manager in him or her, or rather of a leader? And, most of all, is it reasonable to equate entrepreneurship with financial success? This paper aims to respond to those questions, based on selected scientific research and professional literature.

2. What makes an entrepreneur?

Economic literature [Bławat 2003; Ujda-Dyńska 2004, pp. 196-203] associates entrepreneurship with a number of functions, such as risk-taking, provision of financial capital, introducing innovations, decision-making, sector leadership, management, organisation and coordination of economic resources, ownership of operation, engaging production factors, making contacts, arbitrage, resource allocation [Nijkamp 2000], etc. Therefore, entrepreneurship is perceived as a multi-dimensional phenomenon and studied from many perspectives [Jaremczuk (ed.) 2010]. These functions show clearly that central aspects present in the analyses of entrepreneurship involve, among others, the entrepreneur's position in a company, relationship with economic environment, tasks fulfilled and financial profits gained from his or her actions.

The earliest studies and scientific elaborations on entrepreneurship reach back to the era of industrial revolution and pioneering capitalism. They were stimulated by emergence of new forms of economic activities and management as well as economisation of social life through utilisation of capital, technical, material, and human potential. Capital allocation was associated with considerable risk. It offered potential for fast profit, but also a prospect of failure and bankruptcy. The term “entrepreneur” was introduced by R. Cantillon and popularised by J.S. Mill in his classic work “The Principles of Political Economy”. According to those authors, an entrepreneur is a person who “organizes and manages risk in business, in return for expected profits” [after Szaban 2007, pp. 115-121].

Early in the 20th century, American economist F.H. Knight introduced a distinction between risk and uncertainty, as two important aspects of entrepreneur activities. Risk is associated with recurrent patterns, with their relative recurrence induced from past experience, whereas uncertainty refers to unique phenomena, the ones that

occur with probability that can only be explored subjectively. Changes on the market generally belong to the latter category. Knight observed that, while entrepreneurs may at times confront risk, i.e., they take measures to prevent it, they get used to the thought of uncertainty as an unavoidable aspect of their operations. They adopt this stance, because the prospect of potential profit compensates for the psychological cost of dealing with risk [Szaban 2007, pp. 115-121].

J. Schumpeter supplemented this definition of entrepreneurship with another important aspect – that of innovativeness. In his view, an entrepreneur is a person who introduces new products or processes, opens up new markets or new sources of supply, or sets up new organisations. In other words, entrepreneurs generate new sectors of industry which, in turn, enforce structural changes in economy, stimulate economic development and power up economic cycles. Entrepreneurs, in the view of J. Schumpeter, are driven by “joy of creation”, a fighting instinct, an urge to prove to themselves that they are better than the rest, a dream and will to create a private kingdom for themselves [Szaban 2007, pp. 115-121].

Stoner *et al.* [2001, pp. 168-182] introduced the notion of “economic undertaking” and defined entrepreneurs as initiators of such undertakings and founders of new organisations aimed at realisation of such projects. In their opinion, one important function that differentiates entrepreneurs from other economic actors is their ability to utilise factors of production for creation of new products and services. An entrepreneur is able to see possibilities that other managers fail to discern or appreciate their potential. To back up this thesis, Stoner *et al.* [2001] quote the success stories of H. Ford – he invented neither the idea of motor vehicle nor the new organisation of work, but creatively linked the two aspects together – and A. Morita, founder of Sony corporation, who saw the potential of using the existing company products to manufacture a revolutionary personal stereo player (walkman). “In fact, an entrepreneur perceives a need, and then skillfully combines workmanship, materials and capital required to satisfy that need” [Backmann (ed.) 1983, p. 3].

In principle, entrepreneurs create new organisations in order to provide some new value to customers, employees, or other stakeholders [Stoner *et al.* 2001, pp. 168-182]. Other authors, for example G.T. Lumpki and G.G. Dess, also emphasise the aspect of “novelty” or “newness” in entrepreneurial activities, but also introduce another perspective on products of their work and resources utilised in the process. In this approach, being an entrepreneur entails creating new systems, sources or processes that offer potential for creating new products, services and/or markets [Lumpki, Dess 1996, pp. 135-172].

At present, the interest is shifted towards utilisation of knowledge as an important element in the evolution of entrepreneurship. Kwiatkowski observes that intellectual entrepreneurship involves development of material wealth of individuals, social groups and nations out of immaterial knowledge. Competitive advantage of intellectual entrepreneurs stems from their knowledge and the resulting independence, enhanced by market leadership as a consequence of introducing new products and new

solutions. One of the most important features of operational methods employed by intellectual entrepreneurs is their ability to discern social determinants of economic effectiveness and their skill in providing creative solutions to imminent and inevitable conflicts between market participants. Intellectual entrepreneurship is generated through commercialisation of previously unexploited activities or through intellectualisation of purely economic operations and structures [Kwiatkowski 2000].

An interesting, modern definition of the notion of entrepreneur, based on a similar line of reasoning, is postulated by Szaban. In this approach, the key discriminants of entrepreneurship are reason (situational awareness and evaluation) and decision-making; thus, an entrepreneur is “a specialist who provides solutions for new, compound problems based on his or her reasoning skill” [Szaban 2007, pp. 115-121].

As seen from the preceding deliberations, professional literature fails to provide a clear and unified definition of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurial typology. At the same time, all those approaches display at least three common elements, which, despite the evolution of economy and economic theories related to entrepreneurship, remain stable and universal. The first of these elements is the notion of action. Entrepreneurs took action in the past, and they will take action in the future; that is, their behavior is characterised by active pursuit of certain values, be it organisational solutions, markets, products, information, services, or technologies. For that purpose, they take on economic activities. In this respect, the opposite notion seems to be the notion of “executors”, i.e., persons who carry out ideas, orders, or instructions of others. The second common denominator is their “dissimilarity”, interpreted here as constant determination for innovative, dissimilar perception of the environment and ability to conceptualise new applications for existing, adopted, or invented products or solutions. The third element of entrepreneurship is the “business audacity”, understood here as a natural inclination and ability to take on challenges with the prospect of expected benefit. By using the term “benefit”, we consciously avoid adjectives, such as “financial” or “economic”, since the later part of this elaboration will be devoted to the analysis of purpose in the entrepreneurial activities, another multi-dimensional aspect of the phenomenon under study, as displayed in professional literature.

The last, but apparently the most important characteristics of entrepreneurship is its invariable correlation with change. As aptly put by Drucker: “Entrepreneurs approach change as normal and healthy phenomenon, although they rarely are the authors of such change (i.e., they are seldom inventors of the change). However – and this seems the essence of the definition of entrepreneur and entrepreneurship – the entrepreneur is always looking for change, always responds to change and always sees an opportunity in change” [Drucker 1992, pp. 36-37].

3. Entrepreneur as a manager

At this point, we would like to emphasise the fact that the deliberations contained herein focus on one selected issue of entrepreneurship in its managerial role. In the case of small business, one discerning feature is the strong interconnection between ownership and management functions, typically realised by a single individual [Bławat 2003, pp. 27-38]. Hence, this analysis will only cover the theme of interpersonal relations which, in the view and experience of these authors, seems the most challenging aspect of small entrepreneurship, both for novice entrepreneurs and those who already operate with success on the market.

Ever since the late 19th century, under the influence of Fayol's work, management has typically been associated with four particular management functions: planning, organizing, leadership, and controlling. In modern times, such categorisation raises certain reservations but is still generally accepted. In practice, the management process is not a collection of four independent or loosely related sets of activities, but a system of inter-related functions [Stoner *et al.* 2001]. Planning, organising, leadership, and controlling run in parallel and are closely interlinked. This, in consequence, is what makes the process so difficult and time-consuming.

However, as the classic distribution of management functions is still applicable, one may safely assume that those functions are fulfilled by managers in any modern organisation. In addition, as emphasised in professional literature, the above classification does not take into account the function of coordinating, as this aspect seems crucial in the repertoire of any manager. As a manager can only be defined in relation to subordinates (after all, one cannot be a manager of oneself), then to reach the target objectives, he or she must – in the first place – coordinate the activities of his or her team to successfully complete the task at hand [Szaban 2007, pp. 206-229]. Thus, for the purpose of this elaboration, let us assume that management is a process involving planning, organisation, leadership, and controlling the activities of subordinate members of an organisation, as well as utilisation of all the available resources to reach predefined objectives.

This model was questioned in the 1970s by Mintzberg in his article "The Manager's Job: Folklore and Fact", honoured with McKinsey Award as the best publication on management [Mintzberg 2007]. The perspective postulated by Mintzberg in approaching the operation of managers was a breakthrough in perception of managerial functions and is now regarded as standard classification of managerial roles.

Mintzber in his article provides the following observation: "[...] 'managers' are vested with formal authority over an organisational unit. From formal authority comes status, which leads to various interpersonal relations, and from these comes access to information. Information, in turn, enables the manager to make decisions and strategies for the unit. The manager's job can be described in terms of various 'roles', or organised sets of behaviors identified with a position. My description (see Figure 1) comprises ten roles. As we shall see, formal authority gives rise to the three

interpersonal roles, which in turn give rise to the three informational roles; these two sets of roles enable the manager to play the four decisional roles”.

From the viewpoint of this elaboration, the most valuable observation provided by Mintzberg is the notion that all the roles adopted by managers – or, in this case, by entrepreneurial managers – are inextricably interlinked; they form a uniform system. Taking one element out of the equation will affect the realisation of task. For example, a manager who does not pay sufficient heed to maintaining proper relations outside an organisation will suffer from a lack of valuable source of information. This lack of information will affect not only a manager but the whole team, by generating the risk of making decisions that are inadequate under present circumstances. The key problem lies in the fact that not every manager pays equal heed to all the individual roles of his or her position, which results in varied effectiveness of operation in each of those individual areas of management, which itself is a function of personal preferences. In practice, this means that a small entrepreneur, in order to successfully fulfill the management tasks in his or her company, must be fully receptive and attentive to each of the individual management roles. This obligation remains in stark contrast with the entrepreneurial style and personal traits typically associated with entrepreneurship [Czubasiewicz, Rutka 2006, pp. 229-241]. This observation is confirmed by studies. For example, Chępa [2005] found that Polish managers clearly favour organisational roles with strong preference for task-oriented approach, as opposed to roles involving innovation or leadership, although the latter are clearly associated with success and seem indispensable for any modern manager.

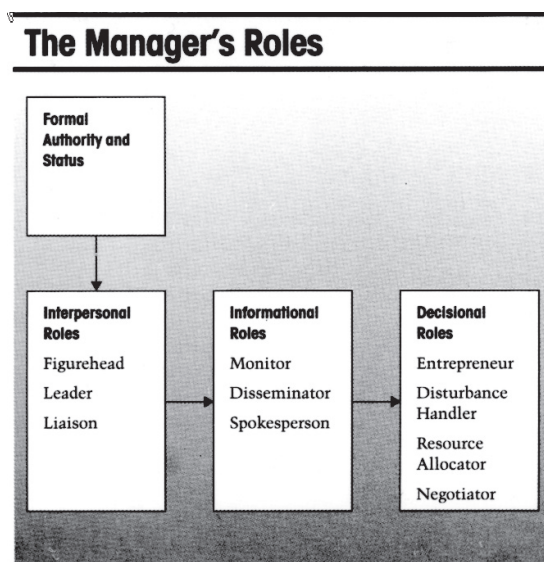


Figure 1. The manager's roles, according to H. Mintzberg

Source: Mintzberg [2007].

To sum up this part of elaboration, we postulate a thesis that unawareness of the requirement to fulfill all managerial roles or inadequate realisation of selected roles in this context can be seen as one of the most important obstacles faced by small-scale entrepreneurs and managers. Taking into account the above analysis of professional literature, and based on our own observation and experience in managing small companies, we believe that the aforementioned imperfections of small-scale entrepreneurs in practical approach to company management results in serious crises in company functioning, especially when coupled with dynamic development and the resulting increased significance of roles that were largely negligible or insignificant in the early stages of company operation [Nogalski *et al.* 2005, pp. 95-101, Dziuba-Owsianka 2006, pp. 357-368] (for example, the role of liaison between managers and specialists from different departments which only came into existence as a result of dynamic development).

4. Entrepreneur as a leader

It is only natural that the behaviour of a company owner, manager, or chief executive will strongly affect the general atmosphere in the workplace. It can also be noticed that such behaviours are naturally copied and repeated by their subordinates. The authors of this monograph, as managers of their respective organisations, were always careful in selecting their attire, choosing formal, but not too distinguished dress schemes. Not before long, our subordinates were observed to copy this “dress code” using similar selection of garments. At one of the companies, as a result of dynamic development (the authors’ own observations), a new financial manager was recruited – a former employee of a sector of finance and banking. Fashionable suits, ties, and waistcoats were his natural attire and a mark of personal dignity. Soon after, most of his immediate subordinates adopted similar dress style. Professional literature provides many spectacular examples of such behavioural transition [Szaban 2007, pp. 274-294; Kieżun 1997, p. 176].

It is clearly the behaviour of leaders that can be regarded as key factor in formulation of organisational cultures and behavioural models in the workplace [Piecuch 2006, pp. 528-536]. Behaviour of managers can manifest itself in selection of leadership style, understood here as a range of methods used to manage and influence the activities of subordinate group [Stoner *et al.* 2001, p. 453; Czubasiewicz, Rutka 2006, pp. 229-241]. The management style, i.e., the approach to communication with subordinates, evolved and solidified in time [Szaban 2007, p. 274], is of particular impact on workplace atmosphere, strongly affecting the moods of employees, their sympathy towards an organisation as such, their organisational identification. Management style depends, most of all, on the manager’s personality traits, temperament and habits, and also, to some extent, on his or her knowledge and expertise in this particular aspect of management.

Since the early years of the 20th century, following the pioneering work of Weber on the leadership phenomenon with his categorisation of legitimate power into charismatic, traditional, and legal power [after Kurnal (ed.) 1972, p. 317], there has been a dynamic development of research and studies of leadership. In one of the most current and comprehensive overviews of the existing leadership theories, the following approaches to the concept of leadership can be discerned [Kozłowski, Piotrowski (eds.) 2000, pp. 338-362]:

- qualificative: based on studies of leaders' personality features, seeking characteristic patterns and traits associated with effective leadership, and formulated on the assumption that leadership is an inborn feature;
- behavioural: focusing on leaders' behaviours and seeking "model" behaviours in this respect;
- situational: studying correlations between effectiveness of individual leadership styles and situational contexts;
- transactional: based on analysis of strong and weak points of the preceding approaches, assuming constant transactional exchange between leaders and their subordinates, as a consequence of the conflicting interests of both groups;
- transformational: based on the assumption that leadership is a process, in which organisational vision is formulated and transmitted by a charismatic personage, with skilful use of internal and external contacts to boost innovation, communication, and flexibility at every level of an organisation.

Another interesting approach making its way into professional literature ever since the last decade of the 20th century is perception of leadership as an art. Depree puts it this way: "Leadership is constructive; it is a set of proper activities taken as a result of clear and careful reflections, with the leader being able to speak with authenticity and make contact with the followers, guiding them into art" [DePree 1989]. Hatch *et al.* [2010] offer business leaders three perspectives (faces) of leadership – that of a manager, an artist and a priest. They believe that running a company requires as much creativity as it does in respect to artists making art. They postulate that creativity and inspiration, in parallel with technical rationality, should define effective business leadership. Since critical analysis of leadership theories is outside the scope of this paper, in our search for key aspects of small-business entrepreneurship we should note that none of these theories provides sufficient ground for explaining why some people become effective leaders and achieve success, while others do not. Neither of these theories presents potential for predicting success or failure in the leadership role [Kozłowski, Piotrowski (eds.) 2000, p. 357]

Therefore, if entrepreneurs are not able to predict whether they will become successful in their leadership role, should they altogether disregard this particular aspect of company management? Definitely not. Each of these theories emphasises the definitive role of leadership features as a success factor in every organisation [Falencikowski *et al.* 2009, pp. 16-23]. That each of those theories postulates a different approach to the phenomenon of leadership should not depreciate their con-

tribution to the field of science and research and question their role in success of millions of enterprises worldwide. Which of the theories should be taken as fundamental for future success? It does not matter, as the most important factor in this respect is the awareness of leadership as an element of organisational management and selection of reliable patterns confirmed by studies and practice. A good example of this relationship can be found in the achievements of situational approach, represented by such prominent figures as Fiedler (theory of dependencies) and Hersey and Blanchard (situational theory). Both approaches indicate that success of managerial activities is correlated with a number of situational variables, applying to both subordinates and superiors. In terms of practical applications faced by managers, neither can be deemed the most appropriate nor most suited for management purposes. Management style should always be related to a situation, i.e., fitting for a particular time and setting, and – most of all – adjusted to the potential and the expectations of subordinates and the non-personal determinants (such as the nature of the task or the binding schedule). By making a manager aware of these correlations and prompting him or her to employ this approach in everyday work, one can clearly help him or her avoid many pitfalls associated with team management and, in effect, improve the effectiveness of an organisation as a whole.

What conclusions can be derived from the above considerations? For one, entrepreneurs-managers should be made aware of the fact that leadership is only (and as much as!) a role among many roles that can and should be enacted by a manager. Managers are appointed [employed] to manage organisational resources and be responsible for completion of tasks. By reaching for their leadership role, which entails making good relationship with the managed teams, managers are able to achieve their goals and tasks with greater efficiency. A manager-leader can fulfill his or her formal tasks and obligations, while maintaining the aura of trust and authority among the majority of his or her subordinates.

5. In place of a conclusion, a fundamental question: Why do entrepreneurs do what they do?

The closing part of this elaboration is devoted to a subject that is often neglected by entrepreneurs, especially small-business entrepreneurs who took up business activities led not as much by conscious and rational economic decisions, but rather by impulse for action. When asked for the reasons for becoming entrepreneurs, for giving up a large part of their lives to pursue their plans despite the challenges of fierce market competition and numerous problems of organisational nature, they would surely be baffled. This seemingly trivial question is, in fact, of crucial importance and should be faced both by those who plan on setting up their own companies and those that already run a successful enterprise. Why do entrepreneurs do what they do?

A critical reader will surely point out here that the birth of a company is closely related to the situation accompanying the decision of starting it in the first place. Indeed, contextual determinants of the decision, such as the context of culture, economy and situation, play an important role [Falencikowski *et al.* 2009, pp. 16-23]. The impact of environment upon development of entrepreneurship has been researched thoroughly with numerous factors deemed stimulatory or detrimental in this respect. For example, Vesper identifies 10 stimulating factors and 12 barriers to development with such aspects as market contacts or successful role model (positive) or a lack of market knowledge and social contempt (negative) [Vesper 1983, pp. 59-68]. Bateman and Snell classify entrepreneurs into those who form their companies without external support (independent), those who become entrepreneurs as a result of departure from mother company (“spin-off”) and those described as “internal entrepreneurs”, who generate new undertakings within the structures of large corporations [Bateman, Snell 2002, p. 222]. Numerous other examples of similar line of research can be quoted here [Nogalski *et al.* 2009, pp. 435-444; Nogalski *et al.* 2008, pp. 165-176], but for the purpose of this elaboration let us assume that entrepreneurs do not display opportunistic attitudes and operate with the intention of staying in business for many years to come. If this is the case, then any and all external factors will only influence the time taken for making such a decision, and not in any way affect the decision itself.

An interesting answer to this question is provided by Wasserman [2008] in the article “Company Founder’s Dilemma”. Based on own research and observation, Wasserman postulates that the dilemma faced by both start-up entrepreneurs and those that successfully run their businesses can be expressed in the allegorical form of: Do I want to be a “rich man” or a “king”? [after Piecuch 2006, pp. 528-536]. Studying the choices made by entrepreneurs, Wasserman observed that they sometimes reject opportunities that may potentially generate high profit and instead focus on other solutions – a decision seemingly contradicting with their alleged strive for riches. The reason for such decisions stems from different motivation; namely, the desire to create and manage an organisation for their own. It may be surprising to note that focusing on one of these goals clearly jeopardises the success of the other. Thus, entrepreneurs constantly face the challenge of choosing between earning money and maintaining control over their companies. Those unable to decide which of the two goals is more important in the long run are often left without either. It should also be noted that the majority of entrepreneurs display strong, emotional attachment to their companies, oftentimes addressing them as “their children”. When those “children” grow and develop, their needs accelerate (external capital, new ideas, leadership, inspiration for action) and can only be satisfied by relegating part or whole of the power over a company. If this course of development was not anticipated from the beginning, and has only just become apparent, an entrepreneur will face a dilemma, especially if he or she is strongly attached to the idea of “total power” over a company. This fundamental conflict can be described using the postulated allegory of

“rich man” vs. “king”. Choosing the “rich man” path offers the potential of increasing company value but, at the same time, shoves an entrepreneur to the far plane of company structure, depriving him or her of their prominent position and the right of having a final word in most matters. The path of “king” protects their power of position and control, but is often associated with lesser company value. For entrepreneurs, being “rich” is not necessarily more attractive than being “a king”, and *vice versa*. The essential issue here is whether the choice itself is in line with their initial motives anticipated at the moment of making the decision to start a company.

6. Conclusions

For the reasons pictured earlier, instead of formal conclusions summing up the deliberations contained herein and attempting to present the most important features and qualities of an entrepreneur as a manager and leader, we decided to quote the essence of the article by Wasserman. This decision is based on the assumption that the reader is already facing the decision of starting his or her own company or at least seeking values and issues that are most important in entrepreneurship. For us, as persons strongly involved in both theory and practice of small enterprise management and proponents of its development, Wasserman’s observation seems to be the essence or the very foundation of any entrepreneurship – an elementary guideline for anyone looking to become an entrepreneur or trying to understand why some of us become entrepreneurs, while others fail in this role. All other issues discussed herein are but instruments, useful in the course of practical involvement with entrepreneurship. Therefore, before our readers take an informed decision on starting their own enterprises, they should contemplate the following questions: What is my objective? What am I trying to accomplish? What will be the mark and the measure of my success in business? We strongly believe that the this paragraph will provide guidelines for addressing these questions and, consequently, help future entrepreneurs set their own goals, based on the achievements of modern science and rich fountain of knowledge on entrepreneurship. “Making a choice between money and power helps entrepreneurs understand their personal meaning of success. Those who strive for power over their own empire will not find consolation in riches when their power is taken away from them. Those who strive for riches will not feel lost nor defeated when faced with the prospect of giving up their power over the company they built and developed” [after Picuch 2006, pp. 528-536].

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PRZEDSIĘBIORCY, MENEDŻEROWIE, PRZYWÓDCY. DLACZEGO TAK TRUDNO BYĆ PRZEDSIĘBIORCĄ?

Streszczenie: W artykule autorzy skupiają się na analizie wybranych zagadnień i teorii związanych z przedsiębiorczością, zarządzaniem przedsiębiorstwem i przywództwem z perspektywy osób, które tworzą przedsiębiorstwo lub łączą w sobie funkcję właścicielską z funkcją zarządczą. W ogromnej większości podmiotów, które można zaliczyć do tzw. drobnej przedsiębiorczości, funkcje te spełniane są łącznie, co powoduje, iż występują w nich zjawiska, których próżno szukać w dużych przedsiębiorstwach czy międzynarodowych korporacjach. O ile w dużych podmiotach gospodarczych wiedza specjalistyczna i związany z nią w przyszłości sukces przedsiębiorstwa mogą być rozdzielone na określony zespół pracowniczy, o tyle w małych przedsiębiorstwach sukces jest niejednokrotnie dziełem jednej osoby.

Słowa kluczowe: przedsiębiorcy, menedżerowie, przywódcy.