

ASSESSMENT OF THE COMPARATIVE POTENTIALS OF INTRAPRENEURSHIP AND SELF EMPLOYMENT AS TOOLS OF EMPLOYMENT GENERATION AND WEALTH CREATION*

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Abstract

The emergence of intrapreneurship as alternative expression of entrepreneurship at a time of persistently high failure rate of the popular self employment for all promotion strategy, despite strong policy support and massive deployment of resources, makes a comparative assessment of the two alternatives, logical, desirable and necessary. This paper undertakes this assessment through the examination of the net job gains from each alternative and their respective contribution to economic growth. The analysis shows that most of the progressive entrants into self employment who create more, permanent and better jobs come from intrapreneurs (who are generally more experienced and resource-able), rather than from the unemployed or inexperienced resource dependent population, like young school graduates and the retired who tend to exit as they enter self employment, like a revolving door, as expressed in high failure rate. Since the latter category is the target of the current policy and programmes in Nigeria, as in most other developing countries, this might offer an explanation for the persistently high and global failure rate of self employment strategy and makes Intrapreneurship development policy option attractive, deserving priority policy support and primary focus of Entrepreneurship Development Programme (EDP). Based on this, it is considered that governments need to determine and encourage only few progressive entrants, instead of the current self-employment-for-all promotion, especially the young graduates. Since evidences suggest that the focus and development of corporate entrepreneurship (Intrapreneurship) through Human Resources Management Practices is likely to produce better results than we are getting now, it is the responsibility of human resources management professionals to become business partners by refocusing and focusing the development of appropriate personnel management practices and skills to transform organization personnel into entrepreneurial workforce for employment generation, wealth creation and economic growth.

KEY WORDS: *Intrapreneurship, Self Employment, Employment Generation, Wealth Creation, Human Resources Management, Entrepreneurship*

Introduction

According to Istrate. C. Emilia (2007) the rise of different countries has been attributed to a thriving culture of entrepreneurship as a tool of job creation, poverty reduction, and economic growth. However, for a long time, entrepreneurship has been seen as a synonym for establishing small firm or self employment and basically opposite of paid employment where intrapreneurs operate (Rothwell and Zegveld: 1982; Johan Mas, Luc Sels, Sophie De- Winne: 2005). Thus the role and comparative contribution of intrapreneurs (in paid employment) as an alternative strategy (or even complementary policy option for promoting job creation, economic growth) is seldom considered by entrepreneurship or human resources management scholars. However, according to Anders Drejer, Karina S. Christensen and John P. Ulhøi (2004) we are slowly beginning to understand that innovation and learning are not the prerogative of start-ups and "entrepreneurs" any more. Thus, the concept became gradually understood by increasing number of people to comprise of a set of human behavior and activities which can take place in employment just as in self employment, leading to the birth of intrapreneurship as a substantive sub-area of entrepreneurship field of study.

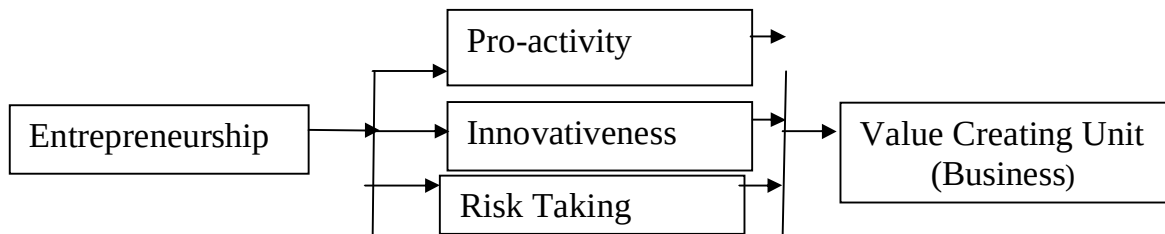
SELF EMPLOYMENT-FOR-ALL OPTION: Needs for your review

In contrast to entrepreneurship through the intrapreneurship sub-field, entrepreneurship through self employment in small businesses have been richly promoted in literature as the most effective way to promote job creation and economic growth (Brown Gordon. 1998). Due to this, entrepreneurship development through self employment has been adopted in Nigeria, like many other developing countries, as the main solution to the problem of unemployment and poverty in terms of policies, programmes and curricula designs and focus of efforts and resources (Ekpenyoung B.David; 1992). However, emerging studies appears to point in a different direction. Parker Simon (2005), Ekpoh Uduak Imo & Edet Aniefiok Oswald(2011) report that, despite many favorable press publicity, studies in Nigeria, as in many countries across the globe, the massive efforts of governments and institutions produced mainly increased desire of many to be self employed as well as many small businesses, the failure rate of these businesses is high enough to be regarded as the norm (Ebiringa Thaddeus; 2012). For example, Papulova Zuzana (2007) reported a very high failure rate of businesses in the United States of America, not withstanding high level of state support and infrastructure. Close to a million small enterprises were founded in 2007. According to him, sadly at least, 40% of these businesses fail within the first year. 80% of them will be out of business within 5 years and 96% will have closed their door before their 10th birth day. Also, the rate of small business failure in US in 2011 is Year 1; 85%;Year 2;70%;Year 3;62%;Year 4;55%;slowly reducing to 35% failure rate after 10 years.

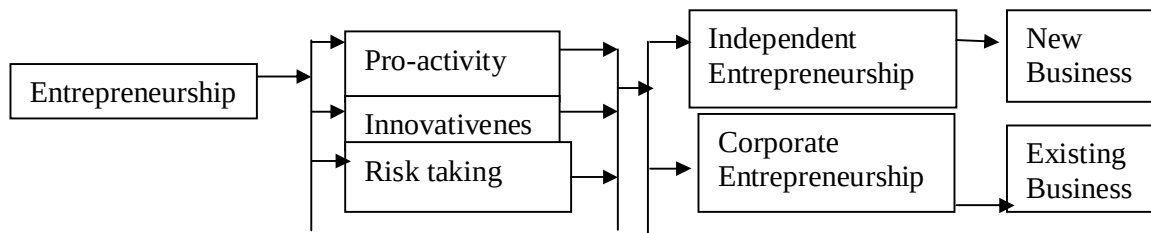
Concerning developing countries, Rebecca, E.O & Benjamin, J.I (2009) argued that despite government provision of resources for entrepreneurship development, little or no success has been achieved and called for a change in the current approach. Most of the studies establishing the high failure rate of small scale businesses and hence apparent failure of government policies, support system and institutional programming, did not explore the implication of this to the claim of self employment as the best tool for stimulating economic growth and creating jobs, especially as compared with the potentials of existing firms. Thus Jeremy K. Hall, Gregory A. Daneke and Michael J. Lenox (2010), cautioned that, while the case for entrepreneurship as a panacea for transitioning towards a more sustainable society is alluring, there remains major gaps in our knowledge of whether and how this process will actually unfold. Esuh Ossai Igwe Lucky (2011), on the other hand emphasized that finding an appropriate entrepreneurial approach that could produce positive entrepreneurship development results in many countries remains an important concern within the field of entrepreneurship. In the light of this, this paper undertakes an assessment of the comparative potentials of intrapreneurship and self employment entrepreneurship as tools of employment generation and wealth creation. This is with a view to evaluate and enhance the current popular policy thrust and programmes of entrepreneurship development for employment generation and economic development.

CONCEPTUAL CLARITY

Kourisky (1995) describes entrepreneurship as comprising the location of opportunities, marshalling of resources for the purpose of creating and managing businesses. This, according to Howard Stevenson (1983), involves the pursuit of opportunity without regard to the resources being currently controlled. There is an appreciable consensus in literatures that the dimensions for the practical expression of this pursuit are essentially in the exercise of pro-activity, innovation and risk-taking. Thus when these dimensions are exercised in the pursuit of opportunity, a value creating unit (or business) is created as depicted below:



The person who undertakes this exercise is called an entrepreneur. This exercise may, according to Anders Drejer, Karina S. Christensen and John P. Ulhøi (2004), be undertaken by an individual independently (independent entrepreneur) or within the context of a corporate or existing business (intrapreneurs or corporate entrepreneurship) as shown below:



The independent entrepreneur is usually called a self-employed or a founder. It should however be noted that founders or self-employed are not necessarily entrepreneurs. They become entrepreneurs when they exercise proactive innovation and calculated risk in their employment as founders or self employed. In addition, though entrepreneurship has long been associated with small or new business formation, not all small or new businesses are entrepreneurial. Therefore, it was operationalised here as only founding of new firms, rather than being entrepreneurial. Large businesses could be entrepreneurial if their workforce are innovative, proactive and motivated to take calculated risk. In fact, large businesses become large only because they have been entrepreneurial (innovative) in the past. Consequently, existing or large firms are operationalised as the context for the exercise of intrapreneurship. So conceptually, workers may or may not be entrepreneurial just as self employment may as well be or not be; both being alternative means/routes to achieving entrepreneurship, but not its essence. The product of entrepreneurship is job creation and wealth generation, leading to economic growth. Economic growth in this sense means an increase in the amount of goods and services produced by an economy over a time. It is typically measured as the percentage rate of increase in real Gross Domestic Product (GDP).

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

It is not in doubt that entrepreneurship through self-employment contributes to job creation, wealth generation and economic growth (Hart and Oulton, 2001; Thurik, 2003; Van Stel, Carree and Thurik, 2005); Ayyagari, Demirgüç-Kunt and Maksimovic, 2011). The issue is whether or not it does so as much as, or more than entrepreneurship through intrapreneurship. As a result of the tendency to equate entrepreneurship with self employment as discussed above (in policy and practice), efforts to compare its relative contribution to that of intrapreneurship are few and only recent, despite the high failure rate universally associated with small scale/self employment businesses. The efforts in this direction so far, have been more in terms of net job creation (by comparing entry and exit rates) and economic growth.

In term of job creation, it has been argued that contribution to job creation should not be measured in terms of absolute figure but net job gained over a period, because this is what cause economic growth (Chantal, et.al; 2010). By this is meant for example that, self employment would be held to have contributed more, if the jobs left after subtracting job loss (through business failures) from job created (through new firms) is greater than what is left after subtracting job loss (through retrenchment) from job gained (through expansion) over a specific period of time. That is:

New Jobs (through self employment) - Job Losses (Closures) > New Jobs (through expansion) - Job Losses (Retrenchment)

Generally, economic growth result from increased productivity of resources. Hence, Scott Shane (2008) hypothesized that to get more economic growth by having more start-ups, new companies would need to be more productive than existing companies. Based on this he contended that, to achieve this, new firm (through self employment) must be able to make more efficient use of resources than the expansion of existing businesses, run by intrapreneurs. By this, it would be able to offer more qualitative or greener jobs than the existing firms. These are discussed in the following sections.

EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK

Contribution to Economic Growth.

In relation to economic growth, John Haltiwanger, Julia Lane, and James Speltzer (1991) examined the relationship between *firm productivity and firm age* from the U.S. Census data, and found that firm productivity increases with firm age. This, to Shane (2008), means that, the average new firm makes worse use of resources than the average existing firm, which is not what is expected if economic growth benefits more from the creation of new firms than from the expansion of existing ones. He argued that they are not likely to make up for this poor productivity when they get older because typical start-up is dead in five years. This position is supported by three streams of studies (Niels Noorderhaven, et.al, 2004; Martin Caree et.al, 2002 and David Blau, 1987), from different but complementary perspectives.

First, David Blau and his colleagues (1987) studied 23 organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries, and found that “as countries get richer, they change where economic value is created; first from agriculture to manufacturing, and then from manufacturing to services. They explained that, as the source of economic value shifts towards activities where self-employment is less common, like manufacturing, from activities where self-employment is more common, like agriculture, the proportion of people running their own businesses drops. This was later corroborated by the Hippel .S (2004) studies which report that “in the United States, the decline in the importance of agriculture to the overall economy led to a decline in un-incorporated self-employment rates from 12 percent in 1948 to 7.5 percent in 2003. Shane Scott (2008) reports that similar pattern can be seen in most of the OECD countries.

Secondly, the Martins Caree et.al (2002) studies of 23 OECD countries showed that when countries get wealthier, *real wages rise and the opportunity cost* of running your own business goes up because the amount of money that you could have earned working for someone else increases. This increased opportunity cost leads more people to go to work for others than when real wages were lower.

The third stream of studies in this direction was that of Niels Noorderhaven et.al (2004) who found that, as countries become wealthier, the rate at which they create start-ups goes down owing to *economics of scale*. According to them, societal wealth leads average wages to go up, which encourages business owners to use machines to replace work that used to be done by hand. Capital (the machinery) is subject to greater economies of scale (the reduction in the cost of production that comes from generating things in higher volumes) than manual labor. As a result, the increased use of capital leads companies to grow in size and hire more people who would otherwise have gone into business for themselves. This supports the earlier findings of Bogenhold,D and Stabler U(1991) that the correlation between real GNP growth rates and the rate of self-employment in France, West Germany, and Italy between 1953 and 1987, and in Sweden between 1962 and 1987 is negative. This is also in line with Blanchflower .D (2000) who found a similar pattern of correlation between self-employment and economic growth in the 19 OECD countries from 1975 to 1996.

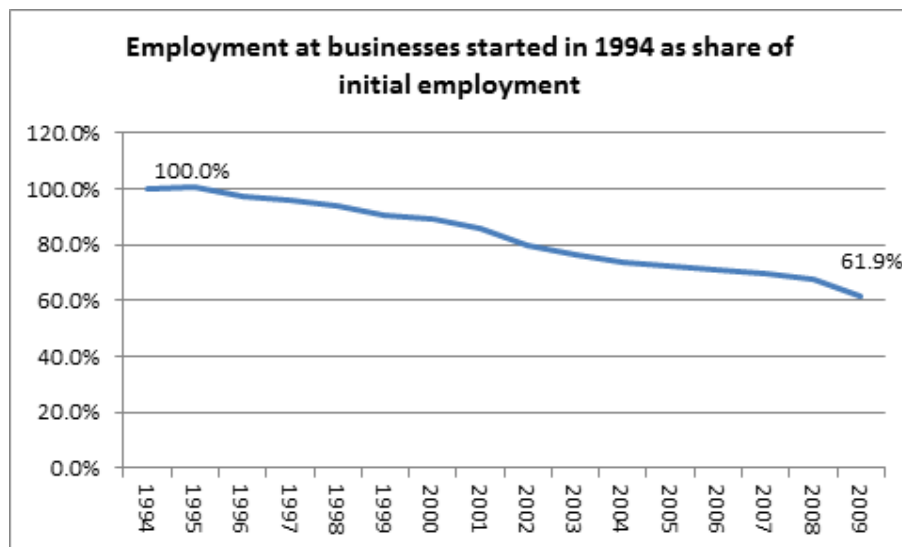
The Job Creation Argument

Do the new businesses founded by self employed entrepreneurs create more jobs than established firms, especially those that practice corporate entrepreneurship? While the mainstream literatures affirm this and the common public policies suggest it, emerging studies are going in the opposite direction. According to Zoltan Acs and Catherine Armington (2004), using a study in the United States, report that companies with at least one employee that are less than two years old, account for only 1 percent of all employment. By contrast, companies with at least one employee that are more than ten years old, account for 60 percent of all employment in the United States.

Also, data provided on its website by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics shows that of the 31,472,000 jobs that were created in the United States in 2004, only 2,207,420 or 7 percent were created by new firms.

In Sweden, Per Davidsson and Frederic Delmar (2008), examined data from Statistics Sweden on job creation by firms of different ages and found that only 1.7 percent of the ten year job growth of surviving firms was generated by firms two years old and younger in the observation year. By contrast, 74.5 percent of the job growth was generated by companies of ten or more years old.

In terms of net job creation, Amy Knaup (2005), analysed data from the US Bureau of Labour Statistics and found that the number of job lost by new firms that close down in the subsequent years exceeds the number of the jobs added by the expansion of the new firms that survived as shown below;



Source: Created from Bureau of Labor Statistics data

This same pattern exists in Sweden and Germany where Knaup, A. (2005) studies show that each cohort of new firm employs more people in its first year than it employs in any year after that.

In terms of job quality, Wagner, J (1997), in his study in Germany found that jobs in new firms pay less, offer worse fringe benefits and provide less job security than jobs in existing firms. This is significant in an age in which international standards require that green jobs should be made available to more and more people.

In addition, Vanessa O'Connell (2012) report the result of a focused cohort study involving four experts in the field of labour and business on the question of whether or not small business deserve their reputation as job creator. All the experts agreed that: though, small businesses create jobs, they also destroy many jobs as well and concluded that their net job creation is negligible. According to them, "if the goal is to promote innovation through new product and services or job creation, increasing the number of small businesses is not the most direct route" and that

relative to larger firms, self employment or small businesses is not a cost-effective way to stimulate job growth, given the high failure rates of small and young firms, These are in line with the conclusions of the 2008 edition of the World Entrepreneurship Forum as reported by Scott Shane(2012) that “encouraging start-ups in general is lousy public which would lead people to start marginal businesses that are likely to fail, have little economic impact, and generate little employment. New firms don’t create more jobs than existing firms; to get to 50 percent of net new jobs created by “new” firms, we have to consider all firms that are nine years old and younger to be “new” etc.

THE INTRAPRENEURSHIP DEVELOPMENT OPTION

Role of experience as a Worker

Arguing in favour of intrapreneurship, the Pinchots (1978) observe that entrepreneurial ventures often lost their innovative (or their entrepreneurial) edge as they grew into established companies and hence the failure rate of small businesses tends to rise at the point of their transition from their establishment phase into stable formal business organization phase. This is probably due to the fact that, as Cromie and John (1983) has argued “the skills necessary to ensure the growth and development of an enterprise may be different from those required to conceive and launch a business”. He stressed that such skills can only be learnt in the practice of entrepreneurship in an existing firm. Thus, intrapreneurs are better placed to gain practical experience that can be applied to future self employment entrepreneurial ventures.

In support of this logic, Yadollah mehralizadeh and Hossain Sajady (2005) argued, as Carter and Cannon (1988) and Fuller (1994), that the majority of successful new business owners set up in the industry in which they had been previously employed. Lussier, Robert N,(1996), Fothergill and Gudgin (1982) also provide evidences that most successful small business owners previously worked in other small firms or smaller divisions of larger companies. Other empirical studies are Cooper, Gimeno-Gascon and Woo, (1994); Cressy, (1996); Arrighetti and Vivarelli, (1999); Lee and Tsang, (2001); Shane, (2001); Vivarelli, (2004) which show that new founders who had previously been employed as managers in the same sector and therefore who had better access to relevant information are expected to exhibit better post-entry business performance. The same pattern of performance was also reported in developing countries by McPherson (1996) who found a positive relationship between annual employment growth and previous experience of the founder in similar economic activities for entrepreneurial firms in Swaziland and Botswana. Vijverberg (1991) and Goedhuys and Sleuwaegen (2000), studying Côte d’Ivoire, found that job experience previously acquired in the same industry increases the likelihood of founding a new business and contribute to a firm’s better performance.

Corporate advantages of Intrapreneurs

Scott Shane (2012) reports that “working within an existing company—rather than launching an independent start-up business—offers a number of advantages to such individuals. Intrapreneurs have access to a productivity-stimulating work environment, the company’s resources which increase their chances of success, and at the same time maintain a salaried position which provides them with added security in case of failure” and hence enhances their readiness to take business risk.

Several studies have established that the many problems of entrepreneurs (independent), as self-employed creators of new firms are in areas of the comparative advantages of intrapreneurship in terms of the core essence of entrepreneurship processes and activities. The table below illustrate this with Kourislsky (1995) definition as the model. He conceives of entrepreneurship as a three aspect process of opportunity recognition, marshalling of resources for the purpose of creating and managing business:

S/N	Aspects of Entrepreneurship	Comparative Advantages of Intrapreneurs
1.	Opportunity Recognition	- Services of well founded and staffed R&D departments, established networks and -experience in the course of working in standard environment ,which is available to the intrapreneurs but

		not to self employed entrepreneurs
2..	Marshalling of Resources	Access to corporate financial resources. The corporation typically has easier access to credits, etc.
3.	Creation and Management of Business	The greater ability of large organizations to obtain the services of experts in these areas.

Comparative Potential for Innovation

From another stream of argument, Kelly Edmiston(2010) stressed that innovation which is the key element in entrepreneurship, as discussed above, creates real jobs and predict post-entry firm performance. It thus determines which firm will survive and last and which would not. In this respect, he stressed that large firms (where intrapreneurs operate) have greater potentials, which if activated would enable them to outperform new firms in job creation and therefore contribute more to economic growth and development. Further in this respect, he identified two types of new entrants:

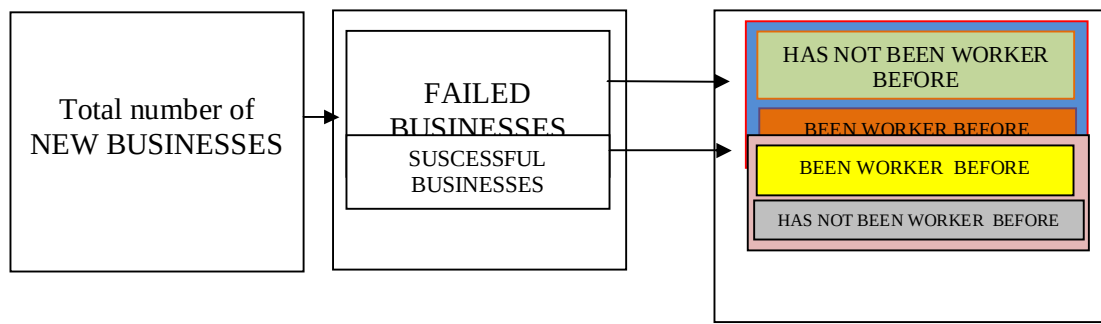
- Progressive entrants who are motivated by factors such as opportunities, demand and profit expectations, innovative potentialities, entrepreneurial human capital built through specific education, family environment and previous job experience, to
- Regressive and defensive entrants who are motivated by factors such as overconfidence, a desire to be independent, a fear of unemployment.

He stressed that it is the progressive and innovative new businesses that create permanent jobs, while the regressive ones only create precarious and temporary jobs that are doomed to fail in no distant time, exploring the high failure rate of new businesses. He describes these as revolving door which admits and exits simultaneously. Specifically, Arrighetti and Vivarelli (1999) found that defensive motivations such as concern about future career developments and the fear of becoming unemployed were predictors of a below-the-average post-entry evolution. Also, Andersson and Wadensjö, (2007), using a large sample of Swedish-born men who were self-employed in the period 1999-2002 and who were either wage-earners, unemployed or inactive in 1998, showed that those who were previously unemployed systematically had lower incomes compared to those who were previously wage earners.

Literature (Carrasco, 1999; Pfeiffer and Reize, 2000); point out two stylized facts concerning motive of new entrants: 1) those who have entered self employment from unemployment **exit** to a higher extent than those who have entered from paid employment. 2) new founders who were formerly unemployed, have on average, lower economic outcomes and a lower propensity to contribute positively to job creation.

Carree et.al (2007) contend that it is when opportunity new entrants are distinguished from the defensive ones that positive relationship becomes established between new firm formation and economic growth and development. Consistent with this, Ghani, Kerr and O'Connell, (2011a) and (2011c) report that when the focus is on developing countries, a positive relationship between self employment entrepreneurship and job creation is detectable only when purely self-employment and informal companies are excluded from the analysis. This is supported by Parker. S.C (2008) who report that the younger and older employees are significantly more likely to engage in nascent intrapreneurship than nascent entrepreneurship as self employment. To him, these should be candidates for intrapreneurship, not the inexperienced and unemployed. Cerher Archam (2009) stresses that intrapreneurs (such as these) are more likely to have intention to start a new independent business with greater chances of success than the unemployed and inexperienced. People who are unemployed, he further contended, tend to perform worse when they start companies than people who quit their jobs to start business. This is most probably due to their experience, better access to resources and business contacts, e.t.c. He therefore concluded that policies designed to increase the total number of new businesses disproportionately attract people who are likely to fail. This in line Andrea Vogel (2012) who report that” entrepreneurs in most successful firms claimed that they have been an employee before and their experience as employees assisted them to succeed”.. According to

Thamou Neis (2008), some of the greatest business leaders of the past century first made their early mark in business as intrapreneurs. For examples, the former General Electric chairman Jack Welch made a name for himself by building GE's engineering plastics business as if he were starting his own company. Lew Lehr, former chairman of 3M, similarly built his career on his intrapreneurial pursuit of 3M's expansion into the healthcare industry. In contrast, the phenomenon of high failure rate of entrepreneurial efforts outside formal organizations has been a long standing and worldwide problem that appears to have attracted but defiled all known research efforts, policy and programme interventions. On the other hand, Rothwell, (1983) and Nooteboom, (1994), stressed that "the result that poorer countries fail to benefit from entrepreneurial activities do not imply that entrepreneurship should be discouraged in these countries. Instead, it may be an indication that there are not enough large companies present in these countries benefiting from economies of scale and scope". From the discussions above, it may be concluded that intrapreneurs can not only create business expansion in existing businesses, they are more likely to create new businesses that would last and create more stable jobs as independent entrepreneurs, as depicted below. From the figure, most of those who failed have not been workers before. Most of those who succeed have been workers before:



THE NIGERIAN SCENARIO

The trend justifying these conclusions is also present in Nigeria. First, the focus of entrepreneurship development policies and programmes in Nigeria are mainly the defensive new entrants such as graduates and the retired, rather than the experienced workers or intrapreneurs as proposed by Parker Simon C (2008). Also, Suliaman Adedotun (2010) reports a similar high mortality rate among the businesses resulting from this policy environment in Nigeria. According to him, only about 15% of the businesses are surviving to their 4th year. The consequent frustration of the uncelebrated 85% failed small scale businesses (entrepreneurs) and their families implies that the celebrated successes of the businesses are unsustainable and hence are probably creating more problems, though unnoticed, than they are solving. Majority of them use personal loan to start their respective businesses and hence, when failed, end worse than they were. The results often include frustration which may manifest in many ways, including the leaking of resources through increased budget on security and increasing need for support of failing projects and entrepreneurship development programmes.

It is an historical fact that the current emphasis on entrepreneurship outside formal organizations became prominent when the performance and consequent shrinking abilities of these organizations became pronounced and apparently defiled solution through or due to their un-entrepreneurial operations. In Nigeria, when these companies were operating maximally, they used to go to educational institutions to recruit students even before they graduate. It could then be argued that the resort to entrepreneurship through independent self employment option is not only less effective to but also due to the absence of intrapreneurship option.

IMPLICATION FOR HRM FUNCTIONS

Human resources management (HRM) has been described by Boxall et.al(2007) as the management of work and people towards desired end. The overall purpose of this management, according to Armstrong(2009), is to ensure that organization is able to achieve success through people. This suggests that HRM do not contribute directly to the profitability of the organization. It does so as a business partner through developing the profit-abilities (to generate profits) of the people who comprise the organization. If, as discussed above, intrapreneurship is basically about the exercise of certain human qualities and activities such as innovative, proactive and risk taking individual and or organization behaviors, then, its(intrapreneurship) development and management should be within the preview of HRM practice. Also, to the extent that intrapreneurship activates and express the abilities of individuals and organization to generate profits and achieve competitiveness, its development intrapreneurship through HRM functions can become an authentic way for HR professionals to become a business partner indeed. However, up till now, HRM scholars and practitioners are still to focus and approach entrepreneurship agenda through intrapreneurship development or beyond vocationalization for self employment which is outside their immediate or organization score card. This suggests that the HRM practitioners need to refocus intrapreneurship development, sharpen and focus their practices and skills on this to achieve organization competitive performance, job creation and economic development. If this is the case, there would be enough justification to expect, through them, a return to the days when employers go to institutions of higher learning to recruit fresh graduates.

CONCLUSIONS

It may be said from the discussions so far that the discovery of the existence of intrapreneurship or corporate entrepreneurship as a possible prevalent quality among employees has opened up a new option for increasing corporate performance, employment generation and wealth creation for improved national economy in a more efficient and less expensive manner. This is because, the emerging streams of literatures point to the fact that net job gains by larger firms through intrapreneurship are more stable and qualitative than that of new small firms, and hence are better source of new small businesses with greater potential positive impact for economic growth.

It could then be argued that government could receive greater returns by investing the same resources in creating a more conducive business environment for existing firms-both, large and small than focusing on increasing the number of new firms through self employment-for-all.

There is therefore the need to embrace corporate entrepreneurship development as the preferred and dominant policy option. The educational system also needs to focus the production of entrepreneurial graduates in all fields and the organizations should recruit and nurture entrepreneurial workforce. In addition, governments need to identify and promote, (not just all, but) few progressive entrants or new firms that would last and create more jobs than it loses.

These point to the possibility that the objective of entrepreneurship, job creation and wealth generation could be realized more effectively, if the focus of attention and resources, now being given to independent entrepreneurship outside the formal organization, were given to it inside the formal organization through the development and application of entrepreneurial workforce and entrepreneurial organization competence development function of the human resources management practitioners. It is therefore the responsibilities of human resources management practitioners to become business partners by focusing and developing the skills to transform organization personnel into entrepreneurial workforce for employment generation, wealth creation and economic development. The research gap here is that this global picture of the relative contribution of intrapreneurship (corporate entrepreneurship) has not been documented or subjected to any rigorous research efforts in literature, especially in Africa. It is therefore necessary to confirm this in developing countries such as Nigeria. The same applies to how human resources management practices influence the development of entrepreneurial workforce

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