ECONOMICS © Jociology

Sulkowski, L., Ignatowski, G., Stopczyński, B., & Sulkowska, J. (2022). International differences in patriotic entrepreneurship – the case of Poland and Ukraine. *Economics and Sociology*, *15*(1), 297-319. doi:10.14254/2071-789X.2022/15-1/19

INTERNATIONAL DIFFERENCES IN PATRIOTIC ENTREPRENEURSHIP – THE CASE OF POLAND AND UKRAINE

Jagiellonian University, Cracow, Poland E-mail: <u>lukasz.sulkowski@uj.edu.pl</u> ORCID 0000-0002-1248-2743

Grzegorz Ignatowski

Łukasz Sułkowski

University of Social Sciences, Lodz, Poland E-mail: <u>gignatowski@san.edu.pl</u> ORCID 0000-0002-4432-8476

Bartłomiej Stopczyński

University of Social Sciences, Lodz, Poland E-mail: <u>bstopczynski@san.edu.pl</u> ORCID 0000-0001-8941-7424

Joanna Sułkowska

University of Social Sciences, Lodz, Poland E-mail: <u>jsulkowska@san.edu.pl</u> ORCID 0000-0002-4949-3622

Received: April, 2021 1st Revision: March, 2022 Accepted: March, 2022

DOI: 10.14254/2071-789X.2022/15-1/19

ABSTRACT. Objective: The aim of the paper is to examine whether the impact of patriotic entrepreneurship may differ from the perspective of buyers depending on the country in question and how it affects entrepreneurial behaviour. Methods: The method are semi-structured interviews with entrepreneurs and management and economics students from two countries who were introduced to the main elements that make up the concept of patriotic entrepreneurship and an online survey conducted among students coming from the two countries using questionnaire data will be mentioned. Results: Both quantitative and qualitative research indicated that most respondents understand and are willing to be guided by principles that take it into account. At the same time, the differences in the behaviour of entrepreneurs and buyers in Poland and Ukraine show that the very concept of this entrepreneurship, not supported by a strong economy and an attractive offer of domestic enterprises, will remain only a theoretical concept, not implemented in practice. Conclusions: Patriotic entrepreneurship can be one of the important motivations for consumer, managerial and employee actions. The research should be continued in the future. Other countries should be selected to see if there is a correlation that the intensity of patriotic entrepreneurship increases as the economic level rises. It would also be useful to investigate whether the attachment to local brands increases as the competitiveness of their offer improves.

JEL Classification: M2, O2

Keywords: patriotism, nationalism, patriotic entrepreneurship, economic entrepreneurship, consumer ethnocentrism

Introduction

The spheres of patriotism and entrepreneurship seem to belong to distant ontological and epistemological orders. The axiological order seems to be possible to consider. Let us note, however, that it is not easy to talk about patriotism in general and even less so about patriotic entrepreneurship at a time when we are witnessing two opposing phenomena, such as progressive globalisation and emerging nationalisms (Suryadinata, 2000; Melegh, 2006; Greenfeld, 2011; Kregel, 2019). On the one hand, the contemporary environment is shaped by progressive globalisation and the development of information technologies. These phenomena result in the world turning into a global village and the importance of the local economy and the specificity of local behaviours are decreasing, as these factors are subordinate to the global market and global supply chains. On the other hand, dramatic events at the beginning of the third decade of the 21st century (Covid pandemic, war in Ukraine) show the weaknesses of globalisation and indicate that, there are growing calls for greater emphasis on state autonomy in economic activities, especially in strategic, sovereign sectors, that, there are growing calls for greater emphasis on state autonomy in economic activities, especially in sovereign sectors. This may consequently lead to and open the way for the development of patriotism also in the economic sphere. Its understanding depends to a large extent on how we understand patriotism and entrepreneurship themselves.

In everyday language, the term patriotism is often used interchangeably with nationalism. The latter denotes the desire of a group to form an independent country. It can also mean love for a country and the belief that it is better than any other. The two meanings, patriotism and nationalism, are sometimes used interchangeably in everyday language, and the difference is more in the tone of speech. Patriotism has positive connotations, patriotic love for the country and putting the interests of the homeland first is however not unconditional. It focuses on the development of the country, including the development of positive relations with other countries and nations. It puts cooperation, responsibility and commitments made by patriots in other countries first. It is a way of maintaining balance between caring for the well-being of the community of which one is a part off and cooperating with representatives of other cultural, ethnic and national groups (Mummendey, 2001).

Nationalism, on the other hand, is an extreme. A nationalist is an individual who puts the interests of one's country above the elementary principles of humanity, other values and common sense. This results in ruthlessness in actions, thoughtlessness, a sense of superiority of one's own nation over others, which can lead to violent, ill-considered, belligerent actions (Polle, 2008). In extreme cases, nationalism can even lead to war between nations.

The concept of patriotism, understood as love for one's homeland, means that we can also talk about it in the context of entrepreneurship. Patriotism is after all one of the key social ideas, dating back to the birth of nation states.

The aim of the paper is to examine whether the impact of patriotic entrepreneurship may differ from the perspective of buyers depending on the country in question and how it affects entrepreneurial behaviour. The issue will be addressed from the perspective of entrepreneurs and students belonging to people of Polish and Ukrainian origin.

The method is semi-structured interviews with entrepreneurs and management and economics students from two countries who were introduced to the main elements that make up the concept of patriotic entrepreneurship and an online survey conducted among students coming from the two countries using questionnaire data will be mentioned. The qualitative research allowed for two research hypotheses:

- 1. Perceptions of patriotic entrepreneurship on buyer behaviour vary from country to country.
- 2. The impact of patriotic entrepreneurship on entrepreneurial behaviour vary from country to country.

These were verified by responses collected in the course of the quantitative sample data.

1. Literature review

Actual patriotism and patriotic entrepreneurship are not diametrically opposed concepts in a global perspective (Rawwas & Rajendran, 1996). The term 'patriotism' does not appear in European languages until the second half of the 18th century (Barnhart, 1995). A patriot is a person who loyally loves his or her country, demonstrates this in a loyal manner and is prepared to defend it. In English, the concept of patriotism largely overlaps with the concept of nationalism. Nationalism, like patriotism, is characterised by a strong love and pride for one's country (Crowther, 1998).

The term 'patriotism' is usually used when we speak of love of one's country in a positive way. There is a suggestion that patriots are reasonable in their commitments, take responsibility for actions and respect commitments made by patriots in other countries (Audi, 2009; Druckman, 1994; Markel, 2000). This means they are more predictable and rational in their actions. They are not guided by emotions and prejudices, and their love for their homeland will translate into rational action, the main aim of which will be to improve its welfare. According to some authors, patriotism rejects actions aimed at idealising a nation and expresses a readiness to look at its history constructively and critically. It supports a given political system as long as it remains consistent with human values and accepts that the state can be criticised for its actions (Davidov, 2010). Thus, patriotism should be treated as a positive attitude, bringing to the environment a constructive action combined with the feeling of strong ties with the immediate environment understood as the family, neighbours, people living in the country, speaking the same language.

Patriotism implies a more open attitude towards the surrounding world and a more peaceful attitude towards other peoples and countries (Druckman, 1994). The idea of patriotism avoids conflict between citizens' emotional attachment to their country and their rationally grounded moral and political commitments (Markell, 2000). A patriot will co-create the prosperity of one's country in cooperation with neighbouring nations. One will understand competition as cooperation both within the country and with the external environment, in order to improve the living conditions, security or economy of one's country. Patriots support a given political system as far as it remains compatible with human values. They accept that the state can be criticised and accept that there are negative feelings associated with the nation (Davidov, 2010). In other words, a patriot will support one's country and nation only if their actions are ethical, rational and contribute to the welfare of his society but also humanity. At the same time, any mistakes that may occur will be a reflection and a lesson to improve one's own conduct.

Actual patriotism and a global perspective are not diametrically opposed to each other (Rawwas et al. 1996; Teo et al. 2017). Patriotic identification with a country, the feeling that the country is my country and the government is my government, sues to entrench a sense of responsibility for the actions taken by national governments. This is important from the point of view of today's geopolitical situation, where the strength of individual countries depends not only on them, but also on alliances, sustainability and the quality of cooperation between nations. At a time when the world has becoming a global village, there is no room for a merely local view of the economy, which is supposed to be self-sufficient (autarch). In the new circumstances, it is equally as important to be able to use local resources as it is to be able to share them with other countries and to obtain the missing ones from the environment. A patriot

understands that a country should be an open system that obtains resources from the environment to improve and strengthen its economy, while at the same time knowing that this economy is only a part of a larger system made up of other economies that work together to achieve goals. Patriotism also includes feelings such as shame, outrage and anger for specific decisions. Mistakes made by national decision-makers give rise to criticism and corrective action. And, in extreme situations, to actions forcing the replacement of decision-makers. Patriotic engagement can provide the energy and passion that motivates and sustains civic engagement. They foster a sense of solidarity with those workers who feel threatened by the loss of their jobs or feel the need to improve and achieve more socially (Brubaker, 2004).

The concept of 'patriotic entrepreneurship' is not popular in the literature. Furthermore, the concept of international or global brands positive perception is more famous (Grębosz-Krawczyk, 2019; Kim & Chao, 2019). The term 'entrepreneurial patriotism' was mainly used to explain historical type of active and inventive patriotism (England, 1985; Moreno-Luzón, 2007). Much more popular in literature is the term 'economic patriotism'. The dominant understanding of 'economic patriotism' is steering national economy towards: statism, stronger country orientation and local entrepreneurship. From the entrepreneur's point of view, it is about making decisions that take into account the positive impact on the national community with which the entrepreneur identifies So a distinction must be made between 'economic patriotism' and 'economic nationalism', just as one distinguishes between patriotism and nationalism. Economic patriotism emphasizes the development of the economy and the organisations within it. The concept of regaining control over national economy by democratic power seems to be growing together with opposition against 'excesses of neoliberalism' (Clift & Woll, 2012; Rosamond, 2012). Finally, economic patriotism pays attention to the choices of consumers, producers of workers or politicians. At the same time, economic policies can be covert or overt. The trend towards economic patriotism was significantly reinforced after the 2008 crisis (Clift & Woll, 2012). One can assume that the crises of the beginning of the third decade of the present century (Covid pandemic, war in Ukraine), which introduced significant disruptions in the functioning of global supply chains, will contribute to the further development of economic patriotism by promoting national autonomy.

The concept close to 'economic patriotism' is 'economic nationalism' based on the autarchic, protectionist perception of national economy (Reznikova et al., 2018). Representatives of political economy use the term 'economic nationalism' in the sense of an anti-liberal orientation, i.e. focused on the closed idea of national economy (Stahel, 2013). In turn, researchers identifying with the economic nationalism strand tend to treat economic processes separately from the political, social and cultural aspects of nationalism (Fetzer, 2017). The syndrome of 'economic nationalism' is growing in countries ruled by populist parties like: Hungary, Poland, Italy, Greece or Indonesia (Papp & Varju, 2019; Pham 2019; Lekakis, 2017). Economic nationalism is not an absolutely new concept, since its roots go back to the Industrial Revolution, if not even earlier. It means the subordination of economic aims to the protection of the interests of the homeland and its people. The latter developed to it's fullest in the 19th century, drawing its concepts from the work of the precursor of the German economic school and the father of economic nationalism, Friedrich List (Levi-Faur, 1997). To a certain extent, he advocated protectionism as a temporary measure to stimulate the development of German industry. At the same time, he vehemently rejected the cosmopolitan assumption that the concept of nation was merely a collection of people. Rather, drawing on the views of the German philosopher Johann Fichte, he suggested that a nation was a cultural reality with its own unique history, character and language (Pryke, 2012). It is known that Fichte was an ardent patriot who could not accept the defeat of Germany during the Napoleonic Wars (Keohane, 2018). List, on the other hand, sometimes referred to Fichte in his works and himself postulated that culture, industry and the state should form a single economy of the people. Although List's

postulates did not meet with a positive reception, and he himself was convinced that he was being ignored, his views had some influence on significant politicians, especially German ones. Economic liberalism continued to dominate economic activity, but European and American and even Japanese governments tried and taxes to influence the economy by imposing tariffs. Liberalism in the economy collapsed even during the interwar period. Governments tried to influence economic activity especially during the period of emerging economic crises and rising nationalist sentiments. Liberalism was revived after the Second World War (Pryke, 2012). Ideas of economic nationalism, however, did not die, and found their diverse expression in many parts of the world with the onset of the post-2008 economic crisis. (Helleiner, 2021; Gehlen et al. 2020). It should not be forgotten, however, the example that even before the outbreak of the economic crisis in 2008, the French Prime Minister in 2005 called the defence of local initiatives in an integrated European market economic patriotism (Clift & Woll, 2012).

Another concept related to patriotic entrepreneurship is corporate social responsibility (Kszywosz-Rynkiewicz et al. 2017). It can be manifested both in the form of supporting the environment i.e. through charitable activities and ethical action manifested in the form of paying fair wages to employees or not avoiding taxes (Ivanova-Gongne et al., 2022). The perception of CSR activities depends on the geographic and social proximity of the stakeholders (Puncheva-Michelotti et al. 2018). Activities in a closed community are rated significantly better. This correlates with a sense of love for the homeland and the land. CSR activities can also be supported and even stimulated by the public (Zueva & Fairbrass, 2021; Anggusti, 2019). Cultural differences are also noticeable in CSR activities, where in authoritarian countries (e.g. China, Russia) the emphasis on nationalism and the well-being of the local community is prioritised over the well-being of the individual (Fagerström, 2020; Zueva & Fairbrass, 2021).

The issue of patriotic entrepreneurship, as mentioned above, can also be considered from an environmental point of view. Indeed, if patriotism finds its expression in the love for one's country, and therefore also for the land, then from the entrepreneur's perspective, this patriotism would be expressed in the promotion of such activities that support the production of goods produced with full respect for environmental protection. In particular, it is about paying attention to those regulations and solutions that take into account sustainable economic development postulated in international agreements (Gibbs & David, 2009; Hall et al. 2010; Pacheco et al. 2010). A patriotic entrepreneur would focus their activities on supporting ventures focused on renewable energy sources. At the same time, one would try to function in such a way as to generate a minimum amount of waste as a result of the economic processes undertaken, which means using recyclable materials in production or resigning from unnecessary packaging. Such an entrepreneur would also get involved in the activities of organizations dealing with environmental protection by supporting them financially or establishing foundations whose aim would be to protect the environment.

Another form of patriotism considered from the entrepreneur's point of view, and in a sense from the perspective of nationalism, would be related to the issue of employment of employees. It would be expressed in favour of employing workers from a particular country. This would be a form of discrimination similar to nepotism and cronyism (Arasli & Tumer, 2008; Keles et al., 2011; Jaskiewicz et al., 2013; Jones & Stout, 2015; Fetahu, 2017; Ignatowski et al., 2021). And, as in the above cases, it would be relevant whether the employer would be guided by competence and ethnicity in hiring decisions, or only by affiliation. In the latter situation, this could result, as in the case of nepotism or chronicism in a decrease in motivation to work, satisfaction, commitment (Arasi et al., 2006; Arasi & Tumer, 2008; Padgett & Morris, 2005; Padgett et al., 2015). This could lead to an exodus of more valuable workers, to difficulties in recruiting specialists belonging to other ethnic groups. It is therefore important to emphasize entrepreneurial patriotism and avoid nationalism.

At the same time, it is worth noting that there are studies on the impact of ancestry, ethnicity and nationality on employment and economic activity (Alberto & La Ferrara, 2005; Staerke et al. 2010).

The issue of patriotic entrepreneurship can also be considered in the context of the buyer of products manufactured in a given country. Thanks to patriotic attitudes, people become more favourably attached towards products from their own country and thus support local entrepreneurship. In this respect, the concepts of consumer ethnocentrism and the country of origin concept are interlinked. The latter implies the belief that products from foreign countries have less value. Individuals who are patriotically oriented towards their country prefer homemade products and downplay the value of goods from abroad (Rawwas & Rajendran, 1996; Spillan & Harcar, 2013). As for consumer ethnocentrism itself, it means attachment to products and brands originating from a particular country, also it means disattachment from goods and brands originated from country in conflict with ones homeland: 'From the perspective of ethnocentric consumers, purchasing imported products is wrong because, in their minds, it hurts the domestic economy, causes loss of jobs, and is plainly unpatriotic; products from other countries (i.e., outgroups) are objects of contempt to highly ethnocentric consumers' (Shimp & Sharma, 1987). Consumer ethnocentrism is a multidimensional phenomenon influenced by cognitive and perceptual dimensions, levels of collectivism-individualism and conservatism, product and country image, but also patriotism and nationalism (Zeugner et al. 2015; Siamagka & Balabanis, 2015). The level of ethnocentrism is influenced by the quality of products and the income level of customers (Šmaižienė & Vaitkienė, 2014) as well as ethnicity (Ogbolu & Singh, 2019). Among very many studies linking consumer ethnocentrism to patriotism, international studies dominate, in which patriotism is one of many variables determining ethnocentrism. Comparative studies indicate that consumer ethnocentrism in Turkey is correlated with patriotism and in the Czech Republic with nationalism (Balabanis et al. 2001). S. Sharma et al. indicate a significant correlation between patriotism and consumer ethnocentrism in South Korea. Research conducted in the mid-1990s indicates high levels of consumer ethnocentrism in Poles linked to levels of patriotism, which increases with the age of product purchasers (Good & Huddleston, 1995; Awdziej et al., 2016). It is also worth noting that, on the one hand, consumer ethnocentrism supports local firms through greater demand for their products, but research indicates that in parallel, this ethnocentrism can negatively affect foreign direct investment (Andrews et al., 2018).

Patriotic entrepreneurship should also be considered from a political perspective. In such a view patriotic entrepreneurship is expressed in the support of national economic activities by specific governments, and does could lead to a certain discrimination against other economic actors. It therefore also implies economic choices that aim to support specific firms or economic sectors because of their territorial status. These political choices may be implicit or explicit. Economic patriotism must therefore lead to a certain clash between the political sphere and economic rules (Cliff, 2013).

State support for local companies can be implemented through the use of a wide range of protectionist and industrial policy measures that individual countries have. Governments can, influence company size, seek to create national leaders in a given industry. They can also exert more or less explicit pressure for individual companies to cooperate with local firms, where foreign firms do not have wide access to public procurement (Wroock, 2006). It is important to distinguish between patriotic and nationalistic state actions. This is reflected in the distinction of state protection into liberal economic patriotism and conservative economic patriotism. Liberal economic patriotism entails selective or strategic liberalisation in a way that privileges a particular set of economic actors. It can aim to support the competitiveness of national firms or citizens operating abroad. It is characterized by liberal policies that facilitate the creation of sub-national champions. Conservative economic patriotism refers to the traditional

protectionism. It looking to preserve the status quo. Looking to preserve the status quo, it is characterized by activities to protect the local market and local companies from global competitors (Clift & Woll, 2012a).

Thus, we can propose several possible dimensions of patriotic entrepreneurship, which will be drawn from the concepts of: economic patriotism, corporate social responsibility, consumer ethnocentrism and state interventionism.

In each of these approaches, it is important to distinguish between patriotism and nationalism. The former brings a range of benefits for businesses themselves, economies and customers, as well as the environment. It strengthens the ties that exist between participants in the national market, citizens and the public. Entrepreneurship based on nationalism loses its common-sense approach, giving an apparent protection over the local market or local businesses. However, as such protection does not lead to an improvement in the competitiveness of market participants, it harms them in the long term.

In conclusion, patriotic entrepreneurship is a concept that derives from patriotism, that is love for one's homeland. However, it must take into account a realistic approach in which the benefits of a pro-national approach outweighs the costs that are incurred by favouring local companies, products, employees. It is only when this condition is met that entrepreneurship improves the competitiveness of local companies and contributes to development. At the same time, the concept of patriotic entrepreneurship must take into account market trends related to globalization and the digital transition, seeking an optimal balance between support for local activities and the free market. Patriotic entrepreneurship cannot replace free market mechanisms but complement them as a response to contemporary dramatic challenges of the 21st century (2008 economic crisis, Covid pandemic, war in Ukraine). If this condition is not met, patriotic entrepreneurship becomes nationalistic entrepreneurship, which is significantly different and could be harmful in the long run both for international environment as for local economy.

2. Research methodology

Literature research confirms that the issue of patriotic entrepreneurship is not widely discussed in scientific works. Nevertheless, we have several important elements that may be constitutive factors for such an activity. These include issues such as economic patriotism, nationalistic patriotism or economic patriotism. The sources of and connections with patriotic entrepreneurship can be sought in the concepts of corporate social responsibility, citizenship activity and economic patriotism (Kszywosz-Rynkiewicz et al. 2017). One can also find in the literature concepts related to patriotic entrepreneurship among concepts such as 'entrepreneurship engagement' (Thorgren & Wincent, 2013), 'social, societal entrepreneurship' (Gawell, 2013; Estrin et al. 2016; Thompson et al. 2000) and 'civic entrepreneurship' (Leadbeaster & Goss, 1998; Rowe & Christie, 2008), 'inclusive entrepreneurship' (Guria, 2013). Associations of patriotic entrepreneurship with 'economic nationalism' and with ethnocentrism are negative (Cheah & Phau, 2015; Szanyi, 2017). At the same time, research shows that there is no shortage of works on issues such as patriotism or nationalism. There is an extensive literature dealing with the issue of entrepreneurship as such in the context of organisational nepotism, corruption or the importance of modern technologies on the promotion of entrepreneurship. Aiming to deepen the issue of patriotic entrepreneurship, this paper poses two research hypotheses:

- 1. Perceptions of patriotic entrepreneurship on buyer behaviour vary from country to country.
- 2. The impact of patriotic entrepreneurship on entrepreneurial behaviour vary from country to country.

To verify the above research hypotheses, both qualitative and quantitative methods were included in this study. It should be noted that in both qualitative and quantitative research, the respondents were familiarised with the complex research issues. They were also pointed out to the relevant components falling within the scope of patriotic entrepreneurship issues. Within the qualitative method, an individual in-depth interview was used. Its main purpose was to investigate how patriotic entrepreneurship influences the behaviour of buyers and entrepreneurs in different countries. The qualitative research included entrepreneurs from Ukraine as well as from Poland. No one needs to be reminded that they are both buyers of goods, i.e. consumers, as well as investors.

Interviews were conducted between January and May 2021 with 10 owners managing small and medium-sized enterprises from Poland and Ukraine. The choice of qualitative research at this stage allowed us to get to the specifics of the cases and provided an opportunity to understand the specifics of the enterprises under study (Fendt & Sachs, 2007; Luchko et al., 2019; Sułkowski 2009; Toften & Hammervoll, 2013). The individual in-depth interviews were based on a reproducible research scenario, which provided the opportunity to ask respondents additional questions, which made it possible to detail the research problem. Before conducting the research, the scenario was consulted with external experts dealing with the issue of entrepreneurship and sociological and ethical research on patriotism. Three experts came from academia and two from entrepreneurial organisations. They considered the selection of the research sample to be purposive. The interviews were recorded and taken down, followed by transcription and qualitative analysis.

The qualitative research involved owners of small and medium sized enterprises who ran their own businesses in different types of sectors, as well as in localities with different population sizes. Care was taken to ensure that the selection of Polish and Ukrainian companies was similar in terms of their activities and the size of the towns in which they were based.

There are ten Polish and ten Ukrainian respondents from very differed by: sector and size of company where they are working, position in company and sex. Such a differentiated sample should left the problem of the influence of sectors aside and focused mainly on differences connected to society (citizenship and place of birth). Below there is detailed description of 20 subjects of qualitative research:

- Ukrainian female working as owner of small accounting company (8 employees) coded as U1.
- Polish male working as owner of small driving school company (8 employees) coded as P10.
- Polish female working as owner of small legal counselling company (8 employees) coded as P4.
- Polish male working as owner of small publisher of a magazine company (9 employees) coded as P2.
- Polish male working as owner of small accounting company (10 employees) coded as P1.
- Ukrainian female working as owner of small publisher of books company (11 employees) coded as U2.
- Ukrainian female working as owner of small legal counselling company (11 employees) coded as U4.
- Polish female working as owner of small legal counselling company (14 employees) coded as P3.
- Polish male working as owner of small tourism sector company (14 employees) coded as P7.

- Ukrainian female working as owner of small tourism sector company (17 employees) coded as U7.
- Ukrainian male working as owner of small educational services company (17 employees) coded as U10.
- Ukrainian male working as owner of small legal counselling company (19 employees) coded as U3.
- Ukrainian male working as owner of small construction industry company (19 employees) coded as U9.
- Polish male working as owner of small construction industry company (24 employees) coded as P9.
- Ukrainian male working as owner of medium logistics company (99 employees) coded as U5.
- Ukrainian male working as owner of medium manufacture of packaging for gastronomy company (120 employees) coded as U8.
- Polish male working as owner of medium logistics company (125 employees) coded as P5.
- Polish male working as owner of medium production of polymers for hospitals company (150 employees) coded as P8.
- Ukrainian female working as owner of big construction industry company (270 employees) coded as U6.
- Polish female working as owner of big construction industry company (300 employees) coded as P6.

An online survey was conducted as part of the quantitative study. The choice of this method was due to the constraints of the Covid-19 pandemic and the full internet accessibility of the study population. The survey took place in March and April 2021 on a sample of 521 students from a large university in Poland. These students are overwhelmingly already working and therefore have the experience necessary to answer the survey questions. This approach is similar to another one, highlighted by Tvaronavičienė et al. (2021) with emphasis on the working experience and values of the youth in the working environment within the overall perception of quality of life. In line with the main aim of the survey, the cohort was divided into 2 sub-samples: 283 people of Polish origin (54.3%) and 238 people of Ukrainian origin (45.7%).

The sub-samples had the following structure:

- in the group of Poles women constituted 61.8% of the respondents; in the group of Ukrainians were slightly fewer women only 45.8% (similarity index equal to 0.840);
- in the group of Poles 39.9% were people under 25 years of age, 21.9% were people 25-30 years of age, 17.1% were people 31-37 years of age; 19.4% were people 38-50 years of age, and only 1.8% were people 50+ years of age. In the group of Ukrainians, one can notice the predominance of persons under 30 years of age persons under 25 accounted for 34.5%, persons aged 25-30 for 39.9%, 19.7% persons aged 31-37, 5.5% persons aged 38-50, and only 0.4% persons aged over 50 (similarity index equal to 0.829); differences in the structure by age are due to the characteristics of the immigrant population from this country (cf. e.g. Bińkowski 20171);
- the group of Poles was dominated by people living in the countryside, 43.1% of this sub-sample, 33.6% lived in cities of up to 100,000, 4.9% in cities of 100,000-300,000 and 18.4% lived in big cities (over 300,000); in the group of Ukrainians only every fourth person lived in the countryside (24.8%), 29.8%

lived in cities of up to 100,000, 20.2% in cities of 100,000-300,000 and 25.2% in big cities (similarity index 0.779), 20.2% in cities with 100,000-300 thousand inhabitants, and 25.2% of the respondents lived in large cities (similarity index equal to 0.779); the differences indicated here result from the fact that immigrants relatively rarely settle in rural areas, especially if the purpose of immigration is education;

- For all characteristics, Renkonen's similarity index (cf. e.g. Wolda 19812) exceeded the value of 0.753, which allows the use of comparative methods in the context of analysing perceptions of patriotic entrepreneurship.

3. Results of qualitative research

The research has confirmed that the impact of patriotic entrepreneurship on both buyer and entrepreneurial behaviour can vary from country to country. It may also vary within the countries themselves. Several factors contribute to this variation. According to the first of the Polish respondents, 'the thesis is promoted in the country that capital has no nationality, that it is better to buy foreign goods, because we always have to deal with the economy'. Meanwhile, the opposite is true. 'A subsidiary of a foreign company operating in Poland will not try to buy even cardboard packaging in our country'. Yes, 'they will buy more expensive packaging, but in their own country' (P1). According to the second respondent, 'buying and doing business may depend on work culture, legal systems as well as prevailing customs' (P2). For the respondent running a legal counselling firm, entrepreneurship and purchasing may depend on 'skills, degree of optimism, willingness to take risks, awareness of career choices and fear of failure'. As for buyers, on the other hand, it may depend on confidence in their own products and their producers (P3). The different impact of patriotic entrepreneurship on the purchase of goods and on business people "is determined by the preferences and barriers to action and attitudes of entrepreneurs and customers (P4). The logistics entrepreneur indicated that this influence 'may vary due to historical attitudes to the market economy and the encoding in the mind of the obligation to preserve succession, i.e. leaving the business in the hands of the nationals' (P5). The decisive force in buyers' attitudes towards domestic products and the influence of 'patriotic entrepreneurship on entrepreneurial attitudes stems from attachment to products and the thought of the fate of compatriots' (P6). Patriotic entrepreneurship leads to the situation where 'entrepreneurs, when looking for cooperators, will choose citizens of their own country'. Potential buyers, on the other hand, will 'look for suppliers who inherit the same 'culture, language and principles of approach to the other' (P7). For the polymer producer, the essence of the buyers' and entrepreneurs' behaviour is determined by the 'acquired education in common history', and by this education 'we do not mean only teaching at school, but also 'experiences gained in contact with family and other citizens' (P8). According to another respondent, 'the operativeness of the entrepreneur is decisive in this respect'. If he is efficient, he tries to follow the principles of 'patriotic entrepreneurship'. As far as the buyers of goods are concerned, 'respect for human labour' is decisive (P9). The attitude of entrepreneur and buyer may differ from country to country. The entrepreneur running the driving school believes that the decisive factors in this respect are: 'the personal culture brought from the family home, the attitude towards national identity and the historical experience acquired' (P10).

The research showed that also according to Ukrainian respondents patriotic entrepreneurship influences the behaviour of buyers and entrepreneurs. The statements did not largely differ from those of the Polish respondents. Thus, for the entrepreneur active in accounting services 'geographical and cultural conditions would be decisive in this respect'. The latter (cultural) are grounded in 'personal experiences' and the former are important for

'state institutions and companies' (U1). For another respondent, the book publisher, the decisive factor in this respect would be 'the wealth of the state and the sophistication of its economy, the conditions under which 'a given company is established and functions, and 'on what ground it can develop'. With regard to the buyer, according to the same respondent, the difference would be dictated by 'the wealth of the buyers and, in general, the level of national income' (U2). The legal counselling entrepreneur considers 'the level of economic and cultural development' to be important. And from the perspective of the buyer, 'emotional attachment to the homeland' (U3). The differential impact of patriotic entrepreneurship may, as far as producers are concerned, be due to 'access to means of production, interest in innovation, the prevailing political system and political narrative'. If, on the other hand, the matter concerns buyers, according to the second legal advisor, it is a matter of 'professed value system and level of education' (U4). Differences in entrepreneurs' attitudes towards patriotic entrepreneurship may be due to the very 'understanding of entrepreneurship and its dominant values'. If, on the other hand, the issue concerns buyers, the decisive factor may be 'attitudes to tradition or even an external threat, e.g. from a foreign state' (U5). For the representative of the construction industry as a buyer, 'ties and attachment to the homeland' are not insignificant. The approach of entrepreneurs, on the other hand, may be conditioned by 'a pro-social attitude and attachment to a common history' (U6). For another respondent 'the culture of the entrepreneur, the available technological solutions' was important (U7). According to the manufacturer of catering packaging, 'the history of the country, its culture and wealth' are important. Treating himself as a purchaser, he considered that patriotic entrepreneurship makes it important for him 'to know the tradition, to know about the effort put into the production of the product' (U8). The owner of the construction company stated that patriotic entrepreneurship influences him as a buyer and as a producer. Differing approaches to patriotic entrepreneurship are due to 'different ethical systems, cultural norms, religion, wealth of the country, and even the climate in which the business is conducted'. The approach of buyers, on the other hand, may result from 'the reliability of suppliers and their personal culture' (U9). The last respondent (educational business) stated that 'legal solutions' and - with regard to buyers - 'work ethics and patriotic feelings' are important for the entrepreneur (U10).

4. Results of quantitative research

The quantitative research was aimed at complementing the information obtained from the qualitative research. The main purpose was to assess attitudes towards patriotic entrepreneurship activities and to find differences in these attitudes between people of Polish and Ukrainian origin.

Patriotic entrepreneurship as perceived by buyers manifests itself, among other things, in the recently promoted assessment in the Polish media of the need to purchase products manufactured domestically (by domestic producers).

Among respondents of Polish origin, over 80% agree with the following statement: 'We should buy from companies originating from our country.', of which as many as 43.5% of respondents marked the option 'I completely agree' (see Figure 1). This percentage was significantly lower in the group of respondents of Ukrainian origin (p value < 0.001 in the test of significance for 2 structure indicators). The non-parametric chi-square independence test indicates the existence of a statistically significant relationship between the opinion on the necessity of buying products manufactured by domestic producers and the origin of the buyers (p-value < 0.001).

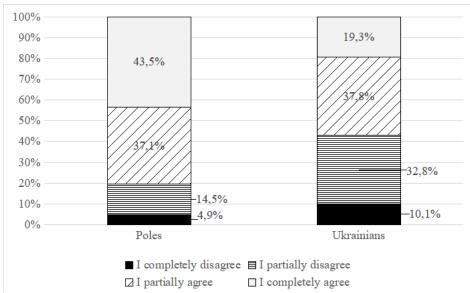


Figure 1. Opinions of Poles and Ukrainians on the need to buy products manufactured by domestic producers

Source: own data

The perception of patriotic entrepreneurship by entrepreneurs themselves (or potential entrepreneurs) concerns in particular such issues as motivation to start a business, location of the business, company headquarters, realization of profits (including payment of taxes), importance of nationality of employees, clients, contractors, etc.

Almost 2 out of 3 respondents from Poland believe that working for the good of the country is an important motivation to start a business (see Figure 2). The percentage of respondents from Ukraine who share this view was much lower - 47% (the difference is statistically significant; p < 0.001). Moreover, the chi-square independence test indicates that there is a statistically significant relationship between the opinion on the motivation to start a business and the origin of the buyers (p-value < 0.001).

In each case, the test of independence is carried out on the basis of data recorded in a crosstab with 2 columns (origin) and 4 rows (agreement with the given statement: completely agree, partly agree, partly disagree, completely disagree).

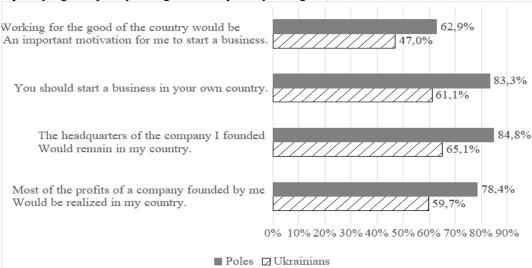


Figure 2. Percentage of people agreeing with the cited opinions on patriotic entrepreneurship Source: *own data*

The vast majority of respondents of Polish origin (more than ¾) believe that one should start a business in their own country, the company's headquarters should remain in this country and profits should be realized there (see Figure 2). In the case of each of the three opinions, the agreement among Ukrainians was significantly lower. The relationship between agreement with the cited opinions on patriotic entrepreneurship and origin is statistically significant (p-value < 0.001 in chi-square independence tests).

In the surveyed population - in both subsamples - the percentage of those agreeing with the statement that an entrepreneur should treat the citizens of their country in a better way was slightly lower (see Figure 3), with only 22% of Polish and 13% of Ukrainian respondents expressing complete agreement.

At the same time, the majority of respondents - both Poles and Ukrainians - believe that the nationality of employees, customers and capital does not matter. In view of the previous findings, it is surprising that also in the case of these statements the percentage of Poles is higher than that of Ukrainians expressing agreement (even in the case of the lack of significance of the nationality of an employee).

For each of the opinions listed in Figure 3, the relationship between agreement with the cited opinions on patriotic entrepreneurship and origin can be confirmed to be statistically significant (p-value = 0.005 in the chi-square independence test for the first opinion, p < 0.001 for the other three).

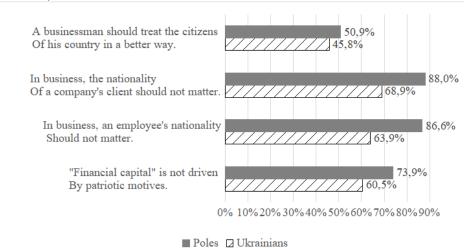


Figure 3. Percentage of people agreeing with the cited opinions on the nationality of employees, customers, etc.

Source: own data

Furthermore, the respondents answered a number of questions related to the understanding of the concept of patriotism, including negative opinions about it.

Most people correctly distinguish between patriotism and nationalism - almost 80% of respondents of Polish origin and 2/3 of respondents from Ukraine agree with the statement indicated in the questionnaire (see Figure 4). At the same time, the distributions of answers are significantly different in the two sub-samples distinguished by origin (p value = 0.004 in the chi-square test of independence). In this context, respondents also expressed an opinion on patriotic and nationalistic entrepreneurship. The majority of respondents believe that entrepreneurship can be patriotic and at the same time that it can be nationalistic; in the first case the percentage of Poles sharing this view is significantly higher than in the case of Ukrainians (p-value = 0.002 in the test for 2 structure indicators), while in the second case it is among Ukrainians that this view is more popular (p = 0.158 - difference not statistically significant). About half of the respondents believe that an entrepreneur should be a patriot

(regardless of origin - p value = 0.292 in the chi-square test of independence). Much more popular is the opinion that leadership can be patriotic - about $\frac{3}{4}$ of the respondents believe this with a slight advantage among Poles (p-value = 0.185 in the chi-square independence test).

At the same time, respondents of Polish origin significantly more often believe that humanism is more important than patriotism (p-value = 0.002 in the test for 2 structure indicators).

Agreement with the statement that patriotism is old-fashioned is rare - it concerns only every fifth respondent from Poland and every third from Ukraine. The distribution of opinions on this issue differs in the two sub-samples distinguished by origin (p-value = 0.007 in the chi-square independence test).

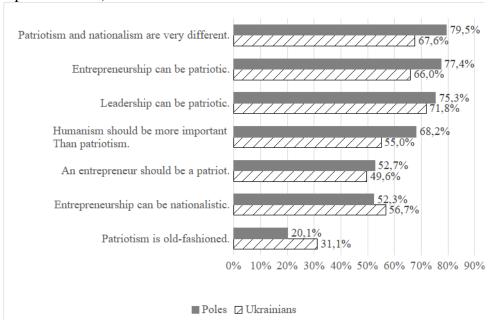


Figure 4. Percentage of persons agreeing with the cited opinions Source: *own data*

It is difficult to draw unequivocal conclusions about the intensity of patriotic sentiments among Poles and Ukrainians. Respondents of Polish origin were much more likely to express agreement with both pro-patriotic and anti-patriotic opinions quoted (e.g. on the importance of nationality of employees and customers). Statistical analysis, including appropriate tests, allow for the assertion that origin is a feature that significantly differentiates opinions on patriotism (applies to 14 of the 16 statements analysed above).

The respondents themselves believe that entrepreneurship is different in different countries (more than 90% of Poles taking part in the study and 75% of Ukrainians) - see Figure 5. Also the majority of people share the opinion that patriotic approach to entrepreneurship may differ (92% of respondents of Polish origin and 72% from Ukraine) - see Figure 6.

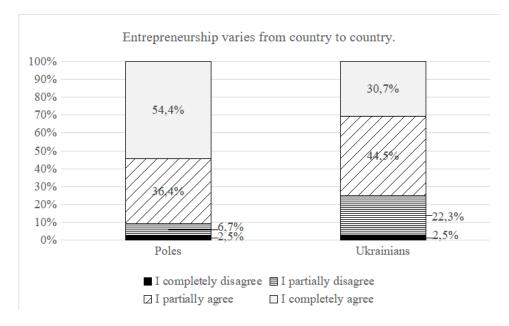


Figure 5. Agreement with the opinion that entrepreneurship varies from country to country Source: *own data*

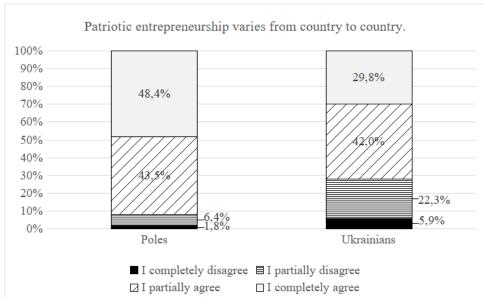


Figure 6. Agreement with the opinion that patriotic entrepreneurship varies from country to country

Source: own data

5. Discussion

Interviews with entrepreneurs did not reveal differences in the perception of the influence of patriotic entrepreneurship on buying behaviour. Polish entrepreneurs used more pragmatic arguments that buyers' behaviour related to buying national products depends on trust in own brands, attachment to them, experiences gained in contact with family and other fellow citizens. There were also arguments about shared culture, values, respect for shared work. This coincides with the research of Lippmann and Aldrich, who argued that individuals are predisposed to see the world through the lens of historical circumstances (Lippmann and Aldrich 2016). Ukrainians tended more towards more abstract arguments, the most common

being attachment to the homeland, although here too more rational arguments were made, such as the reliability of local suppliers.

The quantitative research confirms that there are differences in purchasing behaviour towards own brands. A significantly higher percentage of respondents of Polish origin (81.6%) than of Ukrainian origin (57.1%) believe that one should buy products originating from their own country. Statistical analysis of the results allows for positive verification of the hypothesis that

Perceptions of patriotic entrepreneurship on buyer behaviour vary from country to country.

This situation shows that the more pragmatic arguments of Polish entrepreneurs (as buyers) that buying domestic products depends on the strength of their brands and experiences with them are stronger than the attractive attachment to the homeland. The customer remains a customer and assesses the value provided by the products offered on the market. If the product is of good quality and has a strong brand, its national origin improves the perceived value of the product and increases the chance of purchase. This is confirmed by other studies, where also as product quality increased, the level of customer ethnocentrism increased (Šmaižienė et al. 2014; Bryla, 2017; Maison et al. 2018). An example of such product perceptions are German products, where 'made in Germany' has somehow become a sign of their quality and higher value (Haucap et al. 1997). The attachment to the homeland itself is less pragmatic, which in the purchase decision process of Ukrainian customers, results in domestic products being chosen less often than in Poland, when better foreign goods are indicated as an alternative.

Interviews with entrepreneurs also revealed some differences in the influence of patriotic entrepreneurship on entrepreneurial behaviour. Polish respondents more often saw the influence on their behaviour in their own characteristics. There were arguments that it depends on the entrepreneurs themselves, their operability, skills, optimism, willingness to take risks, whether they will make decisions in support of their own country. In the case of Ukrainian respondents, the most frequent argument was the wealth of the state and the political, legal and economic system in which they operate. In other words, Polish respondents made the application of patriotic entrepreneurship more dependent on themselves, and Ukrainian respondents on the conditions in which they were operating.

Quantitative research also confirms the differences between the attitudes of Poles and Ukrainians. Most Polish respondents (62.9%) believed that working for the good of the country, in the case of Ukrainians this percentage was much lower (47%). Also own country as a place of starting a business or location of the company's headquarters was noticeably more often indicated by Polish entrepreneurs (about 84%) than Ukrainian ones (61% and 65% respectively). Similarly, the own country as a place of paying taxes was indicated more often by Poles (78.4%) than Ukrainians (59.7%). At the same time, statistical analysis of the results allows positive verification of the hypothesis that:

The impact of patriotic entrepreneurship on entrepreneurial behaviour vary from country to country.

Such results indicate that attitudes of entrepreneurs depend on the economic situation in which they operate. The Polish economy, being more developed, offers better opportunities to create a competitive offer. Thus, Polish entrepreneurs more often indicated themselves as an element determining pro-state attitudes. At the same time, they more often declared such attitudes themselves. In other words, the richer the economy, the stronger the company, the wealthier the customer, the more attitudes connected with patriotic entrepreneurship. Naczyk

(2014) came to similar conclusions, noting that Poland's initial openness to foreign investment, resulting from the weakness of the economy and the businesses within it, along with development, was replaced by increasing pressure on politicians to support local entrepreneurship to a greater extent. The dependence of the degree of patriotism on entrepreneurs themselves was also confirmed in a study conducted by Canadian researchers (De Clercqet al. 2015).

Conclusions and recommendations

Patriotic entrepreneurship is relevant to business. Both quantitative and qualitative research indicated that most respondents understand and are willing to be guided by principles that take it into account. At the same time, the differences in the behaviour of entrepreneurs and buyers in Poland and Ukraine show that the very concept of this entrepreneurship, not supported by a strong economy and an attractive offer of domestic enterprises, will remain only a theoretical concept, not implemented in practice.

A prerequisite for the success of patriotic entrepreneurship is a competitive offer from domestic companies. Only good products with a strong brand are able to compete with foreign products. And only then can local origin be an argument for the customer to buy a local product because it will be an added value that may decide to choose a local product. For products to be competitive, however, a competitive economy is needed. The stronger the economy and the more affluent society becomes, the greater the sense of patriotic entrepreneurship should grow. Patriotic entrepreneurship should drive the local economy and contribute to the development of the local economy, local businesses and the local attitudes associated with it.

When analyzing patriotic entrepreneurship, it is worth referring to the model proposed by M.E. Porter, in which the sources of competitive advantage should be sought in the company's environment. According to this model, organizations compete on a global scale, and the location is an important element affecting their position. In conditions of global competition, the importance of nations has increased, and the basis of competition is becoming the ability to create and assimilate knowledge. This feature demands advanced entrepreneurial skills in the education process (Akimov et al., 2021). An important role in creation and assimilation of knowledge is played by the countries and regions in which the organisation is located (Porter, 2001). The most important means of creating competitive advantage is innovation. Companies gain a secure competitive position by implementing innovation and continuous improvement. The source of innovation is not only inside the organisation, but also its environment. Of particular importance is the close competitive environment and the cluster. Companies compete on the basis of the latest innovations, the number and importance of which depends on the close environment of the organisation. The determinant of national competitive advantage becomes the rhombus of national advantage. It consists of four elements: companies competing in a given area, buyers, conditions of production factors and related and supporting sectors. The rivalry between companies forces their constant improvement through the improvement of their innovativeness, customers expect increasingly better products, which also motivates companies to improve their offer, appropriate conditions of production factors should be provided by the public party and the increase of the sector's attractiveness. At the same time, strong development of companies will stimulate the development of related and supporting sectors (Furman et al. 2002).

Patriotic entrepreneurship in this model can be an additional bond co-creating the rhombus of national advantage. Organisations that adhere to patriotic entrepreneurship will be at least to some extent linked to their country of origin. By conducting at least part of their activities there, they will contribute to the development of a given sector. At the same time, by paying taxes locally, they will be able to finance public sector activities aimed at improving

factor conditions. Local sourcing and preference for local suppliers should result in the development of related and supporting sectors. Local customers, preferring local products and at the same time demanding an ever better offer, will on the one hand finance the sector and on the other motivate it to develop. However, one should remember in such a situation that consumer ethnocentrism reduces the involvement of foreign capital in greenfield direct investments (Andrews et al., 2018).

The research should be continued in the future. First of all, other countries should be selected to see if there is a correlation that the intensity of patriotic entrepreneurship increases as the economic level rises. It would also be useful to investigate whether the attachment to local brands increases as the competitiveness of their offer improves. It is important to focus not only on statements about entrepreneurship but also on entrepreneurs and customers practices (propatriotic, indifferent, antipatriotic). Probably there is a sense In considering this modes more deeply: propatriotic, indifferent, antipatriotic entrepreneur and customer behavior.

Acknowledgement

The research was funded by the University of Social Sciences research funds. The authors declare no potential conflicts of interest with regard to the research, authorship, and publication of this article.

References

- Akimov, O. O., Karpa, M. I., Parkhomenko-Kutsevil, O., Kupriichuk, V., & Omarov, A. (2021). Entrepreneurship education of the formation of the e-commerce managers professional qualities. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship*, 25(7), 1-8.
- Alesina, A. & La Ferrara, E. (2005), Ethnic diversity and economic performance. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 43(3), 762-800.
- Andrews, S., Leblang, D. & Pandya, S. (2018). Ethnocentrism reduces foreign direct investment. *The Journal of Politics*. Retrieved August 20, 2021 from https://www.journals.uchicago.edu/doi/abs/10.1086/694916
- Arasli, H., Bavic, A. & Erdoğan, H. E. (2006). The effects of nepotism on human resource management: The case of three, four and five star hotels in northern Cyprus. *International Journal of Sociology and Social Policy*, 26, 295-308. https://doi.org/10.1108/01443330610680399
- Arasli, H. & Tumer, M. (2008), Nepotism, favoritism and cronyism: A study of their effects on job stress and job satisfaction in the banking industry of north Cyprus. *Social Behavior and Personality: an International Journal*, 36(9), 1237-1250. https://doi.org/10.2224/sbp.2008.36.9.1237
- Anggusti M., (2019). The Powers of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) To Raise The Small Medium Enterprises in Indonesia. In *International Conference on Rural Development and Enterpreneurship 2019: Enhancing Small Busniness and Rural Development Toward Industrial Revolution 4.0*, 5(1).
- Audi R. (2009), Nationalism, Patriotism, and Cosmopolitanism in an Age of Globalization, The *Journal of Ethics*, 13(4), 365-381. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10892-009-9068-9
- Awdziej M., Wlodarek D. & Tkaczyk J. (2016), Are elderly consumer more ethnocentric? Attitudes towards Polish and 'foreign' food products. *Journal of Economics and Management*, 23(1), 91-107.

- Balabanis, G., Diamantopoulos, A., Mueller, R. D. & Melewar, T. C. (2001). The impact of nationalism, patriotism and internationalism on consumer ethnocentric tendencies. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(1), 157-175.
- Barnhart R. K. (ed.). (1995). *Dictionary of etymology. the orgins and development of over 25.000 English words*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- Brubaker R. (2004). In the name of the nation: reflections on nationalism and patriotism. *Citizenship Studies*, 8(2), 115-127. https://doi.org/10.1080/1362102042000214705
- Bryla, P. (2017), Consumer ethnocentrism on the organic food market in Poland. *Marketing i Zarządzanie*, 48, 11-20. https://doi.org/10.18276/miz.2017.48-01
- Cheah, I. & Phau, I. (2015), Conceptualising consumer economic nationalistic tendencies: scale development and validation. *The International Review of Retail, Distribution and Consumer Research*, 25(3), 313-331.
- Clift, B. & Woll, C. (2012), The Revival of Economic Patriotism. Morgan G. and Whitley R. (Eds) *Capitalisms and Capitalism in the Twenty-First Century*, Oxford: Oxford Scholarship, pp. 70-89. https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199694761.001.0001
- Clift, B. & Woll, C. (2012a), Economic patriotism: reinventing control over open markets. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 19(3), 307-323. https://doi.org/10.1080/13501763.2011.638117
- Clift, B. (2013), Economic Patriotism, the Clash of Capitalisms, and State Aid in the European Union. *Journal of Industry, Competition and Trade*, 13(1), 101-117. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10842-012-0138-5
- Commission Regulation (EU) No 1407/2013 of 18 December 2013 on the application of Articles 107 and 108 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union to de minimis aid Text with EEA relevance, Retrieved August 20, 2021, from https://eurlex.europa.eu/legal-content/PL/TXT/?uri=uriserv%3AOJ.L .2013.352.01.0001.01.ENG
- Crowther J. (1998), Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. Fifth Edition,Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Davidov E. (2010), Nationalism and Constructive Patriotism: A Longitudinal Test of Comparability in 22 Countries with ISSP. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 23(1), 88-103. https://doi.org/10.1093/ijpor/edq031
- De Clercq, D., Narongsak, T., & Voronov M. (2015), "Explaining SME Engagement in Local Sourcing: The Roles of Location-Specific Resources and Patriotism. *International Small Business Journal*, 33(8), 929–50. https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242614540316
- Diodato, E., & Niglia, F. (2019), Berlusconi 'The Diplomat', London: Palgrave pp. 97-141.
- Dowley, K. M. & Silver, B. D. (2000), Subnational and National Loyalty: Cross-national Comparisons. *International Journal of Public Opinion Research*, 12(4), 357-371.
- Druckman, D. (1994), Nationalism, Patriotism and Group Layalty: A Social Psychological Perspective. *Mershom International Studies Review*. 38(1), 43-68.
- England, E. (1985), A Small and Piercing Voice: The Sermons of Spencer W. *Kimball. Brigham Young University Studies*, 25(4), 77-108.
- Estrin, S., Mickiewicz, T., & Ute, S. (2016), Human capital in social and commercial entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 31(4), 449-467. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2016.05.003
- Fendt, J. & Sachs W. (2007), Grounded Theory Method in Management Research: Users' Perspectives. *Organizational Research Methods*, 11(3), 430-455. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428106297812
- Fetahu, D. (2017). The importance of nepotym and corruption management in institutions and the economy of the country. *European Journal of Multidisciplinary Studies*, 2, 133–43.
- Fetzer, T. (2017). Patriotism and the economy. Sardoc M. (Ed), *Handbook of Patriotism*, Springer, Cham, pp. 1-16. https://doi.org/10.26417/ejms.v6i2.p133-143

- Fagerström, J. (2020). How China and Nordic countries conceptualise Corporate Social Responsibility: A study of senior decision-makers' statements within the banking sector (Dissertation). Retrieved March 5, 2022, from http://urn.kb.se/resolve?urn=urn:nbn:se:du-35145
- Furman, J.L., Porter, M.E., & Stern, S. (2002). The determinant of national innovative capacity. *Research Policy*, 31, 899 933.
- Gawell, M. (2013). Social entrepreneurship: action grounded in needs, opportunities and/or perceived necessities? *VOLUNTAS: International Journal of Voluntary and Nonprofit Organizations*, 24(4), 1071-1090.
- Gehlen, B., Marx, Ch., & Reckendress, A. (2020), Ambivalences of nationality— Economic nationalism, nationality of the company, nationalism as strategy: An introduction. *Journal of Modern European History*, 18(1), 16–27.
- Gibbs, D. (2009). Sustainability entrepreneurs, ecopreneurs and the development of a sustainable economy. *Greener Management International*, 55, 62-78.
- Good, L. K. & Huddleston, P. (1995). Ethnocentrism of Polish and Russian consumers: Are feelings and intentions related. *International Marketing Review*, 12(5), 35-48.
- Grębosz-Krawczyk, M. (2019). Attitudes of young consumers towards international nostalgic brands the comparative study. *Economics and Sociology*, 12(3), 181-191. https://doi.org/10.14254/2071-789X.2019/12-3/12
- Greenfeld, L. (2011). Globalization of nationalism and the future of the nation-state. *International Journal of Politics, Culture and Society*. 24(1-2), 5-9. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10767-010-9110-8
- Gurría, A. (2013). The missing entrepreneurs: Policies for inclusive entrepreneurship in Europe. OECD. OECD/The European Commission: OECD Publishing.
- Hall, J. K., Daneke, G.A., & Lenox, M. J. (2010), Sustainable development and entrepreneurship: Past contributions and future directions. *Journal of Business Venturing* 25(5), 439-448. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2010.01.002
- Hammond, R. A., & Axelrod, R. (2006), The Evolution of Ethnocentrism. *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 50(6), 926-936. https://doi.org/10.1177/0022002706293470
- Haucap, J., Wey, Ch., & Barmbold, J. F. (1997). Location Choice as a Signal for Product Quality: The Economics of "Made in Germany", *Journal of Institutional and Theoretical Economics (JITE) / Zeitschrift Für Die Gesamte Staatswissenschaft*, 153(3), 510-31.
- Helleiner, E. (2021). The diversity of economic nationalism. *New Politcal Economy*, 26(2), 229-238.
- Hewstone, M., Rubin, M., & Hazel, W. (2002). Intergroup Bias. *Annual Review of Psychology*. 53, 575-604.
- Ignatowski, G., Sułkowski, Ł., & Stopczyński, B. (2021). Risk of increased acceptance for organizational nepotism and cronyism during the covid-19 pandemic. *Risks*, 9(4), https://doi.org/10.3390/risks9040059
- Ivanova-Gongne M, Torkkeli, L., Hannibal, M., Uzhegova, M., Barner-Rasmussen, W., Dziubaniuk, O., & Kulkov, I. (2022). Cultural sensemaking of corporate social responsibility: A dyadic view of Russian–Finnish business relationships, *Industrial Marketing Management*, 101, 153-164.
- Jaskiewicz P., Uhlenbruck K., Balkin D.B., & Reay T. (2013). Is nepotism good or bad? Types of nepotism and implications for knowledge management, *Family Business Review*, 26(2),121-139. https://doi.org/10.1177/0894486512470841
- Jones, R. G., & Stout, T. (2015). Policing nepotism and cronyism without losing the value of social connection. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 8, 2–12. https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2014.3

- Keles H.N., Ozkan T.K. & Bezirci M. (2011), A Study On The Effects Of Nepotism, Favoritism And Cronyism On Organizational Trust In The Auditing Process In Family Businesses In Turkey, *International Business and Economics Research Journal*, 10(9), 9-16. https://doi.org/10.19030/iber.v10i9.5622
- Keohane, O. (2018), *Cosmo-nationalism: American, French and German Philosophy*, Edinburg: Edinburg University Press.
- Kim, R. B., & Chao, Y. (2019). Effects of brand experience, brand image and brand trust on brand building process: The case of Chinese millennial generation consumers. *Journal of International Studies*, 12(3), 9-21. https://doi.org/10.14254/2071-8330.2019/12-3/1
- Kregel J. (2019), Globalization, Nationalism, and Clearing Systems. *Review of Keynesian Studies*, 1, 1-21. https://doi.org/10.34490/revkeystud.1.0_1
- Krzywosz-Rynkiewicz, B., Zalewska, A. M. & Karakakatsani D. (2017), Does economic condition matter?: Citizenship activity of young people in countries with different economic status. *Citizenship Teaching and Learning*, 12(2), 151-169.
- Leadbeaster, Ch. & Goss, S. (1998), Civic entrepreneurship. London. Demos.
- Lekakis, E. J. (2017). Economic nationalism and the cultural politics of consumption under austerity: The rise of ethnocentric consumption in Greece. *Journal of Consumer Culture*, 17(2), 286-302. https://doi.org/10.1177/1469540515586872
- Levi-Faur, D. (1997), Economic nationalism: from Friedrich List to Robert Reich. *Review of International Studies*, 23(3), 359–370.
- Lippmann, S. & Aldrich, H. E. (2016), A rolling stone gathers momentum: Generational units, collective memory, and entrepreneurship. *The Academy of Management Review*, 41(4), 658–675.
- Luchko, M., Arzamasova, O., & Vovk, I. (2019). Personnel potential of national economy and gross domestic product: The case of Ukraine. *Montenegrin Journal of Economics*, 15(2), 59-70. https://doi.org/10.14254/1800-5845/2019.15-2.5
- Maison, D., Ardi, R., Yulianto, J. E., & Rembulan, C. L. (2018). How consumer ethnocentrism can predict consumer preferences construction and validation of SCONET scale. *Polish Psychological Bulletin*, 49(3), 365-374. https://doi.org/10.24425/119504
- Markell P. (2000). Macing affect for democracy? On "constitutional patriotism". *Political Theory*. 28(1), 38-63.
- Melegh A. (2006). On the east—west slope. Globalization, nationalism, racism and discourses on Eastern Europe. Budapest, New York: Central European University Press.
- Moreno-Luzón, J. (2007). Fighting for the national memory. The Commemoration of the Spanish 'War of Independence' in 1908-1912", *History and Memory*, 19(1), 68-94. https://doi.org/10.2979/his.2007.19.1.68
- Mukherjee, R. (2008). A century of trust: the story of tata steel. New Delhi: Penguin Books India.
- Mummendey, A., Klink, A. & Brown, R. (2001). Nationalism and patriotism: National identification and out-group rejection. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 40(2), 159-172.
- Naczyk, (2014). Budapest in Warsaw: Central european business elites and the rise of economic patriotism since the crisis. *SSRN Electronic Journal*. Retrieved August 20, 2021, from https://papers.ssrn.com/sol3/papers.cfm?abstract_id=2550496
- Ogbolu, M. N., & Singh, R. P. (2019). Studying consumer ethnocentrism as a factor for depressed rates of black entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Diversity*, 19(5). https://doi.org/10.33423/jbd.v19i5.2647
- Pacheco D, F., Dean T. J., & Payne D. S. (2010). Escaping the green prison: Entrepreneurship and the creation of opportunities for sustainable development. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 25(5), 464-480. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2009.07.006

- Padgett, M., & Morris K. (2005). Keeping it "All in the Family:" Does nepotism in the hiring process really benefit the beneficiary?. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 11, 34-45. https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190501100205
- Padgett, M., Padgett, R.J., & Morris K. (2015). Perceptions of nepotism beneficiaries: the hidden price of using a family connection to obtain a job. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 30, 283-288. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-014-9354-9
- Papp, M., & Varju, M. (2019). The crisis, economic patriotism in central Europe and EU law. Antoniolli, L. Bonatti, L. Ruzza, C. (Eds.) *Highs and lows of European integration*. New York: Springer International Publishing 2019, pp. 143-163.
- Pham, T. V. (2019). Indonesia guided economy: 1957-1965. Pham, T. V. (Ed) *Beyond Political Skin*, Singapore: Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd., pp. 159-207.
- Poole, R. (2008). Patriotism and nationalism. Primoratz I., Pavcovic A. (Ed) *Patriotism*. *Philosophical and Political Perspectives*. Alderton: Ashgate, pp. 2-34.
- Porter, M.E., (2008). On competition. Boston: Harvard Business School Publishing.
- Pryke, S. (2012). Economic nationalism: theory, history and prospects. *Global Policy*, 3(3), 281-291.
- Puncheva-Michelotti, P., Hudson, S., & Michelotti, M. (2018). The role of proximity to local and global citizens in stakeholders' moral recognition of corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Business Research*, 88, 234-244. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.03.027.
- Rawwas M., Rajendran, K. N., & Wuehrer G. A. (1996). The influence of worldmindedness and nationalism on consumer evaluation of domestic and foreign products. *International Marketting Review*, 13(2), 20-41. https://doi.org/10.1108/02651339610115746
- Ray, J.J., & Furnham, A. (1984). Authoritarianism, conservatism and racism. *Ethnic and Racial Studies*, 7(3), 406-412.
- Reznikova, N., Panchenko, V., & Bulatova, O. (2018). The policy of economic nationalism: From origins to new variations of economic patriotism. *Baltic Journal of Economic Studies*, 4(4), 274-281. https://doi.org/10.30525/2256-0742/2018-4-4-274-281
- Rosamond, B. (2012). Supranational governance as economic patriotism? The European Union, legitimacy and the reconstruction of state space. *Journal of European Public Policy*, 19(3), 324-341. https://doi.org/10.1080/13501763.2011.638119
- Rowe, P. A., & Christie, M. J. (2008). Civic entrepreneurship in Australia: Opening the "black box" of tacit knowledge in local government top management teams. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 21(5), 509-524. https://doi.org/10.1108/09513550810885804
- Shimp, T., & Sharma, S. (1987). Consumer ethnocentrism: Construction and validation of the CETSCALE. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 24(3), 280-289. https://doi.org/10.2307/3151638
- Siamagka, N. T., & Balabanis, G. (2015). Revisiting consumer ethnocentrism: review, reconceptualization, and empirical testing. *Journal of International Marketing*, 23(3), 66-86. https://doi.org/10.1509/jim.14.0085
- Spillan J. E., & Harcar T. (2013). A comperativ study of patriotism, protectionism, social economic conservatism between Indian and Vietnemese consumers: the effect of those constructs on buying inclination. *Eurasian Journal of Business and Economics*, 2(6), 1-26.
- Staerklé Ch., Sidanius J., Green E.G.T., & Molina L.E. (2010). Ethnic minority-majority asymetry in national attitudes around the world: a multieval analysis. *Political Psychology*, 31(4), 491-519.
- St'ahel, R. (2013). Globalisation and the crisis. Philosophica. *Towards a Political Philosophy*, 12, 45-56.

- Suryadinata, L. (2000). *Nationalism and globalization. East and west*. Singapore: Institute of Southeast Asian Studies.
- Szanyi, M. (2017). Impacts of the crisis on the fdi-led development model in Hungary: Emergence of economic patriotism or shift from the competition state to patronage?. Havlik, P., & Iwasaki I. (Eds). *Economics of European Crises and Emerging Markets*, Palgrave, Singapore, (pp. 149-170).
- Šmaižienė, I., & Vaitkienė, R. (2014). Consumer ethnocentrism and attitudes towards the domestic and foreign-made dietary supplements (the case of Lithuanian market). *Economics and Business*. 26, 88-96. https://doi.org/10.7250/eb.2014.025
- Teo Poh-Chuin, & Osman, M. (2017). The impacts of worldmindedness and nationalism on students' attitude and purchase intention towards portable consumer eledctronics: a cross-national study. 6th Business and Management Conference, Geneva, Retrieved August 20, 2021, from <a href="https://iises.net/proceedings/6th-business-management-conference-geneva-56/table-of-content/detail?article=the-impacts-of-worldmindedness-and-nationalism-on-students-attitude-and-purchase-intention-towards-portable- , April 01, 2021. https://doi.org/10.20472/BMC.2017.006.013
- Thompson, J., Lees A., & Alvy G. (2000). Social entrepreneurship a new look at the people and the potential. *Management Decision*, 38(5), 328-338.
- Thorgren, S., & Wincent, J. (2013). Passion and habitual entrepreneurship. *International Small Business Journal*, 33(2), 216-227. https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242613487085
- Toften, K., & Hammervoll, T. (2013). Niche marketing research: Status and challenges, *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 31(3), 272-285. https://doi.org/10.1108/02634501311324618
- Tvaronavičienė, M., Mazur, N., Mishchuk, H., & Bilan, Y. (2021). Quality of life of the youth: Assessment methodology development and empirical study in human capital management. *Economic Research-Ekonomska Istraživanja*, 1-18. https://doi.org/10.1080/1331677X.2021.1956361
- Wruuck P. (2006). Economic patriotism. new game in industry policy?. *EU Monitor*, June 14, 2006, 3-4.
- Zeugner-Roth, K.P., Žabkar, V., & Diamantopoulos, A. (2015). Consumer ethnocentrism, national identity, and consumer cosmopolitanism as drivers of consumer behavior: A social identity theory perspective. *Journal of International Marketing*, 23(2), 25-54.
- Zueva, A., & Fairbrass, J. (2021). Politicising government engagement with corporate social responsibility: "CSR" as an Empty Signifier. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 170, 635–655. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04330-5